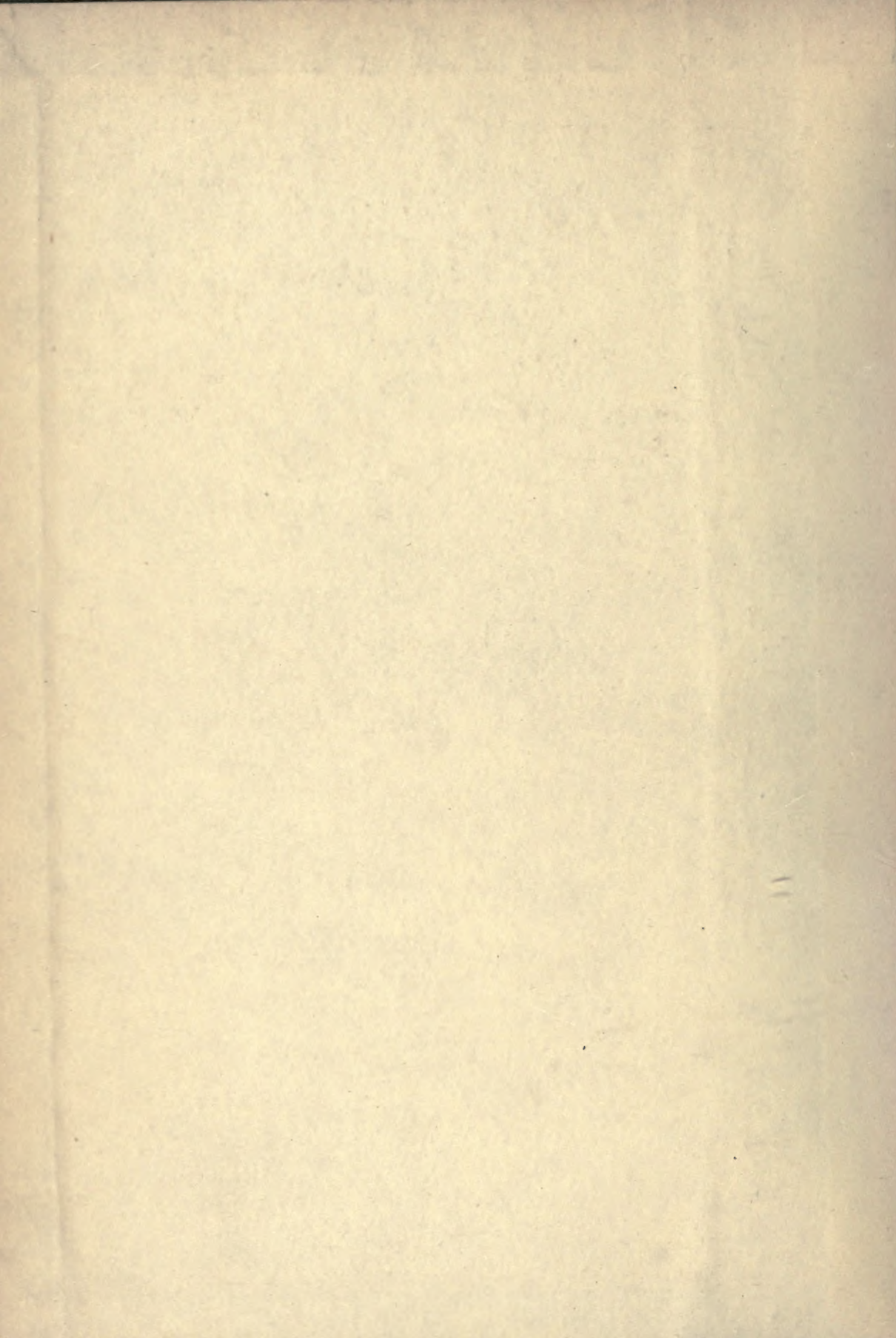


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# THE SURVEY

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VOLUME XXIX, No. 1

WEEK OF OCT. 5, 1912

THE

# SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



*Victor David Brenner, Sculptor*



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# THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

VOLUME XXIX. No. 1

OCTOBER 5, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### A NATIONAL CLEARING-HOUSE FOR SOCIAL SURVEYS AND EXHIBITS

How much will a survey cost our city? How can we get one started? Where can we get people to do the work? How long will it take to make it? Ever since the publication of the first reports of the Pittsburgh Survey, inquiries of this sort have been coming increasingly from cities east, west, north and south, to *THE SURVEY*, to the various departments of the Russell Sage Foundation, to the American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity and to other bodies which have not been engaged primarily in making this kind of city inventories.

The situation has seemed more and more to call for a central organization which could specialize in social surveys and to which inquiries and inquirers could be sent. Similarly, for several years past representatives of national organizations dealing with social and kindred problems have felt the need of a central clearing-house for inquiries relating to social and civic exhibits. City surveys and investigations along specific lines have been bringing forward vital facts, and every such study is in itself a new demand for better avenues and methods of popularizing the information unearthed.

To meet these widespread demands, the Russell Sage Foundation has just established a Department of Surveys and Exhibits, with headquarters at 31 Union Square, New York.

The starting of this new social agency, however, means more than the mere centralizing of inquiries. Back of that it is a recognition of important changes in human relationships, due to tremendous industrial development, the city-

ward movement, immigration, the influx of women in industry and other causes. With these changes have come new problems calling for new diagnosis and study to learn whether the old machinery for individual and social advance is fitting the new needs,—whether the community has been keeping abreast of scientific progress. We have been experimenting with instruments to get at, register and interpret the situation, and the starting of this national bureau may be regarded as recognizing (in a new and larger way than heretofore) the survey as an organized method of social discovery and the exhibit as an agency for popular interpretation. Their usefulness has been demonstrated as means to be employed in auditing present efficiency, in securing corrective action and in constructive planning for the future.

The detailed plan of action of the department has not as yet been fully worked out. In general terms, it will be to define and spread the social survey and exhibit idea; to collect and keep within easy reference reach, through pamphlets, reports, photographs, drawings, miniatures and models, information on survey and exhibit experience that has been gained thus far, and to build up an agency for assisting communities to organize surveys and exhibits. To these ends it will give advice as to methods and materials for exhibits (costs, economies, sources, rentals) and will collate and develop new ways of representing facts so as to grip the minds of the crowds who are not impressed by statistical tables or will not translate columns of figures into terms of their own experience. To cite a simple matter, quite a bit of experience has been built up on how many lines of type the average





SHELBY M. HARRISON

man will read under an enlarged photograph. The department will not have sufficient funds for sending members of its staff into communities for long periods of time to prepare exhibits, but it will to some extent be able to send representatives for short visits to assist in planning and organizing local projects.

In the matter of surveys, it will stand ready to help local organizations make the preliminary diagnosis necessary to determine what should be the major lines of inquiry prosecuted; and will put them in touch with experienced investigators who can forward the work from the point where the diagnosis stops.

In regard both to surveys and to exhibits it is not the purpose of the department to overlap the work of existing organizations, but rather to work out standards in co-operation with them and to place itself at their service.

The department is under the direction of Shelby M. Harrison and he will be assisted by E. G. Routzahn who will give special attention to the work in exhibits. Mr. Harrison has had exceptionally broad experience in surveys. He carried on post graduate work in statistics at Harvard under Prof. William Z. Ripley who in his *Races of Europe* has perhaps done more than any one else in this country in devising methods for the graphic portrayal of social and economic facts. Mr. Harrison was recommended by Professor Ripley as the man best equipped to scheme out and supervise the draughting of the series of charts and maps of the Pittsburgh Survey which were shown at Carnegie Institute

in the fall of 1908 and were used in the published volumes. He was the statistician of the staff and made an investigation of the tax situation in Pittsburgh which proved a vital factor in the deep-seated tax reforms of last year. He was director of the Syracuse Survey of 1911, and as a member of the staff of *THE SURVEY* was in charge of the field work of the special Birmingham number (January, 1912) which for the first time made an adequate interpretation of the social and economic problem of the new southern industrial communities.

Mr. Routzahn brings to his new work the fruits of six years' experience in the exhibit campaigns of the National Tuberculosis Association conducted in more than forty cities of Canada, Mexico and the United States. He has been particularly successful in tying up his campaigns to local forces that would carry the work on after he left the communities.

A departmental committee has been organized which will be in close touch with the new work. The members of the committee are:

Mary E. Richmond, director Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, chairman;

Leonard P. Ayres, associate director Department of Child Hygiene, Russell Sage Foundation;

Livingston Farrand, executive secretary National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis;

John M. Glenn, general director Russell Sage Foundation;

Paul U. Kellogg, formerly director the Pittsburgh Survey; and

Francis H. McLean, general secretary American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity.

#### A BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL AND SOCIAL SERVICE

As a response to the same demand for efficiency in community work which has just led the Russell Sage Foundation to create a Bureau of Social Surveys, the People's Institute of New York has united with the Bureau of Social Research of New England in establishing a National Bureau of Municipal and Social Service. The office of the new national bureau will be at 50 Madison avenue, New York. A branch office will be maintained in Providence.

The purpose of the bureau is stated as follows:

(1) The study of municipal and social problems and the making of social surveys by trained men under the auspices of local agencies and for the purpose of securing accurate and scientific knowledge upon which to base constructive policies of improvement, economy and efficiency and municipal service.

(2) The maintenance of a bureau to aid municipal and civic authorities to find proper experts



in such problems as taxation, sanitation, engineering, etc., and to promote a wider knowledge of the successes and achievements of cities in the whole municipal field.

(3) The establishment of a clearing-house on municipal and social affairs, and the publication from time to time of such literature as will facilitate knowledge of what is being done throughout the United States and abroad.

(4) The working out of uniform standards in municipal and social matters so as to make the efforts expended by cities where studies have been made easily comparable with results achieved elsewhere.

Under the direction of Carol Aronovici, who has been appointed director of the new organization, the New England bureau during the last two years has made a score of studies of municipal and social conditions. Some of the cities in which this work has been performed are Buffalo, Providence, Springfield, Newport and Waterbury. Mr. Aronovici, in addition to his work of conducting social surveys, has made a number of special investigations for the state department of labor in Rhode Island, the results of which have been published in the annual reports of the commissioner of labor. He has also been a member of the teaching staff of Brown University.

Frederic C. Howe, the new managing director of the People's Institute and one of the best known writers on municipal topics, and John Collier, who is especially known for his work in furthering the educational use of moving pictures, will also take part in the management of the new organization. The People's Institute, under Mr. Howe, in answer to growing demands, has consciously aimed to widen the scope of its interests which formerly centered mainly around the leisure time problem and feels that it can do so most effectively through this new bureau. Cities and towns calling for the assistance of the new bureau will pay for the work performed. New Britain, Conn., has ordered an investigation. The cost of this will be paid by the city. The investigators have been made sanitary inspectors.

#### PARLIAMENT OF HEALTH

To speak in terms of chemistry, what will be the precipitate in "our United States" of the Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, which has been in session in Washington? Previous congresses have not been without results in the countries in which they have met and in the world at large. They have brought about improved methods of public hygiene and have spread information concerning health. Thus the third congress, meeting in Paris in 1878, was followed by sanitary re-

forms, conspicuously in Paris itself.<sup>1</sup> The death rate of Italian cities began to decline soon after the fourth congress, at Turin, which marked the beginning of municipal hygiene in Italy. The Federal Bureau of Health of Switzerland owes its foundation to the fifth meeting at Geneva in 1882. The seventh congress, held at Vienna in 1887, led to the demolition of Vienna's overcrowded tenements, the construction of healthful dwellings, the introduction of a pure water supply, and eventually to the complete transformation of the city. The era of legislation for the health of wage-earners, in which England still holds leadership, is said to date from the ninth gathering of this body in London in 1891.

The launching of special reforms in the city or country in which the congress happens to be meeting is not, of course, its first object. Nevertheless, it was hoped to use this fifteenth meeting, the first ever held outside of Europe, as a leverage for lifting permanently into the public mind several matters of elementary importance. One of these related to the Panama Canal. While our accomplishments in sanitation on the isthmus give us just cause for pride,<sup>2</sup> the future success and value of the canal as an international thoroughfare depend largely on the continuance of work now going on. The present congress, it was thought, provided a timely opportunity to convince the world of this, as well as to exhibit the methods and results of our sanitary efforts in the Canal Zone. For this reason it was especially unfortunate that Colonel W. C. Gorgas, "the man who made the Canal Zone habitable," was prevented from attending the gathering and from delivering his scheduled address by the failure of the United States Congress at its last session to appropriate any money for traveling expenses for him and other officials. Dr. J. A. Le Prince of the Canal Commission was on hand, however, to describe the new methods discovered and now in use for waging war on malaria.

Another reform which it has been hoped the congress would accelerate has to do with vital statistics, in which the United States with its meagre registration area has lagged far behind European countries.

The various sections into which the congress was divided and the exhibits will be reviewed more fully in a later issue of *THE SURVEY*. One or two points may be noted here.

With much that was familiar there was much also in the week's discussion that, to many at least, took on the character of discovery or of information made public for the first time. The newspaper dispatches make it obvious that by no means the least service rendered by the

<sup>1</sup>See the *Monthly Bulletin* of the Department of Health of the City of New York, August, 1912; page 193.

<sup>2</sup>See Sanitation on the Isthmus, by James Ten Broeck Bowles, page 41.



gathering will be the wide discussion among laymen of more or less technical medical knowledge which nevertheless has its direct bearing on healthful living from day to day. That typhus fever has been traced to the louse as carrier, and that measles are ordinarily communicated, not by the scaling off of dried particles of skin, but by the fine spray thrown out in the act of sneezing or coughing, are types of this sort of medical learning which found a place in the press dispatches.

Specific conditions were held up to the public by expert hands in ways that made clear the danger ahead unless timely precautions are taken. Thus, T. Kennard Thompson, vice-president of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, in illustration of his statement that caisson disease is often due not so much to work in compressed air as to work in foul atmospheres, called attention to the deposits of sewage in the Harlem River near New York. During the construction of the Harlem River tunnel, said Mr. Thompson, men complained of the "bends" when passing through the foul mud in the bottom of the stream. Tests that were made showed very clearly that the tides are not carrying all the sewage; a black putrid mud of offensive smell settles on the bottoms of the Harlem, Hudson and East Rivers. Here, said Mr. Thompson, lay the hot bed of an epidemic. "It would even be dangerous to pump the water to put out fires," he continued, "as so much foul mud would thus be scattered over the city to dry and spread as dust."

Another condition, quite as potent for evil, though less local in nature, was pointed out by Dr. George Reid, health officer of Stafford, England. Dr. Reid recently conducted an inquiry for the Home Office Department of the English government which, among other objects, sought to determine more accurately the effect, if any, of the labor of married women on infant mortality. The twelve months' life history of 5,000 infants born in families of the artisan class in the pottery towns of north Staffordshire was studied. The infant mortality among the class of working mothers was found to exceed that among the housewives by 43 per cent. By a shift in the statistical classifications it was found that the mortality among infants partly artificially fed exceeded that of the naturally fed class by 79 per cent, that those wholly artificially fed exceeded the breast fed babies by 157.

The discussion of course went further than the mere pointing out of evils. As a step toward their elimination, there was call for a national board of health, and for a training school, something like West Point, where young men intending to make railroading their life work may be trained to an efficiency that would lessen the

number of accidents in travel. Dr. Charles G. Kerley of New York argued for a commission or committee by which the state should exercise more complete authority over every child. "It is only by such means," he said, "that we will ever solve many of the urgent problems before us. Prophylaxis against crime, degeneracy and general worthlessness are in the hands of the public for the signal betterment of the race."

At times the more familiar arguments dealing with hygiene, vocational disease and work accidents thus cleared away to make room for a sharp pronouncement or two on the subject of eugenics.

Dr. Kerley offered entire agreement with the persons who, he said, "had declared that if two infants, one born in a palace and one in a hovel, both in fair physical condition, were exchanged on the day of birth, each would work out his destiny along the lines of his environment. The child of the hovel would grow up to the palace and the offspring of the palace would remain on the level of the hovel. Character indicates the individual. Heredity has but little influence in determining character. Character above all things else is the product of environment."

Confining himself to the problems of brain, as distinct from character development, Dr. L. F. Barker of Johns Hopkins University laid emphasis on sound heredity as the condition precedent of a good mind. "Only a minority of the public know," said Dr. Barker, "that the kind of mind an individual has depends on the inborn qualities of brain he inherits and the influences which act upon it afterwards." "By a campaign for mental hygiene," he declared again, "is meant a systematic attempt to secure human brains, so naturally endowed and nurtured that people will think, feel and act better than they do now."

Agreement among experts is proverbially an unusual thing, yet resolutions were adopted approving the suggestion that an international committee be appointed to bring about uniformity in methods of classification of the different organisms of the colon bacilli, which causes typhoid fever; that occupational diseases be reported in uniform manner by international agreement; that greater uniformity be obtained in the reports of the medical departments of the navies of the world as to the causes of disability or death; that an international agreement be made on the manner of collecting reports of marriages, births, deaths and divorces, and that such reports, made to conform to a uniform standard, be published periodically; that a commission be appointed to bring about uniformity in criminal statistics and that the permanent international committee of the congress be instructed to establish a permanent bureau for fu-



ture congresses. It was decided that such a bureau shall be established in the immediate future, to be located at The Hague.

### THE SUCCESSORS TO THE FATES

The medallion reproduced on the cover of this issue of *THE SURVEY*—the official emblem of the Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography—was designed by Victor David Brenner of New York, perhaps most widely known as the designer of the Lincoln penny.

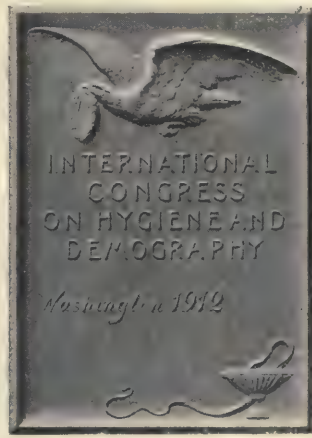
The figures on the medal symbolize the overthrow of the three Fates who, in the mythology of ancient Greece, spun and snipped at will the thread of human life. Hygiene and sanitation have in these modern days wrested the control of life away from these ancient sisters, and in

summoned one to the cradle side. Him she bade follow the thread, from the first whimper of the newly born to the last hour of his appointed calendar: for so each mortal made his earthly transit, trailed by his Doom unseen, unheard, yet ever at his heels.

"Lachesis, second of the grim sisterhood, spun the thread to a length foreknown.

"Atropos, eldest and ugliest of the three, wielding shears as cruel in sport as in earnest, menaced the thread; and soon or late, caring only lest the common lot should lack infinite variety, cut it, adding a limp thread more to her handful. Then the kind Earth upraised a little heap to hide the Man who was: then sped the Soul to Tartarus; and the Doom back to Clotho, there to await another cradle call.

"A poet he must be who can wrest an attribute from the un pitying Fates and make it the dominant of a theme as significant as this in which Mr. Brenner has tried to symbolize



THE OFFICIAL EMBLEM OF THE FIFTEENTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF HYGIENE AND DEMOGRAPHY, DESIGNED BY VICTOR DAVID BRENNER

peace and safety spin the thread. This is the prophetic theme.

The idea was that of Dr. John S. Fulton of Baltimore, secretary-general of the congress, who has written the following explanation of the emblem:

"Sisters they were, Clotho of the distaff, Lachesis the spinner, Atropos of the shears; of dreadful aspect, and so feared by men that the ignorant propitiated them with mistaken rites, at the wrong altars, confusing the Fates with the inferior and more terrible Furies.

Clotho, youngest of the three, presided over the birth of mortals. Diademed and richly clad, she sat enthroned among the stars, her distaff resting its foot on Earth, its flax-crowned tip reaching to Heaven. And as she called the roll of mortals crowding to be born, Clotho plucked a wisp of flax, started a thread, passed it to her sister, and, from a throng of waiting Dooms,

the present aspect and future promise of hygiene.

"In these two figures we have a vision of efficient motherhood—motherhood in the purple, stately, and wise—postulant motherhood in a tunic, slim and unaware. And they are nobly occupied, compelling the beholder's interest in their handiwork—a loop of thread, spun, as all life is spun, from the immortal plasma: expendable, corruptible, yet aggrandized and incorrupt throughout an incommensurable past; still imperfect, but perfectible through an infinite future.

"Perhaps the artist did not mean to express himself in terms of eugenics. He probably did intend to reveal the future promise of hygiene, rather than its actual attainment; and so the picture developed of necessity upon such lines as we see here, not descriptive, but ascriptive like the rich mythology to which it is so clearly kin. The eugenic phrase is inadequate, but the picture itself is eloquent. Its unphrased motive



is eugenic, and its reverent ascription to womanhood is true. These two creatures, and their like, are they that have prevailed hitherto, and will prevail. Theirs is the last work in hygiene."

### THE HUMAN SIDE OF LARGE OUTPUTS

It is just a year this month since THE SURVEY started the publication of John A. Fitch's articles on the Human Side of Large Outputs. They presented the results of an investigation carried out under a special fund supplied by Charles M. Cabot of Boston to see to what extent conditions disclosed by the Pittsburgh Survey in the Pittsburgh steel district were duplicated in the other centers of steel production. "Human events" have moved rapidly in this great industry in the last year, and it will be opportune to gather together in a few paragraphs especially the developments of the past summer. The October number of *The American Magazine* tells in its leading article<sup>1</sup> the graphic story of Mr. Cabot's campaign as a stockholder of the steel corporation.

On May 4 THE SURVEY published in full, together with editorial comment, the report of the stockholders' committee which at his instigation had been investigating labor conditions. It will be remembered that this report which sweepingly condemned the seven-day week and the twelve-hour day was presented at the annual meeting of the stockholders on April 15 and was unanimously adopted.

Late in May the full report was mailed to all the stockholders of the Steel Corporation, together with a communication from Judge Gary which summarized the report and expressed hearty appreciation of the work of the committee.

Further than this, Judge Gary was able to announce that already the finance committee of the corporation had held a meeting in which the report was considered, and had taken action designed to make its provisions effective.

At this meeting the finance committee adopted resolutions declaring that in accordance with the spirit of the resolution adopted in 1907, seven-day labor should be absolutely eliminated from the properties of the Steel Corporation "except under special circumstances and then only upon the consent of this committee." It resolved further that the so-called long turn should be eliminated and that "conscientious effort should be made by all to reduce to a minimum any unusual length in work hours that emergencies and unforeseen conditions may sometimes demand."

Then, taking up the question of the twelve-hour day which the stockholders' committee had declared was a condition that ought to be remedied at once, the finance committee adopted a

resolution "that the chairman (Judge Gary), Mr. Roberts, and the president of the corporation (Mr. Farrell) be appointed a committee to consider what, if any, arrangement with a view to reducing the twelve-hour day, in so far as it now exists among the employees of the subsidiary companies, is reasonable, just and practicable."

With regard to the recommendation of the stockholders' committee that reports be made to the stockholders at stated intervals as to labor conditions and their improvements, Judge Gary states that the finance committee has arranged to have a plan prepared and reported to it.

At just about the same time that these resolutions were being passed, Congress was enacting into law the eight-hour bill which provides that with certain exceptions, all work done for



Photo by Line  
AN OLD MILL HAND

the government under contract and all work done on materials that have been contracted for by the government shall be done on an eight-hour schedule. This law applies extensively to the steel industry, especially with regard to armor plate.

Meanwhile, the Stanley committee was holding sessions and framing its report so that finally on August 2 there were presented to Congress by this committee a majority report and two minority reports with regard to the United States Steel Corporation. While this committee was charged primarily with the consideration of the relation of the United States Steel Corporation to the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, it gave a considerable amount of attention at its hearings to labor conditions.

It may be noted in passing that Margaret F. Byington, Shelby M. Harrison and John A. Fitch, three members of the Pittsburgh Survey's staff, were among the witnesses called to testify.

<sup>1</sup>A Great Corporation Investigates Itself by Frank Barkley Copley.



Labor conditions are also discussed in the reports of this Congressional committee. Congressman H. O. Young of Michigan, who presented a minority report of his own, remarked that complaint has been made with regard to hours of labor. His explanation was that these long hours have arisen out of the necessity of continuous operation and he dismissed the matter with the assurance that "while the condition of labor is not ideal, it is at least as good as among the competitors of the United States Steel Corporation."

Congressman A. O. Gardner of Massachusetts, who presented another minority report, made the clear statement that "the labor situation in certain manufacturing departments of the steel industry has always been bad and today is bad." He referred to the twelve-hour day and the

men. The majority's criticism of hours of labor and wages paid was very severe.

Along with this unusual series of reports on labor conditions in the steel industry, all of them either declaring against the terms of work current in the industry or suggesting that improvements are about to be made, there has been an unusual amount of labor unrest among the steel workers the past six months, especially in the Pittsburgh district. THE SURVEY has described the brief strikes which occurred in the works of the National Tube Company and of Jones and Laughlin in Pittsburgh. Both of these strikes were carried on by absolutely unorganized workmen and represented simply the demand of the workers for improved conditions. The presence of I. W. W. organizers in the Pittsburgh district has added to the general feeling of uneasiness, and in the latter part of August, the American Federation of Labor indicated that it was keeping an eye on the situation. A circular was issued from headquarters of the federation which was marked as Circular No. 1 and was addressed to workers in the iron and steel industry. This circular set forth the fact that the federation has a plan, which it proposes to put into effect, of organizing all the workers in the steel industry. It announces that Circular No. 2 will shortly be issued which will explain the aims and objects of organized labor, and after that Circular No. 3 is to be issued which will inform the workers of a date upon which meetings are to be held in every steel town in America. These meetings will be held simultaneously for the purpose of organizing the steel workers, the object being to prevent the playing off of one mill community against another by the removal of orders from one mill to another as would be done if an attempt were made to organize only one part of the industry at a time.

Just what is to come of all the many plans which are being worked out in so many diverse quarters with regard to improving the conditions of labor in the steel industry remains to be seen, but the one fact which becomes increasingly apparent is that out of it all a better condition must come into existence. The Steel Corporation may be opposed to organized labor. It may be opposed to legislation requiring it to adopt a certain schedule of hours. There may be a conflict along both of these lines; but when the stockholders of the Steel Corporation, the Congress of the United States and the organized workingmen of America all agree that a six-day week and an eight-hour day in continuous industries ought to be adopted, it is evidence of what may fairly be described as an industrial revolution since the days of clamped-down inertia, which the Pittsburgh Survey pried into in 1908 and 1909.



Photo by Hine

A YOUNG STEEL WORKER

seven-day week as seemingly incredible but nevertheless indisputable facts. He expressed the belief that the corporation is improving this situation but "we cannot forebear from uttering the suggestion that three shifts of eight hours each ought to take the place of two shifts of twelve hours each."

The majority report signed by most of the Democratic members of the committee contained some interesting data regarding wages, tending to show that while the average daily wage of \$1.89 paid in 1902 had increased to \$2.09 in 1909, the labor cost had decreased. For 1902 the cost of labor per ton was \$1.25, while in 1909 it was 82 cents. A short discussion was presented on the Union Supply Company, a subsidiary of the Steel Corporation which maintains stores in some of the company towns. The committee condemned the attitude of the corporation with regard to labor unions and criticized the apparent tendency to employ foreign work-



## BETTER HOUSING IN HOOSIERLAND

The publication in this number of *THE SURVEY* of 'The Divine Call' brings to mind the part which its author, Albion Fellows Bacon, has played and still plays in one of the most interesting state campaigns for better housing which has taken place in this country.

From the time when Indiana was first nicknamed the Hoosier state, because wayfarers knocking at ill-built farm shacks were greeted with the query "Who's here," to the present day of city slums, Indiana has had a housing problem. About 1908 some public-spirited citizens of Evansville took the first definite step toward improving conditions. Mrs. Bacon was intimately acquainted with the bad housing of Evansville, and so it was she who, with the assistance of local help, prepared the tenement ordinance which later became law.

Following this local victory, an investigation of conditions throughout the state was started, with the co-operation of the Indianapolis Commercial Club and of social workers in general. Soon a state-wide tenement law was drafted, modeled, like the Evansville ordinance, upon New York's prior statutes, but changed somewhat to meet Indiana's special needs. Mrs. Bacon took this law to the legislature of 1909, and was one of the most active in securing its passage for two cities, Indianapolis and Evansville. It has materially improved conditions in these places. In 1911, Mrs. Bacon again went to the legislature with a state-wide bill. This was a code prepared under Lawrence Veiller's direction and built upon the model law of the National Housing Association. The bill was lost by the changing of one vote, after it had been considered won for an hour.

Indiana housing reformers, including Mrs. Bacon, expect to meet their legislature again in 1913, armed with another state-wide code. Meanwhile, they are improving the occasion by campaigns of education throughout the state. The South Bend Chamber of Commerce has gone into the movement and an Indiana Housing Association was organized recently. The State Board of Health is said to be adopting the cause of better housing and the Indiana Federation of Women's Clubs has taken it up with the slogan "The Homes of Indiana." Meanwhile the eyes of those in other states who are interested in better housing either from ideals of city planning or improved conditions of life are turned on the state where Katherine Bottorff found tragedies in village slums. In pointing the way to higher standards of health and comfort, and the husbanded energies which these bring, Indiana can play preceptress to her sister states.

<sup>1</sup>See p. 37.

## EDITORIAL GRIST

### POLITICS AND SOCIAL WORK

EDWARD T. DEVINE

With the creation of a national progressive party and the reaction of this event on the older parties, *THE SURVEY* and all the inter-related social movements of which it is an unofficial spokesman enter upon a new era. We would not be dogmatic or precipitate in saying just what this new era is to be. What seems certain is that something like a silent and complete revolution in public sentiment has taken place, corresponding in its larger outlines to the more obvious and more fragmentary changes which find expression in national and local platforms. The nation now sees and feels what was felt and seen clearly by the pioneers. No one man can long dominate this situation. No one party can fully represent the quality of the new epoch. "Safe and sane" democracy, "safe and sane" republicanism and the most unsafe and insane progressivism which we have yet encountered in real life are all in the inexorable grip of the *Zeitgeist*, moving irresistibly towards that view of life which we described in this journal more than five years ago as "the new view of the common welfare; the new view of industrial and social forces; the new view of childhood, of womanhood and manhood; the new view of housing as the basis of domestic life; the new view of industrial occupations and the conditions under which they are carried on; the new view of misery and crime and disease as eradicable; the new view of charity, of reformation, of discipline, of human society; the new view of work, of recreation, of neighborhood; and at last, the new view, prophetic though it be, of a social order in which ancient wrongs shall be righted, new corruptions foreseen and prevented, the nearest approach to equality of opportunity assured, and the individual re-discovered under conditions vastly more favorable for his greatest usefulness to his fellows and for the highest development of all his powers."

There is nothing depressing about the discovery that even here in favored, prosperous, and happy America there are wrongs to be righted, privilege and exploitation to be stopped, disease to be overcome, weakness to be protected and poverty to be abolished. What would be depressing, is that such things should be and that the nation should not be consciously aware of them. Moreover along with the full realization of the task there comes an equal realization of the great resources at our disposal for the work which needs to be done. We do have adequate resources physical and spiritual for the undertaking. The fact of a disposable social surplus is as important a factor in the revolution which has taken place in public opinion, as is the fact



of imperative social needs to which that surplus must be applied. People have ceased to be interested in old party slogans for the double reason that they see real work to be done and are aware of the strength of their arms for the accomplishment of that work.

This revolution, whatever the outcome of the national election, is an accomplished fact, and one in which all good citizens, regardless of party affiliations, may rejoice. It behooves social workers to take sober thought as to how this national awakening affects their own position and their immediate future. There are some who have seen their opportunity very clearly, as they believe, in actual participation in the political campaign. In many instances social workers have had their first baptism this year in that kind of citizenship which we call politics. They have helped to write platforms, select candidates, and create campaign literature. They have championed their cause and their candidate on the stump. And even more frequently perhaps, they have helped to turn the course of a campaign in that quiet interchange of speech between man and man which does sometimes affect opinions and votes. We have no need to await the November polls to learn that this active participation of our comrades in the political campaign has had a perceptible and lasting effect. In the choice of candidates, in the promises of conventions, in the invention of devices for seeing that promises are kept, and in the substance of the arguments put forth in debate, this effect is clearly discernible. Whichever party wins in the national election, this campaign must always be remembered as the one in which progressive social reform came to its own.

Both Colonel Roosevelt and Governor Wilson have of course qualified as progressives in the field of social reform. No one doubts their sympathy with such policies as we have steadfastly advocated in this journal for the past decade. President Taft may not have been entirely successful in satisfying eager reformers but how can any one question his interest in such progressive measures as workmen's compensation for industrial injuries, a more rational method of settling industrial disputes and the prevention of strikes by the removal of their causes, the establishment of postal savings banks, the development of a national public health service, the safeguarding of the interests of childhood through direct research and educational publicity by the federal government, and the working out of an adequate system of budgetary accounting to enable the public to understand what is being done and what is not being done in the departments? If these are not typical and fundamental features of a rational program of social work we have no right understanding of what such a program should include. Whether President Taft, or Governor Wilson, or Colonel Roosevelt

would be able to accomplish more in these directions in the next four years is the issue on which for the most part social workers as such will make their choice. On this issue this non-partizan journal is expressing no opinion. Our primary concern lies in another direction. Now that political leaders have become social workers shall we in turn definitely cast in our lot with whatever political party comes nearest at the moment voicing our aspirations and ideals, and expect that social salvation is to turn on the outcome of a particular election? We answer that the supreme exercise of citizenship does not lie in political campaigning, however necessary and exhilarating that may be. This is reserved rather for those who stand steadfastly, or press forward persistently, as the case may be, with an eye single to the common welfare, in campaign years and in off years; when candidates are before the people and when, having been duly elected and qualified, they are before their desks; when voters are excited and when they are indifferent; when issues are eagerly canvassed and when long afterwards they are calmly put to test in the courts. To a certain type of politician the participation of social workers in the campaigns of this year is the more disturbing because they represent mainly this type of citizenship.

We hold it to be the first political duty of social workers to be persistently and aggressively non-partizan; to maintain such relations with men of social good will in all parties as will insure their co-operation in specific measures for the promotion of the common good. They should be equally ready to challenge the evil that is and the evil that is proposed. They should have open minds for the truth from any quarter and discerning minds as to what is the truth. Partizanship blinds us to the just claims of our opponents, deprives us of what may be our best opportunities to accomplish real things, alienates some of our natural allies and friends, distorts our judgment as to desirable ends, and destroys our power of choosing the best means to these ends. A great weight of influence and usefulness accumulated through years of non-partizan effort may conceivably be thrown once on either side of a political issue and in the process lost forever. A spendthrift squandering his capital is not more foolish than the partizan social worker who attaches himself for better or worse, through thick and thin, to any one of two or more contending parties in the state. Political activity does not of course necessarily involve such partizanship. We are not suggesting that social workers should abstain from political activities. Looking to the future, we are only insisting that participation in politics should be subordinated to a long range policy which does not undermine permanent influence. We urge consideration of the limitations as well as of the possibilities of



political action. After the votes have been counted, there will still be need for the services of men who know the facts of social conditions, who are truth-telling, courageous and level headed, who are instinctively identified with rational progress but not with obstructive reaction or with reckless and destructive experiment. And such men in order to be of service need not necessarily be in public office.

## HUMANIZING POLITICS

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Whatever may be thought of the political parties involved or of the positions they have assumed in the pending campaign, few can fail to see that a new social consciousness and conscience are aborning in all the parties, and that the campaign is sure to be of great educational value and social significance. While it is not the function of *THE SURVEY* to advocate or criticize party preferences, it is directly within its province to discuss the social tendencies and humanitarian bearings of their platforms and their administrative measures.

It is with impartial satisfaction that the tendency to humanize their purposes in their prospective administration of government is noted in each party. The first indication of this tendency, and that which made it possible, is the changing standard of party loyalty. It has not so much broken down as it has risen. It has emerged from blind allegiance to the party as an end into a discriminating loyalty to party as a means. Thus it has become possible for more and more voters to put their country, their city and great common human interests above the claims of their party, and to test its organization by its sincerity and efficiency as a means to serve these higher ends. Any party worthy of loyalty cannot fail to gain whatever makes it worthy to succeed by being held by its members to this test of serving human interests the best. For in the long run that party which serves its country best will thereby prove to serve itself the most.

The ascendancy of human interests over partisan self-seeking in the councils of the parties has been marked since the epoch-making conferences on the conservation of our national resources and on the welfare of the children which were held at the White House at the call of President Roosevelt. The establishment of the Children's Bureau and the appointment of the Industrial Commission are social achievements highly creditable to President Taft and his administration.

The progressive movement in American politics and government is far greater than any one party. That a new party should claim that name and should have organized so rapidly throughout the entire country on the basis of a social-

economic platform proves the progressive spirit to have been sensed in the very air. The launching of a progressive party cannot fail to develop permanently progressive policies in other parties. Its effect is already observable in the campaign utterances of the candidates and representatives of the other parties, which are much in advance and far afield beyond the platforms adopted and published prior to the third party convention. Governor Wilson's advocacy of the promotion of public health and of the social use of public school buildings, though no less genuine and in accordance with the social outlook, which he has always taken, is nonetheless his recognition of the demand of the people for emphasis upon human interests by those claiming the capacity to govern. In simple justice to the Socialist, Prohibitionist and Populist Parties, be it said that many of the ideals and some of the measures now for the first time found among the policies promised the people by the other parties have been for a long while minor planks in the platforms of these minority parties.

In noting the present appearance in politics of humanitarian purposes, declarations for social justice and industrial rights, and of provisions for the more direct control of government by the people, we should not fail to remind ourselves whence these principles came into the consciousness of political parties. Administrators of private charity and public correction have been studying the conditions and antecedents of dependency and delinquency with ever-increasing thoroughness. They have learned themselves and have taught others the possibility and duty of arresting both at their sources by controlling the conditions which in large part produce them. But as the control of these conditions transcends the power of private agencies and voluntary effort and can be hoped for only through the authority and resources of the state, public opinion in all lands has been tending increasingly to exert political action for governmental measures to grapple with these great human problems. These measures, however, have been undertaken frequently, despite the persistently aggressive opposition of the very charity workers whose thorough-going investigations and scientific methods have led the public to demand from their governments more than all voluntary efforts at their best seemed likely to achieve. Significant in the present American tendency in this direction is it that many of our most experienced and trusted leaders in voluntary philanthropic and social work are supplying both the initiative and the balance wheel to start and steady the movement.

Both labor and employing capital have also been learning and assuming their responsibility for better working conditions. Cautiously as each of them has approached what they had reason to fear might prove to be a two-edged



use of legislation, nevertheless both of them have had to reckon with the public demand for legalized oversight and control. Happily voluntary efforts and legislative measures for promoting and protecting the interests of both are going on together. But inevitably each of these imperatively necessary efforts for industrial peace and progress prompts the political action which must precede governmental policies. Fortunate will it be, if this political action so quickly pervades all parties that it will lead to non-partisan, governmental policies in the interests of the whole people.

Educational institutions and literature have steadily but all too slowly, established scientific points of view, methods and spirit through which more and more trained men and women are approaching the practical problems of life and are enlisting in the most serious and sustained efforts for their solution. Our high schools, colleges, universities, professional schools and schools of civics and philanthropy are thus furnishing some of the agitation, and more of the education, to which the social aspects of the political movements are due, and upon which they must depend for the guidance of their constructive developments.

Legislation has not only registered each advance of social consciousness and conscience, but has also been an education propaganda of prime importance. Non-partisan and wholly public-spirited as has been the work of such organizations as the Association for Labor Legislation, the Consumers' League, the National Child Labor Committee, the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, the National Conference of Charities and Correction and the Russell Sage Foundation, they, one and all have contributed to the agitation and education of the public to demand the humanizing of politics and government.

Last, but by no means least, the humanizing of religion is inspiring the overarching ideal and underlying motive which together generate the power for all progress and which must be relied upon to steady the movement toward it. As England was fortunate enough to have experienced a revival of religion while struggling and suffering her way through the throes of the industrial revolution, so America's Men and Religion Forward Movement and the strong social inclination attending the federation of her protestant churches; the growing social emphasis placed by our Roman Catholic churches in all their parish and institutional work; the uniting of our Jewish charities, the magnanimous giving of Jewish philanthropists and the service of Jewish publicists, all far transcending the bounds of race or creed; and the leavening social ideals and discipline, distinctive of the Ethical Culture Schools and Societies all combine to give both impulse and balance to our social politics as we enter this new era of our history.

It is surely significant of progress and not of retrograde, of hope and not of fear, of unity and not of divisiveness, of a movement of the masses of our people and not of class hatred, of better and not worse times coming, to read in the leading editorial of a foremost political newspaper the following "keynote of real progressivism":

"The collective intelligence of the nation, of the great American community, should deal directly with the conservation of the people's health and strength. We need to get rid of a lot of dead lumber in our public discussions and get hold of some practical truths as that—malaria decreases the value of land at least \$10 an acre; hookworm, by producing inefficiency, influences the price of cotton goods more than the tariff; pellagra is a problem as important as currency reform; consumption is of more consequence than the coinage of silver; pauperism is a practical problem that deserves the most persistent and thorough study; social justice is a necessity if our republic is to endure; the kind of help given the farmer for his stock should be given him for his family; communities should be helped to banish consumption and typhoid fever; mothers should be protected during child bearing; the slaughter of the innocent should cease; children should be given a chance to grow up in strength; men should be enabled to labor at high efficiency; prevention should replace cure; pauperizing men by charity should give place to a scientifically developed scheme for the care of those who need to be cared for along broad economic lines."

In all this neither American patriotism nor religion can fear the loss of anything valued by either; and to it all both can contribute whatever this movement needs to be safe, sound and sacred.

## PRAGMATISM IN POLITICS

JANE ADDAMS

An English writer has recently pointed out that popular elections may go through the same development as did the jury system which, in the beginning, merely registered the opinions of twelve men, until it gradually became obvious that their opinions must be formed under fair procedure; then the process itself was so developed and the interviewing of witnesses so controlled that these processes finally became the really essential features of the trial.

America has long been concerned that the registration of the voter's opinion at election should be fairly done, and to this end has instituted the Australian ballot system and many another device, but has as yet done little to develop a careful method by which the voters might form a sound judgment.

The published accounts of the various efforts to manufacture opinion which preceded the party conventions this year and of the enormous ex-



penditure of money which these efforts entailed have made the public cautious, and as a result, all the parties are perforce driven to the pragmatic method, if one chooses to call it so. Politicians are ready, as never before, to conduct the campaign upon educational lines, to drop that oversimplification of current problems to which a campaign always tends and to stem the flow of political eloquence by a painstaking presentation of facts.

The educational value of the current Presidential campaign is most important to the American voter, irrespective of the party which claims his vote. A new method is being evolved freed from the old shibboleths and fitted to our industrial development.

The American voter is not content with the eighteenth century formulae of liberty and equality, high-flown as they are, for they do not apply to the situation. Liberty has come to be a guarantee of equal opportunity to play our parts well in primary relations, and the elemental processes of birth, growth, nutrition, death are the great levellers that remind us of the essential equality of human life. No talk of liberty or equality "goes" that does not reckon with these.

It is possible that this campaign will not only bring the United States in line with the great European countries which have made social standards for labor the subject of governmental action, but that it will also bring American politics, so long an anachronism in spirit, into line with our development in other directions. Certainly the wisest philosopher of America contended to the day of his death that even "Philosophy is not sufficient unto itself but plunges eagerly into reality, into science, into life, there to be refreshed and rejuvenated."

This pragmatic element in the present campaign has inevitably challenged those institutions which base their activity upon a careful study of social conditions; they too, like the voter, have been driven to realities, are made to test the validity of their phrases.

Institutions, perhaps more easily than individuals, tend to grow self-conscious. It is not difficult for an institution to think so much of its future usefulness as to forget the cause it is serving and for which it is founded, and this may happen quite aside from any question of alienating subscribers. We all forget that "influence," whether of persons or of institutions, ceases to be of real value when it is consciously cherished as a possession, that it must be a "way-side flower", as our old copy-books used to say about happiness. One can think of no greater travesty on worship than a whole churchful of people who had all gone there for the sake of their example to someone else, nor could there have been a more dreary comment on the spirit

of philanthropy than if the Chicago social workers last winter should have allowed the most highly developed juvenile court in the world to go to pieces under their very eyes, because they were afraid of injuring their personal influence by interfering in the situation which was one of partisan politics.

In fact, an institution may easily become detached from the life of its community and fall into a position similar to that occupied by many women in relation to their own family circles. I know women who resent the moral idleness to which they have been relegated through the very kindness and respect of their grown-up children. They are, of course, expected to give advice and to advocate only the noblest and highest principles, but because they live so remote from reality, some of them gradually distrust their own conclusions and frankly accept the moral standards, which their sons, flushed with action, bring to them from the "marts of trade" and the exciting "political arenas"; others openly abandon their safe haven of peace and certitude. It is true that they can no longer claim to be a fixed point of righteousness in the boiling sea of perplexing issues, but they are glad to be free from the harassing doubt that possibly the righteousness they were advocating was not righteousness at all. Their so-called inferior position is at least tested by reality and constantly clarified in discussion.

In like manner, an institution which stands in the minds of the community for "good works" is in danger of substituting the unreal activities of being good to people for the sterner task of ascertaining their genuine needs and of ministering to them in all humility of spirit.

It is impossible to consider the complicated conditions of modern life with its proposed measures of legal control and social amelioration from the *a priori* point of view. Perhaps the gravest danger which besets a well-established institution is a subtle self-righteousness, a tendency to substitute the smaller good for the larger good; to consider the philanthropist as superior to the politician. Adequate measures for social amelioration can only be carried out with the consent of all the people and the wisdom of such plans are best discussed in relation to the realization of opinion, to use John Morley's fine phrase. Certainly we have all learned that new ideas can never gain wide acceptance unless the persons who hold them confess them openly and give them an honest and effective adherence. When the ideas and measures we have long been advocating become part of a political campaign, which is after all but an intensified method of propaganda, would we not be the victims of a curious self-consciousness if we failed to follow them there?





*[We are familiar with Chicago and Detroit, Cleveland and St. Louis. They are big red spots on the maps in the geographies. But do we know overmuch about Argo and Gary, Corey, Norwood, Granite City and the other industrial satellites which are springing up under the eaves of the great urban centers?*

\* \* \*

*There is a countryward movement of factories. The highest engineering skill lays out the suburban plant. How about the suburban industrial town?*

*Does it feel the impulse of the city planners?*

*What of the homes of work people who follow out into the new territory. What are their recreations?*

*Who is paying the bills of the new towns and what share of the leaping land values is turned to social account after the manner of the English town planners?*

*What chance for getting on in the world is there for the children of the industrial towns?*

*What is going to give the metropolitan district made up of outlying workaday communities a sense of common purpose?*

\* \* \*

*Graham Romeyn Taylor of The Survey staff has been making a study of some of the most notable examples of these satellite towns. The results of his investigations will be published in a series of articles of which this is the first. They will run in the magazine numbers of The Survey throughout the winter.—Ed.]*

# I

## THE OUTER RINGS OF INDUSTRY

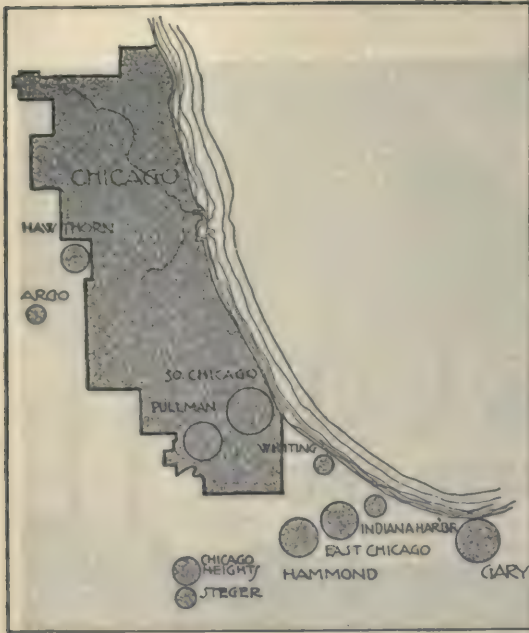
**W**HILE we go about merely talking "back to the land," huge industrial plants are uprooting themselves bodily from our congested districts. With households, small stores, saloons, lodges, churches, schools clinging to them like human tendrils, they set themselves down ten miles away in the open.

While we spend years of effort in reconstructing our civic centers, only to have our schemes stalled by costly obstructions of brick and mortar and condemnation proceedings, city planning as

a process is going on every week and every month on the edges of our cities.

Towns made to order entirely, or with some little village as a core, snatch bundles of papers from the morning trains, smudge new postmarks over sheet after sheet of red postage stamps, edge their way into the telephone toll books and the freight tariffs, scrawl their names on the tags of new-coming immigrants at Ellis Island and become part and parcel of up-and-doing municipal America before most of their





THE CHICAGO SATELLITES

slower going sister cities have even heard of their existence. A neglected opportunity for formative work not only in city planning but in social organization is presented in the satellite communities with which industrialism is surrounding our great centers of population.

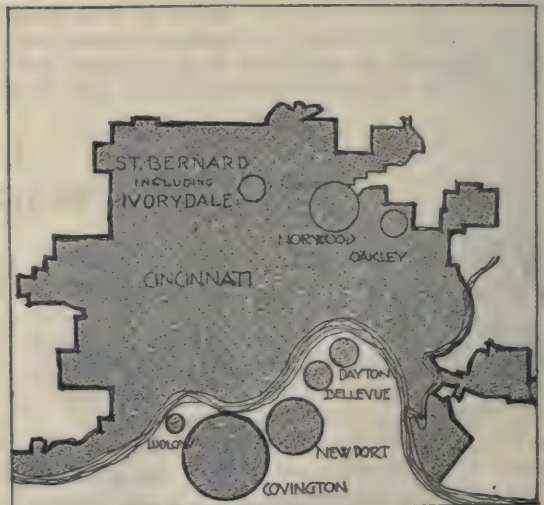
From the middle of Philadelphia, several departments of the Baldwin Locomotive Works have been shunted out into a small suburb. Flint, Mich., two hours from Detroit, has been seized as the place for huge automobile factories. While the population was trebling in the first three years, several hundred operatives had to be housed in tents throughout one summer. A big corn products plant moved from the middle of Chicago to the nearby prairies and a "glucose city," Argo, started up. It occupies part of a tract of ten square miles, which one promoting company is developing as an "industrial district" and into which Chicago has already emptied more than a dozen establishments. Just outside Cincinnati a residential suburb, Norwood, is now the home of a score of manufacturing concerns. Impelled partly by the arbitrary tolls charged on coal carried across the Mississippi river, industrial plants have moved over the bridges from St. Louis and founded a group of new towns in Illinois. The Standard Oil Company, a few years ago, poured out \$3,500,000 on the bank of the Missouri a few miles from Kansas City, and the town of Sugar Creek sprang up. Staid old Yonkers long since lost its individuality in a smother of hat and carpet factories. The metropolitan manufacturing district stretches out in belts and flanges from New York into Long Island, Staten Island and New Jersey, while

eastern Massachusetts is a mosaic of mill towns. In some sections of the South scarcely a city of any size lacks one or more satellites thrumming with spindle and shuttle.

Gary with its twenty-five thousand population, where six years ago there were only rolling sand dunes covered with scrub oak, is thus seen to be but the largest and most spectacular single fact in a far-reaching industrial exodus. Far-reaching and fast-moving, for Gary had scarcely attained four-year-old dignity when work started on the newest of the United States Steel Corporation's brood of steel towns—Corey, on the edge of Birmingham, Ala. On the heels of Corey came the rumor that more millions and another plant would found another steel town near Duluth.

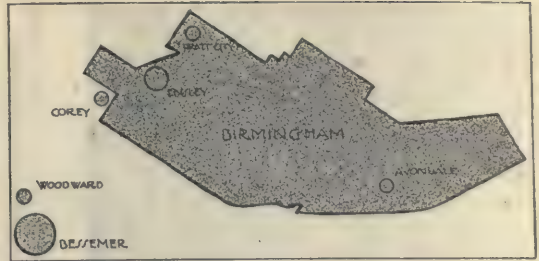
This industrial exodus from city center to suburb had a prototype in the more sporadic movement which established Pullman and Homestead in the early eighties. These two places were by no means the only forerunners. South Omaha, for example, in 1883 sprang up around the stockyards at a railway junction so rapidly as to win the name, "Magic City." These exceptional towns, suddenly created at the dictate of pioneer master minds of the new industrialism, thrilled the popular imagination.

But they were eddies where the present movement has taken on the proportions of a formidable back set current. It is utilizing suburban areas as well as creating made-to-order towns. The Census Bureau has gathered data from thirteen "industrial districts," each of which covers a large city and its vicinity. From 1900 to 1905 the number of persons employed in industries in the surrounding zones increased 39.4 per cent, while within the corporate limits of the cities proper there was only 11.8 per cent increase.

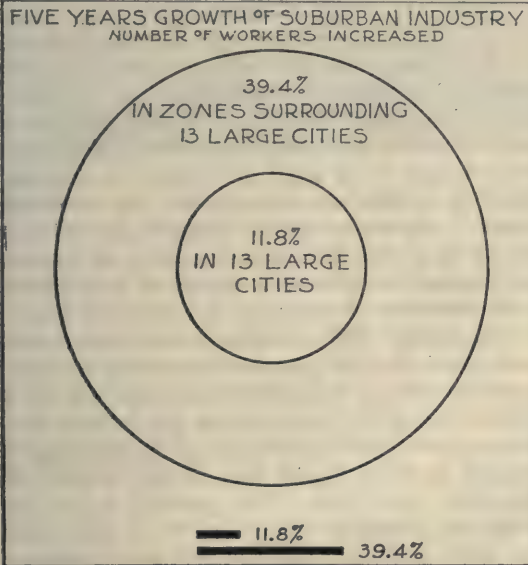


THE CINCINNATI SATELLITES

Many reasons are readily apparent for the location of these new industrial communities. The impulse toward cheap land, elbow-room, and low taxes throws them out from the large centers of population. These are the centrifugal forces. The centripetal forces are equally powerful and bind them as satellites close beyond the outer rings of the mother city. Even the towns which, like Gary, have attained a considerable measure of self-sufficiency and lie perhaps across state boundaries are bound by strong economic ties. Through switch yards and belt lines, practically



THE BIRMINGHAM SATELLITES



it count? Of playgrounds and schools? Of living costs? Of city government, politics and civic spirit?

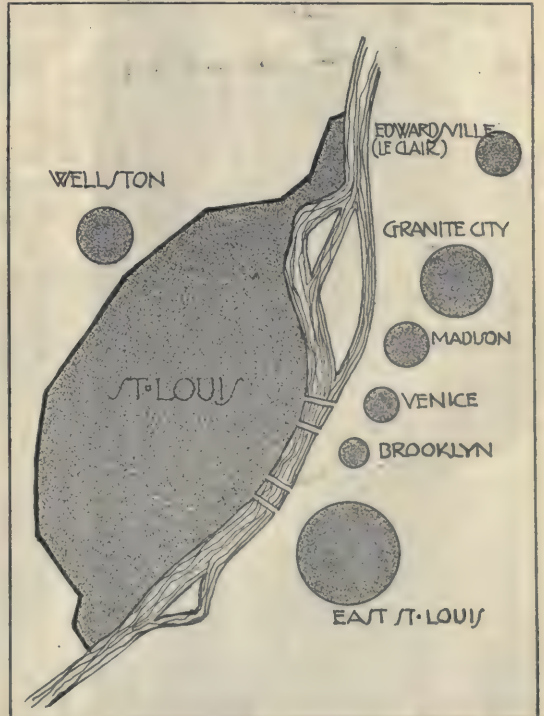
There is a public challenge in the very fact that in these localities civic and industrial conditions are being created brand new, on a whole-sale scale, without the handicaps and restrictions which high land values and prior improvements impose on every effort to reconstruct the congested centers. Are we cashing in these advantages? In our general municipal development, we pay more and more heed to the counsel of city planner, housing expert and sanitarian. We struggle to reshape our rigid, old-established conditions to fit newer and more workable molds, just as the manufacturer has to tear out, rebuild and build higher if he stays in the midst of congestion while his business expands.

But have we set ourselves to inquire whether these made-to-order industrial cities, involving

The United States census shows that the number of industrial workers employed in thirteen large cities increased 11.8 per cent from 1900 to 1905. In the zones surrounding those cities, the increase during the same period was 39.4.

all the railroad facilities developed through years of growth, which are at the disposal of a downtown establishment, are at the service of the industry in the suburb. It means much to be within easy reach of at least one large market for finished product. Proximity to a big labor market is a more important factor.

The purpose of these articles, however, is not primarily to discuss the economic causes which lead to the sudden investment of large sums of capital in establishing suburban plants. Their aim is to explore a little way into what the movement means for the great numbers of work people who are caught up and swept out with it. How do these new work places pan out as communities of people living together—families, neighbors, citizens? The census bulletin referred to sums up the industrial exodus in numbers of manufacturing establishments, in value of products, etc. From the standpoint of the common welfare, it should be reckoned also in terms of citizenship and human values. What of health and housing? Of leisure, and income to make



THE ST. LOUIS SATELLITES





#### INDUSTRY ESCAPING FROM CITY CONGESTION

1019 Nearly ten square miles of land adjoining Chicago's southwestern limits, the largest undivided property in Cook County under a single ownership. This is being developed by the Chicago Transfer and Clearing Company as an industrial suburb. On it twelve industries, involving a total investment of \$7,000,000, have sought the advantages of space, light, air and cleanliness not sufficiently available in the congested city center.

living conditions for thousands of people, are so shaped at the outset? In the planning of the great suburban industrial plant, marvelous skill and foresight are shown in adapting buildings and machinery to the processes through which stuff becomes finished product. Is a similar skill and foresight applied to the development of the things through which houses may become homes, a construction camp a community and livelihood life? Apparently the answer is often in the negative.

Whereas in the Gary plant, for example, the utmost ingenuity was shown in scheming out shortcuts, the street planning of the town was on the old checker-board system. The placing of the blast furnaces was dictated by the speed of a laboring locomotive on a curving switch track. Instead of setting the stacks parallel or at right angles to the tracks, they were "placed at an angle of twenty-two degrees, allowing a 200-foot radius for the entering switch." By such careful computations it was sought to avoid the moment wasted, to garner the smallest fraction of a degree of heat which must otherwise be regained. So much for transporting metal. But a workman who lives a mile away from the mill gate has needlessly to criss-cross the checker board streets of the town, for a distance easily calculable by the old formula that the square of the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares of the other two sides. Our general failure to bring city planning to bear where it will count for most—that is, in zones of new construction—was personified in this instance by those middle western officials of the Steel Corporation who, as members of the Commercial Club of Chicago, were at this time contributing from their own pockets toward the \$100,000 fund raised to scheme out in map and design the present magnificent city plan for Chicago; yet as company officials they had not thought to secure the services of an expert city planner to lay out a brand new town which, including the plant, involved an investment of over seventy-five million dollars. The Chicago city plan calls for a cutting of diagonal streets through old territory at enormous expense; the Gary town plan will create in a decade conditions which can only be remedied by a similar Caesarean operation.

The contention is raised, however, by some industrial leaders that they are in the business not of building cities but of establishing mills and factories, that the making of a town is a side matter into which they go only so far as necessity compels them. They want to avoid paternalism. It is significant to hear time and again a frank recognition of the mistakes of Pullman given as a justification for a "do-as-little-as-you-have-to" policy in shaping town conditions. Yet it must be entirely evident that the



Barracks at Gary, showing the sort of cheap sheds put up by real estate speculators to reap a harvest. There are "apartments" in this row for eight families.

early stage of choosing location and of laying the framework of plant and town is crucial. The citizens who are to people the town have not yet arrived. Their very absence imposes a greater obligation upon those with whose fiat goes such enormous power. Through such a serious miscarriage of judgment and stewardship by the company which built Lackawanna,<sup>1</sup> in the outskirts of Buffalo, many of the workers are today housed on stilts in a swampy bottom-land. The efforts of the present administration to overcome the situation in so far as is now possible, illustrate the slow recognition (by a corporation which has learned through experience) that efficiency hangs on health and human well-being and that a mill town in a swamp is as misplaced as a garden patch on a slag pile.

A manufacturing concern which makes highly finished cardboard products recently moved from the center of a large city to its outskirts,

<sup>1</sup>See article by John A. Fitch in *THE SURVEY* for October 7, 1911.

stating as one reason for the change that the smoky atmosphere they had had to contend with caused great damage to the goods. Yet the effect of the same atmosphere on human lungs seemed to have been scarcely thought of, and it was merely one of the fortunate coincidences of providence that what was good for keeping stock clean happened also to be good for the health of people.

The scientific thoroughness which would follow the technique of efficiency and health, down to such details as street planning is illustrated by the drawings for the construction of a large state prison by the Westinghouse, Church, Kerr Company. The firm went to the length of studying astronomical observations to determine the exact angle of the compass at which the building should stand in order to secure in each twelve months the maximum amount of sunlight. If it is worth while to take such care in housing the prisoners of a state, it seems reasonable to think that the same care might also be expended

What town-planning brings within reach of Birmingham workmen. Moreover, the co-partnership scheme of the Harborne tenants shown here enables them to be neither renters all their life nor owners tied down to particular houses in particular towns.





on street plans and the housing of free city dwellers.

"How far we have yet to go in these directions in guiding development with reference to the community as a whole is illustrated by the fact that even at Flint, where a few years ago public-spirited citizens secured a well-known city planner to lay out a scheme involving parks, boulevards and other civic features, one section after another of the industrial quarter has been laid out adjacent to the automobile plants "without any special regulation except the understanding that no street was to be less than sixty feet in width." Corey<sup>1</sup> is the precursor of a planned mill suburb. It seems extraordinary that we do not require in the case of every new subdivision—just as we require of every new tenement house—a careful plan on lines broadly laid down by public authority and submitted to it for approval. The Washington (state) proposal that one-tenth of the area of every such subdivision must be set aside for parks and playgrounds is a step in the right direction. To safeguard the future in old towns as well as new, such broad legislation as is found in the English town-planning act is essential in this country.

The suburban industrial community is, however, something more than a framework of streets. It is compact of life and labor—a community of living beings, and later articles in this series will attempt to set forth its more distinctive human equations. Some general observations and queries may be offered here, not with the promise of answering them all with marshalled facts in the subsequent articles, but with the idea of putting in a loose skein the problems which the factory suburb seems to be weaving into our scheme of civic life. These problems can later be taken up more in detail in describing the representative towns visited.

From an economic standpoint, employer and employe—the plant and the home—are differently affected by the suburban movement.

Removal from the city center, where land values have greatly risen, to the outskirts where land is not so valuable, often means to the manufacturer other gains besides plenty of space in which to secure the most efficient plant arrangement. Indeed, the higher return which may be gotten from the land in the city center is not infrequently expected to defray a large part of the cost of erecting the new plant. It is said that the site of the Corn Products Refining Company in the heart of Chicago cost \$147,000 in 1879, and that as much as \$2,500,000 for it has

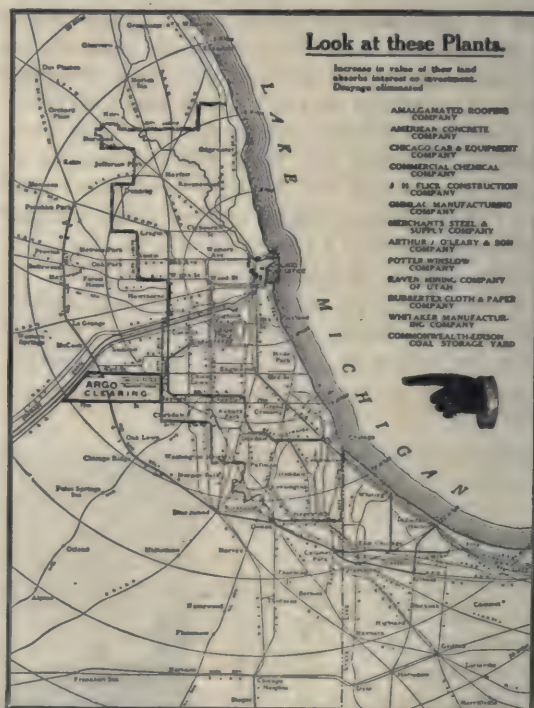
The new industrial center on West 63rd Street

# CLEARING

COME AND SEE—THE 12 NEW INDUSTRIES  
COME AND SEE—WHAT HAS BEEN DONE IN A YEAR.

From a real estate folder of the Clearing Argo Company. The same sort of ginger goes into the ads that we are accustomed to look for in bargain counter announcements.

been refused by the company since they moved to Argo in 1908. A railroad president in Chicago has suggested that some of the terminal stations be moved only a few blocks outward from their present locations in the city center and lined up together on one street. He estimates that if the abandoned trackage property is devoted to office buildings and other business purposes, the investment return would be sufficient to pay for the entire cost of the whole series of great new stations. Much of the same thing is doubtless generally true when industrial concerns move out. Yet there is another consideration of large importance. To merely shift railway terminals a few blocks in the center of the city has little bearing on the homes of railway workers. But when a manufacturing establishment moves out into a specially prepared suburb, the cheap land soon begins to rise rapidly in value as workingmen's homes begin to cover it. The question now



Map showing how the Clearing Argo industrial district adjoins the Chicago city limits—taps the belt line railways and holds an advantageous location for the use of Chicago's great sanitary canal should the latter become a deep waterway between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi.

arises whether this increase of land values accrues to the company, to the householders, or—as in the English Letchworth—to the community.

A pamphlet which was distributed by the Pull-

<sup>1</sup>See the Birmingham issue of THE SURVEY, January 6, 1912.



man Company's exhibit at the World's Columbia Exposition in 1893 contains the statement that "the day is not only coming, but is near at hand, when the \$30,000,000 present capital stock of the Pullman Company will be covered, by the value of the 3,500 acres of land on which is built the town of Pullman." That this harvest was being reaped may be suspected from the fact that the company did not relinquish the business of owning and renting real estate until the supreme court of Illinois ordered it so to do on the ground that the company's charter did not authorize it to engage in such business.

Some of the smaller mill towns, especially in the South, suffer through the persistence of this



Billboards employed by the land company to induce people to purchase homes near the industrial plants at Argo.

clination on the part of those who create them to monopolize the land and its increase in value.

Indeed, there is nowadays quite as much danger from the opposite tendency. The "let alone" policy not only lets such matters as city planning go by default, but sometimes throws into the hands of speculating real estate promoters the land values which inevitably come with community growth.

In Gary the land company, subsidiary of the Steel Corporation, explains that in the subdivision which it developed, the purpose has been to sell land and houses to employees at prices scarcely more than the original cost of the land plus improvements and interest charges. In the six years of Gary's existence, the land company has only once, and that recently, advanced the price of lots and houses. This presents a pleasing contrast with the booming operations of some real estate speculators who are to be found in other subdivisions of Gary and in the general run of satellite cities.

Yet home ownership, which such a policy promotes, may often be a very doubtful advantage to the workingman. The land value created by the community is dependent upon the permanency of the community, and this is dependent upon the existence, stability and growth of the industrial plant. In a large city if one plant runs slack or is abandoned, there is likelihood of compensating growth in another plant. In the satellite city, as in a mining town, the home owner is often at the mercy of the vicissitudes of a single industry.

To illustrate: Cherry is an isolated prairie town surrounding a mine shaft. Everything in the place depends upon this one source of wages. Before the disaster of 1909 many of the thriftiest men had put their savings into homes. Had it not been for relief funds their widows would soon have had to move where they could get work to support their families. The homes would very likely have been sold at only a small fraction of the amount invested in them. When, too, a mine town is suddenly abandoned because the company finds that the vein is exhausted or can no longer be profitably worked, the same loss of investment in homes occurs. The small manufacturing community dependent upon one concern may as suddenly become a deserted village if an invention displaces the product manufactured, or if an industrial combination is formed and decides to discontinue the local plant.

## The Clearing-Argo Industrial District.

The largest unobstructed property in Cook County under a single ownership, extending from Forty-eighth Avenue to the Sanitary Ship Canal, between Twenty-third and Twenty-ninth Streets. Over 5000 acres to be covered with factories, railroad yards and warehouses.

The Chicago Transfer & Clearing Company, which has undertaken the development of this property, has a capital investment of four million dollars, all paid in and represented by tangible assets and no outstanding indebtedness. The company will erect this extensive territory with factories and homes for the employees. If you buy from a company which can build up a big manufacturing center in order to make a profit on its investment, your interests are the same as those you see a partner in the success. Think this over.

### A Big Project.—Started by a Big Company On a Big Tract of Land

Here are located the great Chicago Railroad Yard, three and one-half miles long, containing over 100 miles of track. Connecting with them and passing through the District are all of the Chicago Rail Lines and through them connection is made with every main line entering Chicago. These yards furnish superior trucking facilities to the many factories in the District. A complete sanitary sewer system, draining the entire District and costing over \$1,000,000 and a large pumping station which by siphon pump water from across yards for private and factory use have been built. A complete electric plant has been installed, supplying current for power and lighting. Green walks have been put in. Streets macadamized. Roads and school house built. All these improvements are the best of their kind. A new extension of the Forty-third street car line has been completed, connecting Clearing and Argo and forms the last link of a continuous line from Jackson Park to Archer Avenue.

### Ship Canal Here.

Consolidating largely to the future growth and development of the District is the great Sanitary and Ship Canal. A large factory along this has been acquired by the owners of the District and preparations will be made for dockage and lightering service. The importance of the Ship Canal to the industries already established and to be located here can hardly be overestimated.

### What we have done.

We have already located in the District twelve industries, with a total investment of \$7,000,000 that now give employment to about 2000 men. They are:

Amalgamated Roofing Company	Fitch Construction Company	Pattin-Window Company
American Concrete Company	Mechanical Steel & Supply Company	Rayne Mining Company
Chicago Car & Equipment Company	Quincy Manufacturing Company	Rabbiner Clark & Paper Company
Commercial Chemical Company	O'Leary, Arthur J. & Son Company	Whitaker Manufacturing Company
Corn Products Refining Company		

Two million dollars will be expended by the Corn Products Refining Co. in the next year on additions that will increase the number of employees by fully 600. When this great plant is completed 3000 hands will be required to operate it and with the additional operations needed to handle the material and product the total number of employees will be greatly increased.

### Working Men Attention.

Here is another chance to secure at the start in a great industrial community where the developments will be quick and sure.

**Chicago Transfer & Clearing Co.**  
1730 TRIBUNE BUILDING

CLEARING  
ESTABLISHED 1846

RANDOLPH 1310

ARGO  
SUNDAY 1310

How the new districts are advertised; part of a broad-sheet which shows factory sites, additions; etc.

policy along with other almost feudalistic company powers. But the present developments in establishing satellite cities show less of an in-





INDUSTRY SEEKS THE ADVANTAGE OF THE OPEN PRAIRIE

Will the same advantage be as skillfully utilized for the home life of the people? These fields around the Argo plant of the Cerris Products Company are within the five east Chicago street car lines.



#### INDUSTRY IN THE GRIP OF CITY CONGESTION

Former plant of the Corn Products Refining Company. It reached back as far as the tall chimney where it bordered on the Chicago river. The north boundary at the left of the picture is Taylor street. In the background in the center may be seen the Blackstone Hotel on the lake front. The miserable housing in the lower left-hand corner contrasts with the opportunity for a garden suburb on the prairie surrounding the present plant at Argo.



#### THE GREAT CLEARING RAILROAD YARDS

These yards are three and one-half miles long and contain over one hundred miles of track, and through belt lines connect with every trunk railway entering Chicago. Eventually, it is expected that practically all through freight will be handled here, thus completely avoiding its haul into the Chicago terminals. Will as much imagination and planning go into the human currents of the suburban industrial communities as into these freight arteries?



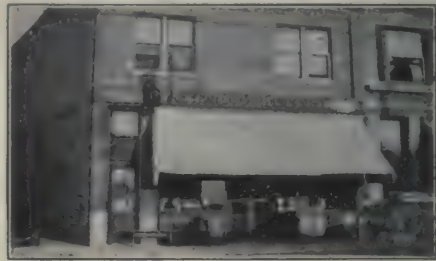
This risk in home ownership lurks in some degree in almost every satellite city. A safeguard, however, has been experimented on in Gary. The contract of sale between the Gary Land Company and the workman purchasing real estate gives him the opportunity at any time of selling the house back to the company for the same amount which he paid for it, less a sum—to cover interest, depreciation, etc.—totaling little more than what rent for the period would have been. As a matter of fact, the home owner in the steel company's subdivision can, as things stand today, sell out at a substantial profit to outsiders who are desirous of securing homes. The housing accommodations in Gary

commute out into the country and back each day. A similar situation exists at Norwood and Oakley, near Cincinnati. The failure of work people to move their homes out to the neighborhood of the plant may in some cases be due to high land prices set by the owners of real estate. Or perhaps other members of the same family work "down town," and so the family continues to live in the congested center. Desire of youth to be near the amusements, the lights and the crowds—where "something is doing" all the time—is another factor.

Metropolitan advantages, it may be noted in passing, have attractions for the better-to-do also. Miss Byington has pointed out, in discussing the



AT GARY



AT ARGO

A saloon-keeper who got in on the ground floor at Gary was shrewd enough to seize the same chance at Argo. Like camp sutlers, traffickers in recreation and refreshment are quick to follow in the trail of industry and put the commercial stamp on the social life of the place.

thus far are inadequate, and the interurban service brings many workmen in who live elsewhere. A considerable number even make the trip from Pullman to Gary and back each day, a distance of over twelve miles.

Transportation is a many-sided factor in the industrial suburb. It may tend to reduce the risk in home ownership if houses can be conveniently occupied by people who work in nearby towns. It may also broaden the opportunity for work, already discussed, for it may relieve the local industry from being the sole dependence.

Transportation facilities between large cities and their industrial suburbs vary widely. Sugar Creek lies a mile and a half beyond the end of the nearest Kansas City street car line. But traction service of at least average quality connects South Omaha with Omaha, and Norwood with Cincinnati. Not a few of the workers in the packing plants in South Omaha live in Omaha proper, since they can easily reach their work on the street car. A publishing house which moved its plant out of New York to a beautiful location near the Hudson River, finds that most of its employes do not change their residence, but continue to live in New York, and

influence of transportation upon the social life of Homestead, twenty-six miles up the Monongahela, that it is both too good and not good enough. It is so good that the Homestead people who earn the largest incomes and have the shortest hours are able to go to Pittsburgh for concerts, entertainments and social gatherings. Yet it is not good enough and cheap enough to enable the rank and file who have least to spend and work long hours, to have the same advantages. Meanwhile, because of the proximity to Pittsburgh, there is no demand from the very people who would otherwise tend to establish the general recreational facilities of a town of 25,000, and who might lead the social and civic life of the place.

Recreation and social life may need quite as much, if not more, wholesome opportunity and promotion in the industrial suburb, with its isolation and its sudden massing of strangers, than in the city center with its longer established neighborhoods and its greater facilities. Schools, libraries and other civic institutions are criteria by which to gauge the standard of community life. Adequate provision for them may be of business value to the suburban plant management







Intemperance, immorality and general shiftlessness were said to be more prevalent and deep-seated in these South Omaha poverty stricken families than in similar families in Omaha.

Home ownership and arrangement of part time work are not the only factors which are sometimes counted upon to control the currents in an industrial community. Some company officials act on the belief that by removing workmen from a large city it is possible to get them away from the influences which foment discontent and labor disturbances. The satellite city is looked to as a sort of isolation hospital for the cure of chronic "trouble." In an eastern city which recently experienced the throes of a turbulent street car strike, the superintendent of a large industrial establishment frankly said that every time the strikers paraded past his plant a veritable fever seemed to spread among the employees in all his work rooms. He thought that if the plants were moved out to the suburbs, the workmen would not be so frequently inoculated with infection. The experiences of Pullman in 1894 and Lawrence in 1912 are, of course, against this conclusion; but the question remains an interesting one to explore; how far does the removal of work people from big centers of population break up the cohesion of their industrial organizations? The suburban trend, if it continues, may thus have an important influence on the industrial relations of the future.

It is equally important to know whether, in these towns of their own creation, the industrial interests seek to dominate the local government. Will people assert themselves as citizens when their interest runs counter to those to whom they, as workers, look for a livelihood? On the other hand, in these towns the industrial power can be more clearly singled out than in the complex metropolitan center, and Professor Ely, in making a study of Pullman in 1885—but four years after the town's beginning—found that already a feeling had arisen that it was a praiseworthy thing to "beat the company." At Gary one feels that friction and antagonisms between townspeople and the industrial control are always just under the surface if not cropping out. The town of Steger, where pianos of that name are manufactured, has recently undergone a controversy of the most acrimonious sort between the firm and citizens who

charged despotic exploitation of the sort alleged at Pullman. At Leclaire, the town founded by the firm of N. O. Nelson relations seem to have been harmonious. The election not long ago of a socialistic alderman in Granite City, and a socialist mayor and other city officers at Flint is to be weighed against elections at Gary, whereby six saloonkeepers became members of a board of nine aldermen.

The politics of the satellite city have a bearing also on the large center near which it is located. Its vote, for example, might turn the tide of the whole district of which it is a part for or against the candidates who represent the newer policies for assuring popular control of government. More important still, many industrial suburbs will probably be absorbed sooner or later as sections of the metropolitan city. Pullman, for example, may be said to have completed a cycle upon which later industrial suburbs are only now starting. It has for several years been a part of the city of Chicago. Just what has Pullman contributed to the greater city? Does its town plan fit in with the great city plan recently formulated for the metropolitan district? What peculiar problems, if any, does it inject—of health, housing, recreation—into the well-being of the whole city? What sort of aldermen come from Pullman to the city council? These and other phases of the present-day estate of this, the first and perhaps most widely known, industrial suburb will be discussed in my next article.

The industrial exodus, in which Pullman early played the rôle now taken by Gary, is, in its individual parts, a consciously directed movement. It therefore presents repeated opportunities for shaping the civic and social conditions under which large groups of working people are to live for decades to come. It raises in new and searching ways questions as to the obligations which go with economic control; as to the future of local self-government in relation to the same; and as to the organization and large-scale civic development of our industrial districts.

Like the foundlings which were dropped in the turn-cradles of the old time orphanages, these young communities which industry is leaving at the door-steps of our cities are no longer things apart and by themselves. For better or worse, they come to share in the common lot.

# FROM VANVES TO IWAKURA

FREDERICK PETERSON, M. D.



A WATER VIEW IN ONE OF THE PARKS AT VANVES

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In our treatment of the insane there have been distinct eras—that of demoniacal exorcism, of fire and scourge; then that of chain and dungeon; the monasteries and the asylums patterned after them; today the psychopathic hospital and the agricultural colony.

In the tiny villas which embody the century-old dream of two French doctors and in the cottages and spring houses in which the Japanese for a thousand years have worked out a system of care, Dr. Peterson finds suggestion for America.

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AN INNER OR COURT GARDEN AT IWAKURA

Ever since the third daughter of the Japanese Emperor Gosanjo in the eleventh century developed melancholia, Iwakura has been a colony for the insane. In 1889 the village had 239 cottages for patients, with 1,579 inhabitants. Each little house has its own idyllic charm, expressed in simplicity of architecture, harmony with the landscape and well studied gardens. Across the spotless verandas one looks out upon shrubs flowering for every month between the winters, upon the plashing fountains with their gold fishes, into the restful gloom of the giant cryptomeria woods on the one side or to the evergreen hills upon the other.



GENERAL VIEW OF IWAKURA

Lying at the foot of great hills in a wide valley, Iwakura is surrounded by giant forests through which run beautiful old paths. Several imposing old temples stand out among the spruces and cedars. In 1889 the Japanese government, misled by a false estimate of the value of our western methods of carling for the insane, concluded that their colony system that had grown up so naturally was too unlike the colossal caravansaries in Europe and America. An edict forbidding that insane be any longer taken to Iwakura has reduced temporarily the number in the colony. The West may some day be glad to copy this Japanese model.





#### A COTTAGE FOR PATIENTS AT IWAKURA

The paper windows and sliding paper walls insure light and air and a practical out-of-door life night and day



#### IN THE FOREST OF CRYPTOMERIAS

A view from the grounds of one of the temples which lie amid the giant cedars surrounding Iwakura

# FROM VANVES TO IWAKURA

FREDERICK PETERSON, M. D.

PROFESSOR OF PSYCHIATRY AT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, EX-PRESIDENT NEW YORK STATE COMMISSION IN LUNACY

THE evolution of our modern methods of caring for the insane has been marked by certain successive stages which may be briefly epitomized thus: There was first the era of demoniacal exorcism of the Middle Ages when the insane in Europe were subjected to various kinds of torture—by fire, submersion in water, scourging, and so on—in order to rid them of the evil spirits with which they were supposed to be possessed. This was doubtless done in all kindness and for therapeutic purposes, for demoniacal possession was the accepted theory of the cause of insanity in that day. The second stage may be called the chain and dungeon era of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries when the insane were locked up in jails and prisons with felons for their own and the community's protection, and chains and dark dungeons were in common use alike for the restraint of criminals and the insane.

Then with the gradual awakening of public intelligence to this wrong came the era of special asylums for the insane, when they were removed from the prisons and for want of better structures for their immediate needs were gathered into the vacant monasteries of the time. These were being abandoned very often in that day and could readily be adapted to such new use. Later as the need for more asylums grew, and the supply of monasteries gave out, the architects of the period naturally followed the prevailing monastery style of architecture for the new institutions, having no other models to determine their plans. This monastery style of architecture for asylums for the insane prevails in most countries to the present day, though departure from it is increasingly frequent, in line with improving conceptions of methods of caring for the insane. For instance, the general hospital idea has had some influence on new designs, which sometimes follow the schemes of large general hospitals, or pavilion or cottage plans. The special psychopathic hospitals in cities, particularly those in connection with university medical schools, are a radical departure in asylum architecture, embodying the best modern ideas of safe custody, proper surgical and medical care, scientific study and investi-

gation of insanity, and the instruction of medical students and practitioners in psychiatry.

The agricultural colony idea, too, as applied to the care of the insane, is the outcome of a gradual evolution in method, but, though the ideal scheme for every country asylum, exists only as an ideal in this country, and there are but few examples in Europe. Some day every city of over 200,000 inhabitants will have its psychopathic hospital within the city limits, and a colony for the overflow in the country nearby, modeled on the Alt-Scherbitz colony for the insane near Leipzig, or upon the Craig colony for epileptics near Rochester, N. Y. And every small city with a general hospital will have a psychopathic ward or department for the reception and treatment of emergency cases of insanity, instead of utilizing station-houses and jails for the purpose. It is hard to shake off the old idea of a century or two ago of something common between felony and insanity. The sooner we recognize that insanity is a disease, having in the main as little to do with penal offenses or legal procedure as a fractured skull or a delirium from typhoid fever, the better will it be for the insane. We are just beginning to do this. As the world has grown better and our humane intentions have gathered force, we have nearly reached the point of looking upon the insane as sufferers from disease and not criminals, and upon the problems of insanity as chiefly medical and social and not punitive and legal.

But we are certainly too complacent in recording our achievements so far in the care of the insane. We have improved, but we have not done well enough. In many states the condition of the insane is still far from ideal; in fact, but little better than that of the inmates of the Salpêtrière before Pinet in 1792 struck off their manacles and chains. Even in states where the most has been attained, such as New York, the problem of their care has become so vast, complicated, and unwieldy that the need for proper direction and supervision, now so sadly lacking, in order to insure further progress, grows every year more urgent. The individual is lost sight of in immense aggregations of patients. They now number in New York state 32,000. Asylums with 3,000 to 5,000



inmates are surely an anomaly in any well-considered standard of care. The overcrowding is appalling. The nursing is inferior and inadequate. The medical staff is always too small and medical care therefore defective. The occupation treatment is merely tentative and rudimentary compared with what it ought to be. There should be large acreage for all kinds of horticultural and agricultural work, with complete separation of the patients in small colonial groups, and many special instructors in sloyd, arts and crafts, etc.

In many of the licensed private asylums the standard of care and treatment is not nearly equal to that of the state hospitals. The lack of emergency hospitals for these cases, or psychopathic wards in general hospitals, has led to the use of jails all over the state as stations for first care of the insane. Can we by forgetting this apparent chaos of detail into which the lunacy problem has grown by sheer force of circumstances, and seldom by intelligent direction, get back to some sort of basic first principles that should guide us in the treatment of a curable patient with a sick brain? For the sake of clearer understanding let us take a patient with moderate delirium. In such a case the senses are alert and hypersensitive but tend to misinterpret and pervert what they perceive. A first principle in treatment therefore would be isolation in a tranquil environment. It would be a violation of this first principle to place the patient in a ward with thirty or forty others as delirious as himself, or to put him alone in a room with bare or padded walls, locked doors or barred windows, because of the unhealthy suggestions these would offer. This brings us to a second principle of treatment, viz., psychotherapeutic suggestion. It is obvious that all suggestions to the disordered senses should be not only normal and rational but tranquilizing. The friendly face and kindly assiduity of a good nurse and a pleasant room with plenty of sunlight and fresh air, overlooking a quiet garden would realize this type of suggestion. When the patient grows strong enough to leave his bed and to occupy himself, occupation being one of the best of therapeutic measures, he should have a small garden for his walks and labors. In addition to gardening there should be available all sorts of arts and crafts with which to busy his hands, and these are curative in direct proportion to their novelty, utility, and creative character. The physician in charge should have ample time to devote to each such patient, and the nurses should be especially selected for their skill, intelligence, patience, and sympathy.

How far removed we are from these elementary principles of care and cure of the insane is all too evident in even a casual visit to the average modern asylum. It looms colossal and

forbidding before the eye with massive door and grated windows. Before the sick person can enter this so-called hospital he must be legally declared insane and indeterminately sentenced to seclusion by a judge. If he be very delirious he is carried through many winding corridors and wards to the remotest part of the building where the noisy and violent are placed together, thirty to forty or more in a ward. As he grows quieter he proceeds from one ward to another until he reaches the convalescent ward. The wards are overcrowded. Sometimes beds are so close together that to get into his bed he must climb over the foot of it. I have known of mattresses laid upon the floors in hallways, bathrooms and even in toilet rooms to accommodate the overflowing wards. Exercise out of doors is apt to be taken at fixed hours in a march around the grounds, double file in columns of 50 to 200 with attendants as guards at each end and along the sides. A few trusty patients are worked on the farm and about the grounds, and some make scrubbing-brushes and pick hair for handicraft work. Some make beds and drag a heavy floor-polisher through the wards and corridors. But the great majority sit idle and listless in long lines throughout the wards the entire day.

The attendants are attendants, not trained nurses, and as they are scantily paid are apt to take up this calling as a last resort when there is nothing better to be found to do. They are prone to leave as soon as something better offers, so that they are constantly changing, and there are scarcely ever enough of them to fill out even the quota allowed by the state, viz., one attendant to ten or twelve patients. On the whole they are surprisingly good, especially in country asylums where they are drafted from among the farmers' daughters and sons. They are of a distinctly lower type in the cities. The average attendant is like the average man or woman with average honesty, average kindness, and average humanity. There are many far above the average, indeed some truly noble, heroic, tender, intelligent, ambitious. There are also some below the average, coarse, ignorant, vicious, brutal. Careful selection is practiced as far as it can be done with the heavy handicap of poor pay and few applicants. There are never enough physicians, rarely more than one to two hundred patients, and no one physician can do justice to the needs of so many, and the poor pay together with the trying and arduous labors and the isolation of their lives tends to keep the better class of physicians from going into the service, so that the highest types of medical men are growing gradually fewer in asylum work.

In connection with these statements here are some facts given to me while writing this by



the superintendent of one of our fourteen or fifteen New York state asylums:

The overcrowding increased without adequate remedy at my hospital until last winter we were not only occupying corridors and day rooms (with beds), but in some of the small sitting-rooms we had gotten down to less than 300 cubic feet of air space per patient. . . . We ordinarily have about fifty appointments a month among the lower employes (owing to insufficient compensation), and on my medical staff I have had twenty-nine changes in one year,

pert commission appointed to study and solve it. This should no longer be left to politicians.

As a contrast to this picture of the usual methods of care in vogue all over the world it will be interesting to turn to two departures from them which seem better to fulfill the ideals expressed in the early part of this article. In the course of my travels I have discovered two remarkable institutions for the insane, one in France and one in Japan. They deserve to be generally known, both for their uniqueness and



IN THE SUBURBS OF PARIS

This farmstead divides the *Maison de Falret*, a villa for the insane at Vanves, into two parts, one for each sex. The whole park contains over sixty acres and combines many of the essentials in the care of the insane—the return to nature, adequate nursing, out-of-door work and segregation from other insane.

including appointments, resignations, promotions, and transfers, and on a staff of say about twenty-four physicians there are only about four or five who have been here over two years. I shall soon have vacancies for nine physicians and really suitable material is hard to get.

In the majority of the private asylums, especially the cheaper ones, conditions are not so good as in the larger public institutions. The problem of the efficient and humane, as well as economic, care of the insane, is becoming so enormous, serious and complex in every state that it will soon be important to have some ex-

per for the wholly different standard of care they represent.

Nearly one hundred years ago two distinguished specialists in insanity, Doctors Voisin and Falret purchased an estate of over sixty acres in the environs of Paris and transformed it into a park which they planted well with trees and shrubs. A pretty stream courses through it. In this they built numerous tiny villas or bungalows, each with its own little garden, surrounded by high green hedges, each garden opening by its own gateway into the larger park. Now





PAVILLON DE LA SOURCE

Two of the twenty-seven bungalows at Vanves for the isolation of one or more insane patients. These buildings, together with the park surrounding, embody the dream of the distinguished French specialist Falret, and Dr. Peterson calls this the best plan for the care and treatment of insane which our western civilization has yet devised.



PAVILLON DU POMMIER

after the lapse of a hundred years it realizes their dream of what should be done for the insane. The Maison de Falret, as it is called, at Vanves, in the suburbs of Paris, consists of a large park full of magnificent trees and shrubbery, divided into halves by a farmstead group of buildings, thus making practically two parks, one for each sex, and there are twenty-seven such bungalows for the isolation of one or more patients. Paris has grown up around it, but wandering in this estate one can scarcely conceive a vast city to be so near. A patient brought here is not only isolated from his friends which is usually a distinct advantage, but he is isolated from the insane which is an even greater gain. There are perhaps a hundred patients here. We have in this plan all the essentials for the care of the insane, adequate nursing, segregation from the other insane, the return to nature, the simple life, a practical out-of-door life for night and day, beautiful surroundings, association only with normal persons and plenty of space for walks, for working in gardens and fields and at various arts and crafts. The dream of Falret is here realized, and it is the best that our western civilization has yet attained in the matter of care and treatment of the insane.

I had the good fortune to be conducted to Iwakura by Professor Imamura of the Department of Psychiatry in the University of Kyoto. I was the second westerner to visit this remarkable place, the first having been Professor Stieda of Russia who described it as "the Japanese Gheel" in 1906. Iwakura is a little village about seven miles from Kyoto and had this origin:

The third daughter of the Emperor Gosanjo in the eleventh century developed melancholia in her eighteenth year. News was brought to the imperial household that at Iwakura was a holy

well, the water of which was healing to mental diseases and to disorders of the eyes. The emperor's daughter was taken thither and recovered there nearly nine hundred years ago, and so brought fame to the temple and well of Iwakura, as a result of which the insane were attracted there in great numbers. At first three small inns were constructed to receive them, then later tea houses and villas and cottages sprang up in which to provide for the ever-increasing influx of patients.

In the year 1889 the village had 239 houses, with 1,579 inhabitants, and up to that year one or two patients were received into each family to share in the occupations of the household which were chiefly out-of-door employment in fields, gardens and parks and some of the arts and crafts of the ordinary Japanese home.

Iwakura lies at the foot of great hills in a beautiful wide valley. The hills are covered with evergreen cryptomerias (a kind of giant cedar) and with pines and spruces, while every available part of the valley is cultivated with rice and vegetables, bamboo and lotus. Each little house has its own idyllic charm. This charm lies in its simplicity of architecture, harmony with the landscape, and its well studied gardens both inside the courtyard and outside around the house. The paper windows and sliding paper walls insure light and air and a practical out-of-door life night and day. From the spotless mats upon the floor, across the spotless verandas one looks out upon the garden green with pines and cedars all the year round, filled with flowering shrubs for every month between the winters, upon the plashing fountains with their gold fishes, looks out into the restful gloom of the giant cryptomeria woods on the one side or across the valley of rice fields to the evergreen hills upon the other. There are beautiful old

paths and roads among these cedar forests and several imposing temples among them.

In 1889 the Japanese government, misled by a false impression of the value of our western methods of caring for the insane, came to the conclusion that their colony system that had grown up so naturally was too far removed from American and European standards, as exemplified in our colossal caravansaries for the insane, and so by edict forbade the insane being any longer taken to the village of Iwakura. They abolished their own method as probably barbarous, just as at one time they abolished cremation, having been persuaded that it was a heathen practice, but returned to it when they subsequently learned that cremation is the goal to which western civilizations are tending.

The result of this opposition of the government has been to reduce temporarily the number of insane in the colony. It is altogether likely that as soon as the authorities realize that their own system, evolved in a period of nearly a thousand years, is the best of all methods of

caring for the insane, they will gradually remove the proscription, and restore Iwakura to its ancient rights and privileges under state supervision and inspection.

No doubt we in the West will some day be glad to copy this Japanese model when we finally awaken to how far we have drifted from an ideal system of care and treatment of the insane, with our immense, expensive and complicated machinery of mere support and custody. We may in time follow this plan of simple construction and arrangement of grounds and buildings, but shall we ever, alas, attain the same degree of perfection in the morale of the nursing staff? This was to me the most striking feature in the care of the insane in the various asylums of Japan. I believe such gentleness, kindness, patience, and assiduous attention to the sick could be found nowhere else, for nowhere else exists a whole race of people who never scold, quarrel, or manifest impatience, but always turn a smiling face and extend a helpful hand to one another.

## SOME SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC RESULTS OF THE REVOLUTION IN CHINA

EARL H. CRESSY

CENTRAL CHINA FAMINE RELIEF COMMITTEE

"I HAVE finished the political revolution and now propose to devote myself to inaugurating the greatest social revolution in the world's history."

Such is the reason for his retirement given by Dr. Sun Yat Sen, who more than any one man is responsible for the formation of a republic in China. Unhampered by the forces of conservatism incidental to a gradual change, China aspires immediately to utilize to the utmost the experience worked out by the West. Only now have the older republics become aware that political democracy is only a beginning. China is awakening to the fact that if popular sovereignty is to endure, it must not only be political, but industrial and social.

Dr. Sun adds: "The future policy of the republic will be keen socialism."

The outstanding feature of China's economic past is the emphasis upon agriculture. Farming has been insisted upon as the exclusive industry of the masses of the people, to the extreme of making it a matter of morals and even of religion. This dates from the time of the prehistoric invaders who discouraged the pastoral pursuits of the conquered people, cut down the forests and devoted the country to agriculture.

That the economic spirit of the country has changed little from that day to this is evidenced by the following quotation from the Sacred



From *The Changing Chinese*, by Edward Aisworth Ross. The Century Co.

WORKING A YANGTSE JUNK WITH OAR AND SWEEP.



Edict, promulgated by the first Manchu emperors, which has stood as an epitome of the requirements of good citizenship in China:

The basis of the people's support consists in the two items, food and clothing. True, there are scholars and farmers, artisans and tradesmen; each has his different occupation; but after all the supply of these necessities depends solely upon husbandmen and the cultivators of silk-worms. If every man in the whole empire set about cultivating his own land, each one growing what he ate, in all the land no one would suffer from hunger. If there were one who did not till his field, just that one would lack food.

The present industrial situation may be traced in large measure to this cause. The deforestation of the country has changed both the surface and climate of North China, and has made

nation of China has been the misgovernment of foreign dynasties, particularly the Manchu. The early Chinese emperors built canals, dykes and great systems of roads that could stand comparison with those of Rome, and the last Chinese dynasty, at least, permitted mining, if it did not encourage it. During the centuries of Manchu rule the roads have almost wholly disappeared, many canals have fallen into disrepair, and where commerce has still survived, official greed has bled it by numerous "likin" or customs stations. The neglect of the dykes, built to control the rivers as deforestation proceeded, has reduced some of the most fertile areas in the world to a deplorable condition. The Manchus forbade the opening of new mines, discouraged the working of old ones and by their hatred of foreign innovations obstructed the progress and industrial welfare of the nation. Such conditions were the fundamental cause of the revolution. With the passing of the Manchus, the new China is left free to work out economic reform; but that all abuses should vanish along with the reigning family is too much to expect.

The social result of all this is that the masses of the people live on the margin of actual want. As they are so largely dependent upon agriculture, a single bad year is often sufficient to reduce them to starvation, while the lack of a broad market and of a diversity of industries gives them nothing to fall back upon.

Such are the present conditions. The largest factors in the progress of the new China will be railroads, industrial revolution, conservation and development of natural resources, establishment of economic justice and religion.

Railroad building is a political necessity. Unity and a national consciousness can come only with intercourse. Up to the present the provinces have been practically independent satrapies, and there is a line of cleavage between North and South. Without railway communication, the integrity of the country must remain uncertain. The nationalization of the railways seems to be desirable, and the through trunk lines must be under the control of the central government rather than of the provinces. In the spring of 1911 this issue was clear-cut, and the railroad riots at that time were due to the efforts of the central government to take the Hankow Szechuen railroad out of the hands of the provinces.

The results of the linking up of all parts of the country by rail will be revolutionary. The condition of the agriculturalist will be greatly improved, for cheap transportation will steady and broaden the market. The undeveloped commercial possibilities of China are enormous. All the railroads have paid from the start. In America the roads built into the wilderness and then



*From The Changing Chinese, by Edward Alsworth Ross. The Century Co.*  
CAVE DWELLING OF A COAL MINER

famine chronic throughout vast areas. Such an agricultural policy implies isolated district or community units, each supplying its own primary economic wants, and needing little intercourse with the other units. Politically this has been the case, and so long as taxes have continued to come in, the motto of the central government has been to let well enough alone. Such conditions have retarded internal commerce, and because of the lack of communication, the greater part of the country has only a limited local market available. Grain has more than once been a drug on the market when people were starving by communities within a hundred miles, and this past year the Famine Relief Committee has purchased large portions of its grain upon the borders of the stricken area.

The other chief reason for the industrial stag-

carried the settlers on whose business they were to depend; but in China, teeming populations tax the resources of the line from the first day. Imports and exports doubled in twelve years after the inland steam navigation ordinance of 1898.

The industrial revolution is already under way in China. For centuries there has been a considerable division of labor and many of the arts have been carried on with a high degree of skill, but production has been on the shop system, and is conducted on a family basis. The change from the shop to the factory system will be the more difficult, because it must come all at once. The experience painfully worked out

in a meeting of Chinese stockholders when in the face of heavy losses due to the revolution, a 10 per cent dividend was voted. One of the vices of Chinese management is the neglect of upkeep. Everything in China appears to be going to rack or ruin, and plants are allowed to deteriorate, while the funds that should be used in repairs are paid out in dividends. Such conditions will make it even more possible than it was in America for those who first master the new machinery of business, to manipulate corporation securities and build fortunes before the people awaken to the danger.

The human horrors of the industrial rev-



From *The Changing Chinese*, by Edward Alworth Ross The Century Co.  
BURNING OF OPIUM PIPES AND OTHER PARAPHERNALIA CONFISCATED BY THE  
FOOCHOW ANTI-OPIUM SOCIETY (EIGHTH TIME)

by the West during a century is being taken over by a people whose previous training has in no way qualified them to grasp its significance. The country is strewn with the wrecks of ill-advised industrial enterprises, such as the glass factory in North Kiangsu, where it turned out that the sand would not make glass, or the carriage factory built in an inaccessible portion of Szechuen.

Even more difficult is the transition from the small business, which was a family affair, to the corporation which the modern scale of production demands. No Chinese corporation has as yet been a complete success. The reason is made apparent by such action as that recently taken

in other lands are being repeated and magnified here. It is stated on good authority that of all the big cotton mills in Shanghai only one allows as long as fifteen minutes for lunch at noon. In the rest, the women work from early to late, often with babies in baskets at their feet, and eat while tending the looms.

The earnestness of the Chinese government concerning conservation is indicated by the action of the national assembly when in cutting down the number of departments in the cabinet, the department of forestry and agriculture was retained, although others of great importance were made subordinate. Assurances have been repeatedly given that when the six nation loan





*From The Changing Chinese, by Edward Alsworth Ross. The Century Co.*

#### A POTTERY—THE WALLS BUILT WITH DEFECTIVE POTS

goes through a large amount of money will be used for work of famine prevention. The conviction is growing both among Chinese and foreigners who have been in touch with the work of famine relief, that the time has come to make an effort at securing government action on a scale large enough to prevent the recurrence of famine. One of the means to this end will be the development of a public sentiment which will insist on prevention rather than cure—upon economic justice rather than charity.

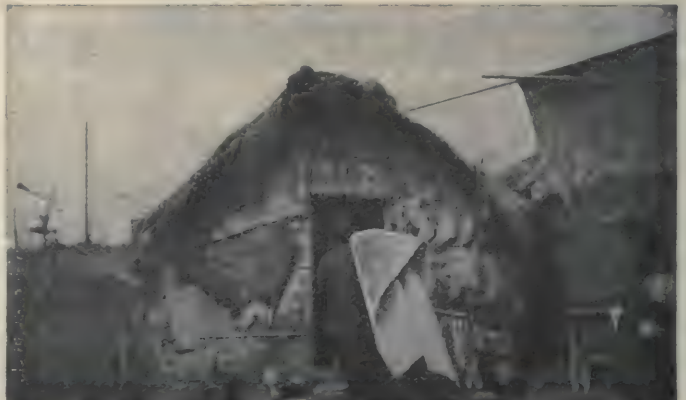
It is possible for China to build railroads, open industrial plants and greatly increase the material resources available, and have all of this count for very little in real civilization, unless some means is devised whereby the masses of the people and not merely a few shrewd individuals benefit thereby. The thing that above everything else China needs to learn is the lesson of brotherhood. It has taken the nations of the West many long and bitter years to come to an understanding of the ethical relationships demanded by the new industrial order. This experience, as far as it goes, can be made available for China. One of the greatest needs at present is for a careful study of social conditions with a view to adapting for use in the Orient the lessons learned in the West.

In this connection all agencies that tend to bring the East into touch with the ethical and religious life of the West are of the utmost importance. The foreign concessions in the treaty ports of China are giving illustration of the modern administration and improvement of cities, and, while this is often marred by a lack of altruism, it cannot fail to have

far-reaching influence. Contact with western business methods leaves much to be desired, but it has its beneficial side also. The most influential factor in this direction, however, is undoubtedly the missionary body which is represented in practically every center of importance.

Probably the most significant thing about the missionary movement today is the increasing socialization of its work. Education and medical and literary work are recent additions. Famine relief has thrust itself upon the missionaries and the conviction is growing that the bearer of the Gospel message must not fail to face the economic problems of his field.

Although many missionaries are taking an active interest in different aspects of the social problem, they are in only a few cases men who have special training along that line. One of the most pressing needs at present is for men of thorough training in social science to come to China. The greatest danger is to be apprehended from the indiscriminate copying of western methods and ideas by the Chinese without regard to their applicability to the Orient. First must come the study of existing conditions; then the mapping out of policies for social and economic readjustment, and finally the training of Chinese who may be able to carry these things into effect. The field is a tremendous one. The changes that are taking place are vast and will come with great rapidity. To the social specialist who is ambitious to exert a far-reaching influence for the betterment of mankind, and to those who desire to invest money where it will bring the largest return in human welfare, the present situation in China offers an unparalleled opportunity.



*From The Changing Chinese, by Edward Alsworth Ross. The Century Co.*

#### HOVEL ON BEACH AT KIUKIANG. OVER THE DOOR THE CHARACTER FOR "HAPPINESS."

# THE DIVINE CALL: FOLLOW ME

ALBION FELLOWS BACON

SECRETARY INDIANA HOUSING ASSOCIATION    AUTHOR PRESENT INDIANA HOUSING LAW

CHRIST saw Peter and Andrew, James and John, at their daily work, and he said, "Follow me." And they left all and followed Him. Along the seashore, through the country-side, from town to village, over desert wastes, up mountain steepes they followed Him. For three years they had His constant companionship. I want you to realize what that companionship must have meant.

To many, religion is a tiresome thought. They are afraid Christ would be a bore. The God they have created *would* be as stupid as any god the heathen have made of wood or stone. But I wish I could show to them what stimulation and delight there is in the company of the real Christ; that if we could take all the good comrades, the brilliant thinkers, the interesting travelers, the deep students, the poets, artists, and inventors, and the tenderest of friends, and put them in one, we would not have so enjoyable a companion as Christ.

We have all had moments with some great person that we never forget. They stand out like glowing mountain peaks against the rest of life. And we have been with some saintly one whose presence is a benediction, through whose eyes we have looked upon eternal things, until the littleness of our own lives dropped away from us. We think what a privilege it would have been to have had an hour in the company of Dante, of St. Augustine, of David, of Moses. But here was a man whose personality had such an irresistible charm that at His "Follow Me" men forsook all.

We know the comfort of being with some one who understands us. Here was one who read the thoughts of men, and saw the good motive, even when the deed failed; who knew all their temptations and their struggles and their hindrances, who was above all petty standards, and judged with righteous judgment. One whose face was so radiant with love and sympathy that little children left their mothers and came to Him. Sinners were not afraid of Him and the wretched and needy pressed to touch His garments.

We give almost superstitious reverence to the names of Michael Angelo, Mozart, Händel, any of those great interpreters of beauty. But here was the very Creative Spirit, who was with the Father when the worlds were made, when

the firmament was arched and gemmed, when the mountains were piled up and the mighty seas outspread, when the secrets of the prism and the octave were made manifest in all the harmonies of color and sound, and one was told to the clouds and the flowers, and the other to the winds and the waves and to all the daughters of melody. He who was the Way, the Truth, and the Life was also the Soul of Harmony and the Spirit of Beauty.

Then think what it must have meant to those who followed Him to stand with Him at evening on the rugged mountain side, when the sky was aflame with sunset, to watch it pale to rose and amber, and die out in purple and gray. Think what it must have meant to be with Him at daybreak, when the mists rolled back over the blue water, and the waves leaped and sparkled with gold. Then to have shared the morning meal with Him, the water from the mountain spring, and the bread that He blessed and broke.

We can imagine that the journeys on foot of the Lord and His disciples were not taken in haste, but that they stopped to rest by field or grove, and that the Master would wait to speak to a child, or to pick up a wounded bird, or even to gather the lilies, always pointing out the lessons of Nature in parables.

I believe, too, that He does not want us to run upon His errands, out of breath, without stopping to see the beauty He has spread out all about us. To all of the largeness and beauty and bounty of this life we are bidden, and to His companionship we also are called.

Following Him, the disciples saw the Master heal and bless and save. They saw Him pour His life in tireless ministry. They saw Him tried by every occasion, yet always patient and forgiving. Yet, after three years of His companionship, they failed to understand His spirit or His mission, for He said to one of them, "Have I been so long time with you, and yet hast thou not known Me?"

What was the object of keeping them near Him so long? It was to train them for service, to carry on His work in the world.

We, too, are called to service. As it was necessary for the disciples to be much with Him to learn His methods and His spirit, so it is necessary for us.

It was a long time before the disciples were



able to do much in the way of service. At first the Master let them do the easy things, run on His errands, and help to feed the multitudes. But they made so many mistakes when they tried to do the harder things. They were not able to cast out the evil spirit when a father brought his son to be healed. And they blundered when they forbade a certain man, just because he was not one of them, to perform cures in the name of Christ. And they wanted to drive away the little children whose soft, clinging arms must have helped his heartaches. They rebuked the women who poured out the pure incense of their devotion. They quarreled among themselves as to who should be the greatest. They were so slow of heart to understand.

So, patiently, he taught them the beauty and dignity of service. He taught them that he is the greatest who is the servant of all. And He taught them two great fundamental truths of service, upon which any one can build the temple of a beautiful and happy life. And these two truths are folded in at the heart of all I have to say to you, so that if you keep these two only I shall be satisfied.

The first is that service is one condition of spiritual growth. "My meat is to do the will of Him that sent me." By the very doing of God's will we are nourished.

And the second is that service is one condition of spiritual knowledge. "If ye do His will ye shall know of His doctrine."

Both knowledge and growth come *by doing His will*.

Then what is His will?

He came that we might have life, and that we might have it more abundantly. We cannot doubt, then, that His will is health and happiness for us all. And His will is to save and to heal and to bless. He was sent "to heal the broken-hearted, to preach deliverance to the captives and recovery of sight to the blind, to set at liberty them that are bruised." When He calls us, saying, "Follow Me," He sends us out with that same commission. He said plainly, "Feed my sheep." And in solemn words, that no one can mistake or misinterpret, He commands us to clothe the naked, to minister to the sick, and to visit those in prison.

Why did Christ lay so much stress on the ministry to the poor, when trouble and sorrow and sickness come to all alike? No one will ask that question who is much among the very poor. Poverty makes every trouble worse, just as intense cold makes every ache worse. The prisoners of poverty are shackled with fetters of iron. They cannot fly to change of scene, or seek relief in recreation. They must "grind in the prison house." It is so hard to be sick and poor; to lie and toss on a hard bed, with the torment

of heat and foul odors and flies. And it is harder still to see those you love suffer for what you cannot give them.

Let me show you how it fares with those children of the shadow, those helpless, pitiful, ignorant ones who burden our hearts and tax our purses; those who drink the bitter dregs and take the scanty leavings, those whom the Master left in our care. Come with me, and we will enter some of the doors that He has left ajar for us.

In a little, close, stuffy back room of an old tenement a woman lies dying. There is no window in the room. All the light that comes to her dimming eyes, all the air she draws in her last difficult gasp, comes from another room. The place is in the heart of town, and the noise and dust of the street are both in the room.

Upstairs, another woman is lying very ill of a fever. We feel our way along the sticky walls, up the dark stairs, to the third story. The woman is alone, with no one to wait on her till her husband comes home at night. The floor is bare and worn, there is a wretched bed, a table, and a chair. On the table is a cracked pitcher of tepid water from the polluted cistern. There are no screens, no blinds. It is so hard to be sick and poor.

We find a mother and seven children living in a tiny garret. One boy is very ill with pneumonia. No wonder, for the rain has poured in through the leaky roof, and the draughts blow through great cracks in the wall. Downstairs is a set of vicious men, so brutal that the mother is afraid to let the little girl go down for water when the sick boy wants a drink.

Upstairs again, this time over a fish store. We have to take a lamp because the rooms are perfectly dark. The heavy, greasy odor of the fish floats upstairs, and there is no window to let it out. It smells strong and stale in the two rooms where two sisters are lying, both sick. We peer about the dark rooms and shudder to think of the dust and germs. The charity doctor and the district nurse come in. They look at each other gravely. It is no wonder if girls go wrong, when they have to live in such sties—nothing bright, nothing homelike, no one to care when they come in.

I wonder how many of you would care, or dare, to follow me from this place to the alley just back of it. No one but the police dare go all the way through, because the human off-scourings of the city are found there—Negro dives, full of white men and women, where drunkenness, gambling, everything awful, is to be found. A raid of the police after a fight showed lodging rooms filled with bunks and cots, in unlighted, unventilated rooms, filthy, worse than stables.



And there little children carry beer buckets and learn crime and indecency. In one room were eight people, of different families, an old man, who died that night of tuberculosis, a tiny baby, other men and women. There was no bed, just piles of sacking; the air was stifling, the filth beyond words.

We find many old tenements in which a family of from four to seven persons has only one room. Yet sometimes they have visitors, and sometimes even boarders. The house was not built for so many families. It has, perhaps, only one stairway, and convenience for only one family. Yet all these are shared by men, women, and children alike.

The young girls have to pass drunken men on those dark stairways, and encounter them in the yard. Do you wonder that these are the very breeding-places of immorality, when people are herded together like cattle, with no chance to preserve the laws of modesty and decency? And do you wonder if they are also the breeding-places of disease? Tuberculosis thrives. Infant mortality reaps its harvest. Drunkenness fastens itself here.

Where are these places? Some in my town, some in your city, and in all our cities. There are hundreds of just such houses. And in your city and in mine there are dingy rows and blocks of wretched dwellings, not fit to be called homes. There are families living in stables, over warehouses, in alley hovels, amid filth unspeakable.

It used to be thought that only great cities had slums. But these places are the worst kind of slums. Small towns, even villages, have slum centers. In fact, I have seen a number of slum villages.

Just because people have not seen these places, it is hard for them to believe that they exist. But poverty hides away out of sight, in places where you least suspect it. I have found slums on the same square with a Y. M. C. A. building. I have known of miserable tenements across the street from a church, where they had stood for years. But the people going to church "passed by on the other side" and seemingly did not know that so near to them were those who had fallen among thieves, and had been bruised and beaten, and were in need of their oil and wine.

I believe that the care of the poor and the wiping out of the slums is the rightful work of the church, more than of charity or philanthropy. Not that the churches do not do charity work. I have found the most valuable members of charity circles to be church members. And in most of our churches there is a department of "mercy and help" to care for the poor. But is not most of the alms taken by a committee, perhaps of only two or three? And, though others work

and give and plan for the poor, are not these few sometimes the only ones out of the church who ever actually see inside the homes of the poor? If our people knew the blessing that comes from the actual visit more would want to go. I believe the day will come when every member will have some special duties of social service; and then what interest and enthusiasm there will be in church work, and how the churches will grow!

Not that we cannot serve the Master by giving bazaars and teas, and with all kinds of committee work. We can serve Him, indeed, in the sweat of our brow, if not in the joy of our spirit. But so much of this work is routine and drudgery, a wholesale kind of service, not so personal and intimate as the service to the Master we give to His poor. And there is no drudgery in that; it is such a joy to think we have done something really unto Him.

When we visit the poor and the needy all the best of us goes out to them, and all the best of them responds to us. I have found as delicate appreciation among the poor as among the most cultured—not for alms, not for money, but for sympathy, for friendship, for a handful of flowers, for what we call "friendly visiting." Some of you may belong to the Friendly Visitors' Circle, and you know that you visit the poor just as you do your own friends. It is the flower of all charity work, and gives such beautiful opportunities for service, helping so truly, walking shoulder to shoulder with the dependent or morally disabled, until they are strong enough to walk alone; helping the discouraged mother to plan, teaching the young daughter to cook or sew, finding work for the boys, reading to the old grandmother, encouraging, guiding, inspiring. The wonderful thing is that you get to look forward to the visits as much as the family does, and this, I believe, is the reason:

I believe that when we go in His name to the wretched and the needy, we meet Him there. We have communion with Him, we are upon holy ground, and we know that our sacrifice is accepted because of the flame upon the altar, which is the glow in our own hearts. And in those moments we know the blessed truth of the words of Christ, and we feel that we are fed and nourished by doing His will. I have stood in the bare, miserable room where Poverty's child has lived and toiled and suffered. I have leaned over the cheap casket that, for Poverty's child, is the last hard bed, and laid upon it the few flowers that were the only thing of beauty or brightness to lighten the gloom. And there has come a revelation of the meaning of life, and of the life beyond, of the tragedy of poverty, of the kinship of all flesh, and the fatherhood of God, that has never come elsewhere. And in



that place I have felt a Presence, close and real.

O you who have troubles and sorrows, do not try to wear them out in your homes. Go to those who have had less and have suffered more, and against their dark background see how your own blessings will shine out. See how it will ease your heartache to give them of your sympathy.

And you who struggle for the light, unhappy, unsatisfied with your spiritual life, "groping," as Maeterlinck says, "about the walls of life," here is the open door, and the light streams through. "Canst thou by searching find out God?" the ancient writer asks. Christ told us, too, "The kingdom of Heaven cometh not with observation."

Stop arguing and searching, *go to work*, begin

and the wronged, and take up their fight against greed and selfishness and ignorance and indifference that crush them down. We must wipe out the slums. We must look into the cause of poverty rather than doctor its symptoms. We must do our part in the great movements that are working to uplift humanity. It is a clarion call to battle, this "Follow Me."

Each one hears the Divine call in his own way. Many hear that call "to bind up the broken-hearted, and to comfort those who mourn." Others hear the call to "prepare the way of the Lord, and make His paths straight." Every poet and singer and reformer and leader of men has heard some such call. Others hear simply the call of duty, and others still hear a faint call that sounds like conscience, and they



WHERE MOSQUITOES START IN LIFE.

One of the breeding spots of the malaria mosquito, whose fight with Uncle Sam is described by Mr. Bowles (see next page). Such land marks so distinguished the region that they have been immortalized on picture postal cards.

to do His will, and the truth will begin to dawn upon you; you will be fed, and grow, and you will have the joy and the peace that comes to those who are in the current of all good purposes.

You need not hesitate as to where to begin. Go to the homes of your city's poor. The charities secretary can guide you. Your minister knows the way.

Besides this beautiful personal service there are large tasks waiting to be done in His Name. If we truly mean "Thy kingdom come," if we are to follow Christ all the way, we must sweep aside these obstacles in the way of the church and of the progress of the race. We must cleanse our cities of breeding-places of crime and disease, we must rouse to the cries of the helpless

answer the call simply for the saving of their own souls.

But however it comes, the wonderful thing is this: Afterwhile, if we truly follow Christ, we learn of Him, we have His companionship, we grow to be like Him, and to love those He loves. We come to feel their wretchedness, their hunger, to feel that there is a spirit within us that must go homeless till the poor are housed, and this is the spirit of Christ.

'Till at last to the height of the Ultimate Truth we attain,

Not of serving to please Him, but sharing His ministry, thus,

That whatever they suffer, we feel. We can say, as He said,

"Inasmuch as men do it to these, they have done it to us."

# SANITATION ON THE ISTHMUS

JAMES TENBROECK BOWLES

PHYSIOLOGIST, ISTHMIAN CANAL COMMISSION

THE Isthmus of Panama at the point where the canal is being constructed extends from east to west, while the canal course runs nearly north and south. Stretching across the isthmus, from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, is the strip of land ten miles wide, five miles on each side of the center line of the canal, known as the Canal Zone. In following the line of the canal no mountain chains are encountered, and the region exhibits a chaotic aggregation of short crests and isolated hills, called "cerros."

pools of fresh water are found on every hand.

As is true in most tropical countries, there are just two seasons, the rainy, extending from May to January, and the dry from January to May. However, the seasons vary somewhat from year to year, as we have experienced during the past two years.

The temperature is tropical, and mosquitoes breed prolifically the year round. The average temperature for 1909 was below normal, being 79 degrees Fahrenheit at Ancon, while the lowest temperature recorded on the isthmus since the



MAKING THE ISTHMUS HABITABLE

Mosquitoes, open sewers, stagnant water and centuries of unacclimatized white visitors piled up quite a day's work for modern sanitary engineers. The picture shows a fumigation gang.

For the first fifteen miles the country is low and swampy, then the valley of the Chagres opens out into a broad plain. From there the route ascends the Central Divide. On the other side of the divide, the route follows the valley of the Rio Grande to the wharves of La Boca. The total distance from ocean to ocean is forty-six miles and much of the canal course finds its way through dense tropical vegetation.

Historians have always referred to the jungle as "exhaling its poisonous vapors." Water is abundant everywhere, little streams coming out from every small ravine and forming ideal places for anopheles. In the swampy sections stagnant

American occupation was 59 degrees Fahrenheit at Bas Obispo in February, 1907, and the highest temperature (in the sun) was at Culebra in February, 1907, being 105 degrees Fahrenheit.

The Atlantic side of the isthmus has always been noted for having more rainfall than the Pacific. The following table shows the average yearly fall since 1904:

Porto Bello	Cristobal	Empire	Ancon
173.02 in.	129.59 in.	90.00 in.	71.23 in.

Hail has been known to fall several times, the last being in May, 1912, on Naos Island.

The present canal route has been the princi-



pal one for crossing the isthmus since the discovery of America. The Spaniards built a causeway from old Panama to Porto Bello and paved it with cobble-stones, parts of which can still be seen. The infection of yellow fever and malaria, originated along these routes, spread greatly, and the stopping places became the centers of infection for the diseases.

Porto Bello, on the Atlantic side, was the port for all the vessels coming from Europe. Because of its excellent harbor it remained the port on the north side for many years. Even now vessels are often forced to go down there for protection from the rough seas.

From the earliest times this was looked upon as a most unhealthy place. Superstitious ideas were entertained in regard to it. From its low-lying parts spirits, miasma and the like were supposed to arise at nightfall and fill the surrounding air with deadly poisons.

Since Porto Bello was the first stopping place for all vessels crossing the ocean from Europe, it thus became the first center of infection for yellow fever and malaria. At first the route across the isthmus was over the old paved road to old Panama, but after Morgan captured the

city of old Panama, the route was changed to the Chagres river. Ships were unloaded at Porto Bello into small sailing vessels, which went on to the village of Chagres at the mouth of the Chagres river. Here another center of infection was formed. From this place the cargo was transshipped to small dugouts and carried up the river forty miles to a point where the stream changes its course. Here, at Las Cruces, another center of infection was formed. From this place the cargo was carried on pack animals, over paved roads, to the city of Panama, which became still another center of infection.

In order to understand why this infection of yellow fever and malaria has never died out, one must bear in mind that for four hundred years along this route a constant stream of unacclimated people of the white race has been crossing the isthmus. This continuous procession infected the territory with yellow fever and malaria, and kept up the infection to a much higher degree than in the neighboring tropical countries, because these countries did not have this stream of whites constantly in their territory. Nearly everybody who traveled from the west coast of North and South America crossed at Panama, so that many people of all classes sickened and died in that place. It will be remembered that a large portion of the population which went from the eastern states and from all parts of the civilized world to California in 1849 and the immediately succeeding years crossed by this route. The next great number that came to the isthmus was during the construction of the Panama Railroad, and following this were the forces introduced during the French occupation.

Thus the isthmus had acquired a reputation for bad health second to that of no other locality in the world. But this region is not naturally unhealthy. On the whole, it is attractive country, with pleasant climatic conditions and delightful trade-winds which blow across the isthmus day and night. The whole story is summed up in the fact that temperature, rainfall and local water supply happen to be favorable to the development of the stegomyia and anopheles mosquitoes. Add to this the centuries of sojourning whites and you have forces which would have produced similar conditions in any part of the world where the altitude is less than 2,000 feet, the minimum temperature not less than 60 degrees Fahrenheit and the rainfall more than thirty inches.

The construction of the Panama Railroad was started in 1850 and completed in 1855. This railroad practically follows the former route across the isthmus.

The large force engaged in building this road suffered so severely from tropical diseases that work had to be stopped several times. The un-



OLD PORTO BELLO

favorable health conditions were looked upon by the authorities as the principal obstacles to be overcome. Laborers from various countries were imported to see which could best stand the climate. At one time many Irish, Italians and Chinese were brought over. In less than a month the ranks were thinned out to a mere handful. Everything possible was done for the Chinese, as great results were expected from them, but they, too, died off rapidly. History says that every railroad tie means a dead Chinaman; but this is not true because there were 100,000 ties between Panama and Colon, and the forces never numbered more than 6,000 or 8,000 men. After experimenting with labor from various

no sewer system, neither was there any provision for garbage disposal. Refuse was thrown into the streets to decay and attract all kinds of vermin. A small hospital was built for Panama Railroad employees, and was in charge of the Sisters of Charity.

A great deal has been said about the mistakes that were made by the French, about their manner of living, etc., but our experience on the isthmus readily showed that the greatest blow to the French company was the lack of sanitation. If modern knowledge of sanitation and disease had been possessed at that time it is possible that France herself might have built the canal. She did accomplish a great deal. Some



OLD PORTO BELLO

It was this sort of thing which made this ancient town the first center of infection for yellow fever and malaria.

countries, it was finally proved that West Indians most effectively withstood the climate.

The diseases during this time were fevers of various types. "Chagres fever" was rank everywhere and yellow fever had been sporadic on the isthmus for a long time. Smallpox had been abroad occasionally, and many foreigners wrought their own destruction through drink.

The water supply consisted of rain water caught in tanks or barrels during the rainy season and held for use during the dry. These tanks were not covered and hence made an excellent breeding place for the yellow fever mosquito. Later a small reservoir was built to supply water for the railroad only. There was

of the final plans have been followed, and much of the machinery, data and some of the buildings are still in use, while the charts and river gauges have been extremely valuable.

M. de Lesseps asked Dr. Louis Campanyo, who was the medical advisor for the French Canal Company, to submit a "Service of Health" for use during the construction of the Panama Canal. This "Service of Health" is very interesting to us now. It was curative rather than preventive.

His idea was to gather the laborers in centers in the more healthful localities removed from their work. Later these groups became centers for yellow fever and malaria. Swamps were





BEFORE—

The first of these pictures shows a street in Panama City as it was when Americans came. The second shows the same street as it is to-day.



AND AFTER

to be cultivated with trees and plants requiring a large quantity of water, such as the eucalyptus and all kinds of gum trees. Then the medicinal properties of these trees were to be used in treating fevers.

In the fear that snake bites might give them much trouble, relief stations for the treating of snake bites were to be established along the line of the canal. They were to build hospitals and a sanitarium where employes were to be treated by Parisian surgeons.

Now, what was really done toward sanitation was the construction of a sanitarium at Taboga Island, a large hospital at Ancon and a smaller hospital at Colon. All of these hospitals were in charge of the Sisters of Charity.

The hospitals soon became infected with yellow fever, as the legs of the beds were placed in jars of water to keep the ants away. Each of these jars became a potential breeding place for the deadly *stegomyia* mosquito. They bit the infected man on the bed and then flew off to disseminate the disease far and wide. Very soon the white French employes refused to go to the hospitals, preferring to remain in their own quarters. One can see the causes for the frightful losses of the French by yellow fever and malaria. It is estimated that 22,000 died from these diseases.

There are no means of getting at the accurate death rate for that time, as no general records were kept until the American occupation. But some basis for comparison can be obtained by taking the records of the Ancon Hospital, which were accurately kept.

Thus, besides the construction of the hospitals, nothing was done for sanitation. No sewers or water supplies were constructed. Streets and alleys were used as open sewers, and rain water, caught in barrels or tanks, served as the water supply.

The Americans took possession of what is known as the "canal strip" in the spring of 1904. According to the treaty, the Republic of Panama

gave us sanitary control over the Canal Zone, and also over the cities of Panama and Colon. This treaty gave the United States the right to construct sewer systems and water supplies through the cities of Panama and Colon and to be reimbursed for the money spent in doing it.

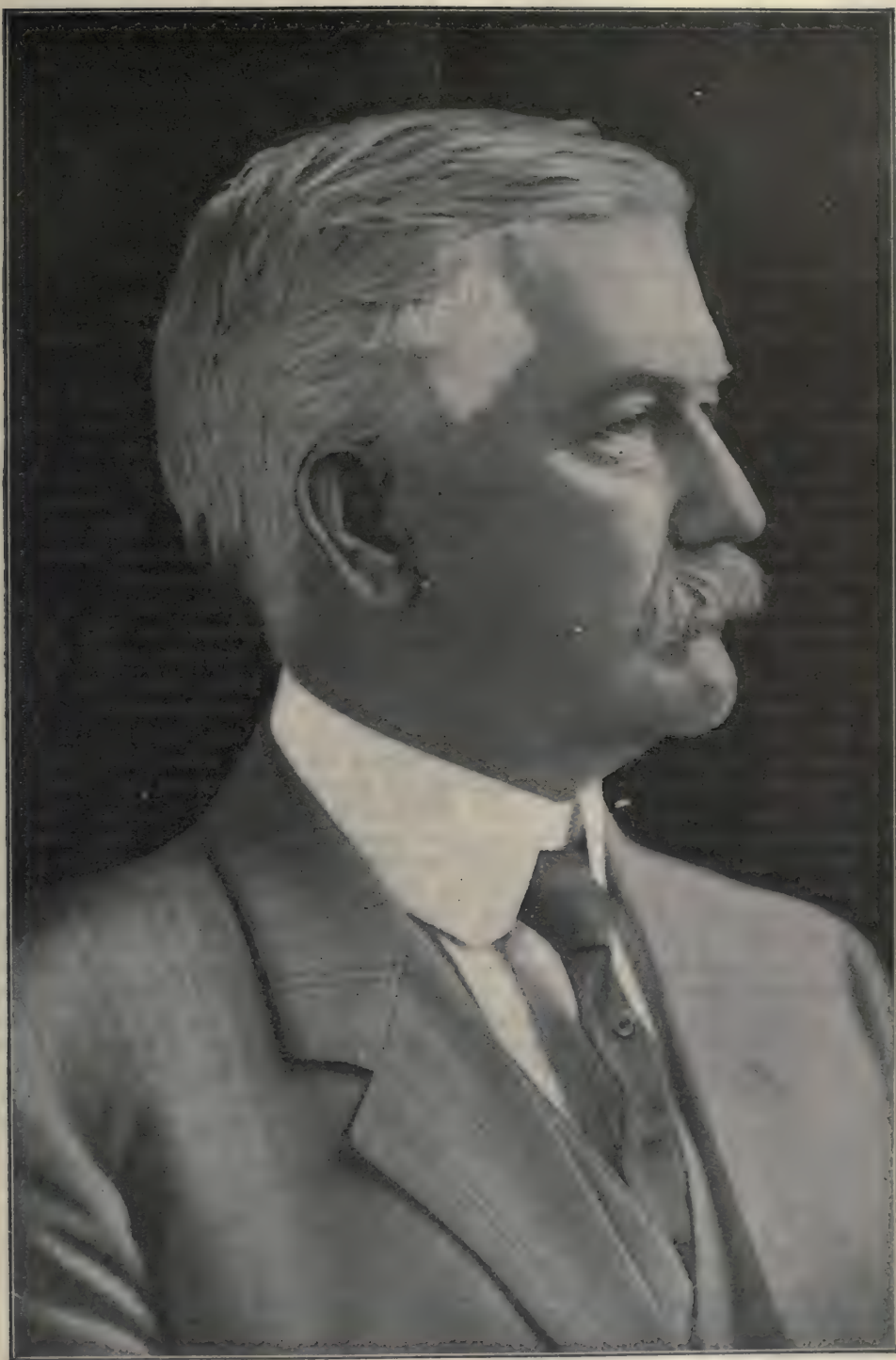
The experience of their predecessors, who had built the railroad and who had attempted to construct the canal, convinced the sanitary department that unless it could protect the forces against yellow fever and malaria, the men digging the canal could never accomplish the work. Such sanitary measures, then, as could control these two diseases, were the necessary preliminaries to starting the construction of the canal.

Previous to this Colonel W. C. Gorgas, the chief sanitary officer, had just completed the cleaning up of Havana and had freed it from yellow fever. He was ordered to take charge of the sanitary work on the isthmus.

One of the first things that Colonel Gorgas did was to make a sanitary survey of the field. By this means he found that conditions on the isthmus were radically different from those in Havana. The work here was much more scattered than in Cuba. It took sixteen months to rid the isthmus of yellow fever, whereas it had taken only seven months to rid Cuba of the disease. This is explained by the fact that the sanitary department had been established and running in Havana for two years when yellow fever prevention was first commenced there.

In organizing the sanitary work, Colonel Gorgas early established an efficient maritime sanitary service. This was necessary, since on the west coast of South America there were many ports infected with plague and several with yellow fever. On the Atlantic side, both above and below the isthmus, were ports infected with yellow fever.

The hospital division was organized with two main hospitals, one at Ancon and a smaller one at Colon. Twenty-five small hospitals or dispensaries were placed along the line.



#### THE FOE OF STEGOMYIA AND ANOPHELES

Col. William C. Gorgas, who freed Cuba of yellow fever in seven months, performed the same service for Panama in sixteen months. In the latter place he had to begin with a sanitary survey and practically establish his own sanitary department. As a result of the anti-malarial fight on the isthmus the sick rate decreased from 6.83 per cent in 1906 to 1.54 per cent in 1911. Colonel Gorgas is chief sanitary officer of the Isthmian Canal Commission.





JULY 1, 1910—

Both pictures show Hudson Lane, Colon. The open sewerage ditch in the first was only recently replaced by the paving in the second.



A LITTLE LATER

The health division of the isthmus was and is under the care of J. A. LePrince, sanitary engineer, who had charge of the mosquito work in Havana. Coming to the isthmus well informed as to the habits of mosquitoes, he has accomplished a remarkable piece of work there.

The first work attempted was to rid Panama and Colon of yellow fever, or in other words to do away with the *stegomyia* mosquito. To do this it was necessary to provide a water supply as soon as possible, and before a pipe-borne system could be established it was necessary to screen and put faucets in every water barrel. Along with this work, every possible breeding place for mosquitoes was destroyed.

The work went slowly at first because so many things had to be done at once, and the people back in the states were saying that they wanted "to see the dirt fly." The commission, anxious to make a showing with the people, tried very hard to make the "dirt fly" at the same time, considering the sanitary work as a secondary matter. Thus, by the early part of 1905, a considerable number of non-immunes had come to the isthmus and yellow fever had begun to affect the force generally. Already many of the people looked upon the mosquito theory as a failure. Lack of supplies had prevented the sanitary de-

partment from making a blanket fumigation until at this time. However, with a thorough fumigation and the installation of a pipe-borne water supply, the epidemic of yellow fever was wiped out by December, 1905. The total number of cases was 246. Among these were 133 employees. The total number of deaths was 84; among these were 35 employees.

Judging by the alarm caused by the comparatively mild epidemic of 1905, there is no doubt that if the American force had had the same amount of yellow fever that the French had, the work of constructing the canal would have been stopped on account of lack of men.

Having wiped out yellow fever, the attention of the sanitary department was now drawn to reducing the amount of malaria. One-third of the canal runs through a low, alluvial and marshy plain, and the other two-thirds through a hilly and mountainous country. Along the banks of the little rivulets which run everywhere the anopheles, or malarial mosquitoes, breed just as well as in a marshy level country and the general infection of the population by malaria causes most of the anopheles near human inhabitants to become infected. By actual microscopic examination of the blood of several hundreds of these people it was found that 70 per cent of them had the malarial parasite circulating in their blood.

The results of the anti-malarial work from 1906, when the fight was just beginning to be effective, to 1912 shows a reduction in sick rate of from 6.83 per cent. to 1.54 per cent. in 1911. Besides this there were 283 deaths from malaria in 1906 among employees and only 50 in 1910. This excellent showing of the sanitary department represents a great saving in labor and the cost of treatment. The efficiency of the force has been increased through not being sickly or anemic.

At the same time we have anti-plague, anti-typhoid fever and anti-dysentery work going on, with a result of no plague, a typhoid rate almost nil and a low dysentery rate.



READY TO BURN  
A garbage dump at Colon, Panama.

The cost of sanitation on the Isthmus of Panama, as shown by Colonel Gorgas in a paper read in June, 1910, before the American Society of Tropical Medicine, is two and one-half cents per capita per day for medical and hospital treatment, and for sanitation alone only nine mills per day. This amount is well within the financial ability of any tropical community.

The results of sanitation have been the conversion of a territory, known for several hundred years as the worst kind of pest hole, into a delightful health resort, and the demonstration to the world that the white man can live and work in any part of the tropics and maintain good health. All this has been done at an expense which could reasonably be met by any country.

Another interesting thing which may result from this work is the probability that the tropics will resume their place as the forcing-beds of human progress, having lost this position through the devastation of disease.

No other President has had the opportunity to observe personally the results of scientific

sanitation that President Taft, as secretary of war, had in the Philippines, in Cuba, in Porto Rico and in the Canal Zone. In an address before the Medical Club of Philadelphia, in 1911, he said:

It is not too much to say that yellow fever and malaria contributed more than any cause to the failure of the French. Is not such a record one on which we can dwell with international pride?

The sanitation of the isthmus adds another triumph for the army and navy to their activities in the orient and the tropics. If the Spanish-American War and the resultant activities of our army and navy in the orient and tropics did nothing else, the loss of life and money associated with them were more than repaid by the advantages brought to this world at large by the eliminating of some of the tropical scourges that through centuries have been a puzzle and despair of mankind.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>The writer wishes to express his thanks to Colonel G. W. Goethals, chairman Isthmian Canal Commission, for permission to publish this article and to Colonel W. C. Gorgas, chief sanitary officer, for his kindness in assisting the writer to procure data on the sanitary work.

## THE ITALIAN WORKMEN OF AMERICA TO AMERICANS

EDITH WALLER<sup>1</sup>

*Give us a chance! We are men!  
Not "wops and dagocs" base;  
Cease with your names that would disgrace.—  
The blood in our veins of an ancient race  
Flows proud and fiery free;  
Your scorn does ye debase.*

*Give us a chance! We are men!  
Know ye the past whence we come?  
Back of us Rome, the glory of Rome!  
St. Peter's embracing dome,  
The law and art of the world,  
Have ye a name like Rome?*

*Give us a chance! We are men!  
Forth our Columbus bold,  
Braving defcats untold,  
Out of the seas of darkness old,  
Brought light to your continent new  
For ye to have and hold.*

*Give us a chance! We are men!  
To-day Marconi stands  
And weaves the nations' strands,  
Annihilates seas and lands,  
Holds elements in thrall  
To make the worlds join hands.*

*Give us a chance! We are men!  
Not earthworms born of the soil,  
We would upbuild not despoil,  
Faithful and earnest we toil;  
But music and beauty, life's pulsing joy,  
Are ours above the moil.*

*Americans! We are men!  
Strong bodies with souls of flame;  
Where ye can progress claim  
Help us to win the same,  
Give us a chance, but a chance—  
Forget not Italy's name!*

<sup>1</sup>Miss Waller is the author of English for Italians.



# SOCIAL WEEK AT ZURICH

CHARLES R. HENDERSON

THE "social week" at Zurich last month was the fruition of plans laid a year ago at Ghent to bring together representatives of the four principal international associations which have been formed to promote legislation and improved administration in the interest of wage-earners. It has become evident that time and expense can be saved by holding such conferences near together, and that duplication and conflict can thus be reduced to a vanishing point. The spirit of co-operation manifest here is admirable and a sure augury of united and successful action.

The first meeting was that of the International Committee on Unemployment which held its first congress at Paris in 1910 and will organize the second for Ghent in 1913 during the exposition. The minister of labor of France, M. Leon Bourgeois, assisted by Imperial Councillor Dr. Freund, presided in his charming manner. Seventeen countries, including all the principal nations of Europe and the United States, were represented. Lee K. Frankel was the regular delegate for the United States, J. B. Andrews and Prof. C. R. Henderson being alternates of Professors Farnam and Devine and having also been appointed spokesmen for the American Association for Labor Legislation. M. L. Varley of Ghent is secretary, M. Max Lazard of Paris is secretary-adjoint and editor of the bulletin of the association; M. E. Anseele, deputy in the Belgian Parliament, is treasurer.

Among the principal speakers were: Prof. G. von Mayr, the distinguished statistician; M. Arthur Fontaine of the French Council of State and director in the Department of Labor; Prof. Raoul Jay of the Faculty of Law at Paris; Dr. Georg Zacher, imperial councillor of Germany, and Professor Mischler, court councillor of Austria.

Carefully prepared and printed reports were in the hands of each delegate before the sessions; each speaker was obliged to discuss the propositions actually before the meeting, and set speeches were excluded, though some of those delivered were too long. The first business was the discussion of schedules and procedure for a uniform and scientific collection of facts in regard to employment agencies under the leadership of Drs. Freund and Zacher. The proposed schedules were examined line by line, amended and adopted. A report was also offered by E. Szabo, city librarian of Budapest, and M. Varlez on the compilation of a bibliography on unem-

ployment.<sup>1</sup> A report of M. Varlez showed the present state of statistics on unemployment in different countries and offered suggestions for their improvement. C. P. Neill, United States commissioner of labor, was ably represented by Mr. Verrill of the Bureau of Labor. Mr. Somogyi of Budapest urged the importance of local studies of unemployment, and the general sentiment was favorable to the organization of such investigations in which business men, trade unions, public officials and university seminars should co-operate so far as possible.

M. Treub of Holland led the discussion of the subject of public works in relation to unemployment. The national, state and municipal governments are themselves great employers of labor. Webb (*vide* Prevention of Destitution), Beveridge and others have urged that the contracts for public work and the direct employment of workmen might be so arranged as to diminish the amount of suffering from enforced idleness.

Perhaps the discussion which will most interest Americans was that on emigration and immigration, presented by Mr. Ferenczi of Budapest. The international association received an instructive report from L. Marchette which throws much light on the extent and consequences of the emigration of Italian laborers. All agreed that migration is a necessity, that each nation has the right to restrict and regulate it so far as self-protection requires, but that when immigrants are received it is the duty of the government to assure to them protection against exploitation and injustice. Here the national organization of labor exchanges is evidently of vital moment.

The representatives of the American Association for Labor Legislation, in accordance with their instructions, drew up by-laws for an American section of the International Association on Unemployment and these by-laws were accepted by the committee of the latter body. Thus the way is clear for a form of co-operation which will give to various movements to promote legislation a common center, an expert secretary, and yet preserve the advantages of specialization.

## Homeworkers' Conference

The International Association for Household Industries, the second body to hold its conference, has a somewhat different constituency and order of business. In this congress one meets

<sup>1</sup>Titles of books, documents and reports of American origin may be sent to J. B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York City to be forwarded.



many women, factory inspectors, priests interested in the material well-being of humble parishioners, representatives of trade unions and consumers' leagues, as well as public functionaries and university professors. The president is Professor Brandts of Belgium, a land of small industries. The first section plunged at once into the problems of minimum wage boards. Four languages were spoken, with résumés by an admirable interpreter. There is great advantage in stopping discussion after each speech or reading of a resolution to hear the same thoughts expressed in a second language, in that there is time for critical reflection on the matter at issue. And it is curious to see the effect on the excitable Frenchman of a more quiet address by a German; the Celtic oxygen is too combustible alone and gains by suitable mixture with Teutonic nitrogen. A Belgian committee had drawn up a model bill for a law on minimum wage boards which was considerably battered in the course of a lively debate, during which twenty people sometimes talked at the same time, especially if the orator on the platform was tiresome.

The influence of the Australian and English legislation on minimum wage boards is marked and decisive, though some German criticisms were heard. The second section recommended careful investigation of the conditions of home workers as the foundation of further action. It insisted that the household workers shall be protected by sanitary measures and public inspection, and that the advantages of existing laws and insurance be extended to this class. The interests of consumers must also be considered. No food or tobacco should be made in homes; contagious diseases should be notified; thorough disinfection should be provided for, and when materials of value must be destroyed or wages are lost in the interest of public health, indemnity should be paid.

The third section brought in resolutions relating to the action of trade unions and collective bargaining and urging the organization of such associations and co-operation with consumers' leagues. The fourth section offered recommendations on the subject of the aid of consumers in protecting home workers.

### *Social Insurance*

Unfortunately the Association on Social Insurance and the various sections of the Association for the Legal Protection of Workmen met at the same time so that no one person could follow the entire discussion. It was possible, however, to attend the final sessions where all the conclusions of special committees were discussed and voted in general assemblies.

In the conference on social insurance the following topics were discussed, elaborate printed reports being furnished each delegate, accompanied by brief summaries: (1) the extension of obligatory insurance to persons of better income and social position; (2) insurance supplementary to the compulsory insurance through voluntary organization; (3) the financial burden of social insurance; (4) international statistics

of accidents; (5) petty accidents. The masterly address of Professor Paloty emphasized two points: (a) those who do not depend on wages for a living and yet need insurance should either be required to take advantage of the obligatory arrangements or at least be permitted to do so; (b) so far as such persons are excluded from the obligatory arrangements they should have access to a voluntary form of insurance not only supervised by the state but actually assisted. Two yet unreconciled tendencies came to light, one favorable to voluntary organization, the other to compulsory laws. As agreement could not yet be reached the subject was referred to a special commission for further investigation and future reports.

Dr. Bulefeldt of Lubeck defended the following propositions:

(1) Compulsory insurance is designed to furnish the foundation of security of life for those who have little more than what is absolutely necessary for existence in such emergencies as sickness, accident, invalidism, old age and death of the bread-winners. (2) Improvement of the conditions of those of small means who receive rather better incomes must be gained by the development of voluntary insurance. (3) Although considerable freedom should be given in respect to the method and extent of insurance, yet it is desirable to supplement compulsory with voluntary insurance. (4) The obligatory machinery should be employed when possible, but every facility furnished for extending voluntary insurance. (5) In the administration of private insurance companies expenses should be as low as possible, and the principle of savings should be joined with that of insurance so as to give the insured a choice between them. (6) These arrangements should be fostered by the government, by employers and by philanthropic societies. (7) Persons who are not under legal obligation to insure should have free access to the institutions of the public and those who have the minimum of compulsory insurance should find it easy to increase their protection. (8) Private insurance institutions should be so developed as to equal the public offices and special conveniences be added, as facilities for changing the profits, sharing profits, credits for loans, prevention of lapses, preventive measures against sickness, use of capital funds for building dwellings, etc.

Perhaps for Americans, the address of Dr. Freund was of greatest interest. He referred to a pamphlet which ought to be translated and given widest publicity by our Bureau of Labor: *The Burden of Social Insurance in Germany* by Dr. F. Zann. In view of the widespread circulation of a one-sided and destructive criticism of obligatory insurance the intelligent and constructive book of W. H. Dawson, *Social Insurance in Germany*, deserves general attention.

The conference has decided to hold the next Congress on Social Insurance at Washington in 1915, the official approval of our federal legislature having come to our knowledge at Zurich through a dispatch from the Department of State to M. Poincaré, president of the International Association on Social Insurance. It is too late



to prepare for a meeting of this magnitude and importance in another year. By 1915 the new and improved German law will show its results in statistics, and we in the United States, it is to be hoped, will have struggled out of our Bedlam of inconsistent and hasty legislation, have a federal law and be able to offer more than mere promises to pay, drawn on the bank of our hopes and boasts.

### *Labor Legislation*

The number of American representatives present at the conference of the International Association for Labor Legislation was naturally large: C. H. Vevill of the Bureau of Labor, Mr. and Mrs. J. B. Andrews, V. von Borosini, Charles M. Cabot, Lee K. Frankel, Ernst Freund, Maud B. Hoyt, Carl E. Perry, Mary C. Wiggin, and C. R. Henderson. The array of titles from Germany was appalling, but the men themselves were genial persons and would be welcome as agreeable gentlemen in Boston or Chicago. "Excellence," "Privy Councillor," "Lord" and "Marquis" are just earnest and friendly persons of high ability who wish to serve their fellowmen. They are too great to have grand airs. By their side are distinguished representatives of science, known the world over in medical circles. Basel, with the able and indefatigable Professor Bauer as director, has become the world center for information in regard to the protection of workers. This office publishes the *Bulletin* already well known in its English edition in America.

The members of this conference were divided, according to their choice, into five "commissions," each of which labored over a particular problem: (1) general business of the international association; (2) occupational diseases; (3) home industries and minimum wage boards; (4) hours of labor and periods of rest; (5) insurance of workmen, child labor and administration of labor laws.

In our commission, in a wave of courtesy, it was seriously proposed by one member from central Europe that the reports should be published not only in French, German and English but also in the *American* language!

Among the items of the report from the first commission was the grateful recognition of the action of several governments which have prohibited the use of poisonous phosphorus in the manufacture of matches. "The association wishes on this occasion to thank the American section again for their zealous work in promoting this legislation." The commission also recommended co-operation with the associations on unemployment and insurance. It was decided to hold the next delegates' meeting in Basel in 1914.

The second commission gave information on

industrial diseases, called attention to the list of poisons presented by Drs. Sommerfeld, Fischer and Teleky, asked for further studies of lead poisoning, ferrosilican, caisson disease and anthrax, and of the statistics of occupational diseases and mortality.

The report of the third commission covered the same ground and reached in the main the same conclusions as the conference on domestic industries. The minimum wage boards were approved and their organization was outlined. The truck system and the imposition of fines were condemned. Methods of protecting persons engaged in the making of embroidery were approved.

The recommendations of the fourth commission were also adopted without much change: approval of the eight-hour shift in continuous industries (where work continues day and night), especially in iron and steel plants; in glassworks a working week of fifty-six hours on an average with an uninterrupted weekly rest of twenty-four hours; introduction of the three-shift principle in other similar industries as rapidly as possible. It was decided to push inquiries in regard to the needed protection of railway employees in respect to fatigue, accidents, settlement of disputes and sickness. The members of the American Association for Labor Legislation who are also subscribers to the *Bulletin* will receive the English translation of all the papers and proceedings of this inspiring and instructive conference of delegates.

The Union of International Associations, being the union of all the international societies, is one of vast extent and very general aim. Its central office is at Brussels, Belgium (3 bis, rue de la Régence). The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace has given it life and force by an annual subsidy of 75,000 francs.

At a luncheon given by the Bureau of the International Association for Labor Legislation to representatives of the two other great bodies the discussion turned on a plan of co-ordinating the work of the three organizations for protection, insurance and the combat with unemployment, and of organizing societies in countries where the great industry is just beginning, as in India, China, Japan and South America. It was a little trying to the nerves of an American to see that the United States is put in a category with rather backward countries, although it is admitted that latterly we have joined the procession of peoples who believe that governments are agencies of justice, morality and humanity. The effort of our own American Association for Labor Legislation to unify all movements in the interest of wage-earners is in line with the cordial agreement reached at this meeting of officers of all the three international societies in this field.

# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 2

October 12, 1912

## HOME ENGINEERING A "BACK TO THE HOME" MOVEMENT

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*Probate Judge, Ada County, Idaho*

WITH COMMENT BY

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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**I**T was a reduction in hours that brought about the decreased pay that caused the successful Lawrence strike. New York manufacturers employing women face a situation identical with that which the Massachusetts mill owners met by cutting down wages. P. 51.

**N**EXT to air, water is perhaps the most universal sustainer of life. How about it, then, when the sources where thousands daily drink become breeding places of disease, or are abolished altogether? The problem is one for both men and horses to think about. Pp. 54, 55.

**S**OME brass-tack discussion took place at the Catholic Conference of Charities. P. 57.

**H**OW can homes be made so pleasant that fathers, mothers and especially children will be attracted to them? Some interesting answers to a question seriously put. P. 60.

**I**NCIDENTAL to a plea for an international conference on the cost of living was Professor Fisher's suggestion at Boston of one way to stop the universal rise in prices. His plan is to restore the *seigniorage* on gold; in other words, to supply a stable unit of purchasing power by virtually increasing the weight of the gold dollar by increasing the weight of the bulion on which it is based. P. 52.

**F**REEING itself from the technical trade topics which usually narrow discussions of commercial bodies, this international group of business experts before which Professor Fisher spoke came out enthusiastically, though to be sure with a recognition of self-interest, for world peace and international arbitration. P. 54.

**W**OMAN, Socialism and the coming elections divide honors in the October magazines. P. 58.

**"I**N the United States, which as a nation is very young, it is necessary to its growth that its feverish preoccupation with material affairs shall be counter-balanced by a great literary and philosophic literature, which would penetrate more and more deeply among your people through the influence of an élite of thoughtful men.

"To think is itself a form of action, and, in a sense, a superior form of it. It is this discovery which America could make with supreme advantage to herself."—PIERRE LOTI.

**"T**HE time-spirit now, and for some two centuries past, seems to have chosen to take under its particular guardianship the physical and natural sciences, their cultivation and applications rather than philosophy or architecture or sculpture, or painting or literature. We shall do well to recognize this, and not waste our resources in striving to fight against it." [Prof. Alfred Senior, of Dublin, quoted by Charles W. Eliot in answer to Pierre Loti.]

## THE SURVEY

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# THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

VOLUME XXIX, No. 2

OCTOBER 12, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### SHORTER HOURS IN NEW YORK FACTORIES

On October 1 a fifty-four hour law for women went into effect in New York industries. This is a law similar to the Massachusetts statute which became operative January last and which, like a gong, set going the labor struggle at Lawrence which ultimately put the burden of the change on the textile companies. The outcome in New York of adjusting the pay to the new weekly schedule will be watched with more than ordinary interest.

The human significance of the change is well illustrated by an incident related by an agent of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission.<sup>1</sup> Violet Pike tells of finding a young girl leaning against a wall in a factory which worked eleven hours a day for five days, keeping within the sixty-hour law by a Saturday half holiday. "It's an awful long day," she said. When she was told of the effort that was being made to shorten the legal hours for women workers, the answer came: "They just can't do it quick enough for me." This girl was one of many to whom their ten hours' work has meant twelve or thirteen hours away from home, and whose home life was summed up in Miss Pike's report in the words: "Go to bed right after supper, too tired to go out."

The fifty-four hour law is designed to benefit such workers in health; it is not designed to injure them "in estate." It will affect workers employed in sixteen of the twenty classified

factory industries given in the Census Bulletin (1910) for New York state.

In these workshops women work side by side with men, in some cases in the same processes with them, in others in processes on which the men's work is dependent. The percentage of women in all industries taken together is thirty. In seven, more than 50 per cent of the workers are women. In only five industries is the proportion of women less than a quarter, and in only three, is the percentage of women workers negligible. Thus the working day for whole ranges of manufacture is to a great extent dependent on the schedule of the women workers. A majority of the more than a million New York state factory workers, male and female, will, like the factory workers of Massachusetts, be affected by the shorter legal work-day. The question is, will they also, like the Massachusetts workers, be expected to lose six hours' pay out of their weekly envelopes? In the textile centers of New York, since the new law was passed, representatives of the Women's Trade Union League have reported uneasiness and rumors of a cut to fit the law. Especially has this been true of the Utica district where the knit goods industry, exclusive of cotton and other textiles, alone employs six thousand workers. The unrest in Utica dates from an unsuccessful strike of last March which left but a small organization of workers behind it. The grievances alleged are many, among them a tacit agreement among the piece workers that none of them should claim in any week, whatever her output, more than ten dollars pay, be-

<sup>1</sup>Violet Pike in Appendix IV (Condition of Women Factory Workers in New York State) of the Report of the State Factory Investigating Commission.





cause of the dread, based on past experiences, of a cut in the piece rates which would "sweat" all workers to keep abreast of their former earnings. In such a situation, it has been predicted that unless there is a corresponding increase of rates, to overcome the loss of 6 hours' working time, there is bound to be a flare up among the workers, just as in Massachusetts, whenever a short envelope puts in an appearance. A mill superintendent was recently quoted to the effect that he "was afraid there would be trouble when the help went on an eight hour day." In an interview with a Utica manufacturer, a representative of the Woman's Trade Union League was told that as the previous laws regulating women's work had fallen on the employer, it was the workers' turn this time. "The law," he said, "has not treated us square. This time it is up to the workers." A telegram in the *New York Times* from its Utica correspondent reported as follows:

"Wherever possible, men will be allowed to work sixty hours per week. There will be no change in wages, and those whose hours of labor are reduced, must stand the loss.

"Some of the mills have been running five days a week for some time, and conditions are such that if a strike is threatened the mills will be closed."

The experience of the world, as Josephine Goldmark's *Fatigue and Efficiency* has demonstrated, goes to show that the short-hour day is

perhaps the most important health measure to be taken in the interests of a generation of working women; state after state may be expected to enact such protective legislation; the question as it confronts women in the flesh is whether its inauguration is at the expense of a short pocketbook—or a long strike, which comes to the same thing.

#### MEN OF COMMERCE AND THE COST OF LIVING

At the concluding session of the Fifth International Congress of the Chambers of Commerce and Commercial and Industrial Associations, held in Boston week before last, Professor Irving Fisher of Yale presented the report of his committee favoring an international conference with reference to the cost of living. The congress adopted unanimously his report which emphasized the necessity for full and exact information as to rising and falling prices, crises and depressions, phenomena of business affecting the problem of the rising cost of living. The action in the United States Congress providing for such a conference, to be called by the President was endorsed.

The international congress, in its deliberations, recognized that the time has come when business men need a stable unit of purchasing power just as they have a stable unit of length, weight, energy, electricity, etc. The proposed conference of nations would consider methods of im-





### LAWRENCE DEMONSTRATION STRIKE

Lawrence has added another chapter to American industrial unrest in the twenty-four hour demonstration strike, which crippled the mills on September 30. The strike was called, not because of grievances, but to show while their trial was pending that the Lawrence workers consider the imprisonment of Ettor and Giovanitti unjust. First came a leaderless, irresponsible walk-out on September 26 which, despite the protest of the imprisoned men, grew until 12,000 had quit work; then the open air meeting, shown on the opposite page, which voted the twenty-four hour demonstration strike. Carlo Tresca, the middle figure in the adjoining group, an I. W. W. leader from the Pittsburgh district, was active in its direction.

The day following, the English speaking community at Lawrence had a chance to express themselves in the special election for school committeemen when John J. Breen, who had confessed to planting dynamite to destroy the strikers, was up for re-election. He was overwhelmingly defeated.

At Salem, meanwhile, a venire of 350 jurors has been exhausted and the trial of the two immigrant leaders postponed until October 14.

proving our knowledge as to the actual cost of living in various countries, the causes which have increased this cost, and the remedies which might be applied. It was further recognized that as the convulsions in prices and the consequent disturbance to business are worldwide, only an inquiry of international scope can reach the true causes and remedies.

One remedy suggested by Professor Fisher for the unstable purchasing power of money was similar to a suggestion once made by Governor Woodrow Wilson. It is virtually (although not literally) to increase the weight of the gold dollar by increasing the weight of the bullion on which it is based. The gold miner would be required to take more than 25.8 grains of gold to the mint in order to secure a dollar of gold which weighs 25.8 grains, the present weight. The coined dollar would remain unchanged, but the "bullion dollar," as Professor Fisher called it, would become heavier. The difference between the two would be *seigniorage*; in other words, Professor Fisher's plan is to restore the *seigniorage* on gold. But he goes farther in that this *seigniorage* is not to be fixed once for all, but is to be continually adjusted so that the "bullion dollar" shall always retain the same purchasing power.

The official index number of prices like that now constructed by the Bureau of Labor will show from time to time what the *seigniorage* is to be. If the index number shows that the price

level has risen a certain per cent, the *seigniorage* will automatically go up that amount.

In his remarks upon his report, Professor Fisher pointed out the lack of exact statistics available; that while many nations prepared index numbers of price levels, few of them were really valuable and almost none of them were comparable because of the different methods of averaging such statistics. It was, therefore, apparent that, even if the proposed conference should restrict itself to an investigation simply of the facts involved, and should consider neither the causes nor the remedies for such high prices, that work in itself would be sufficient justification for it. Exact knowledge must ever be the true basis for sound discussion and legislation. Moreover, an increase of knowledge of the facts involved would of itself contribute to a knowledge of causes, and it was not denied that a conference in which all parts of the world present information and points of view would aid in creating a truer perspective.

While the congress unanimously approved of the idea of such an international conference, it did not feel that it lay within its province to endorse the remedy suggested by Professor Fisher, or any other remedy. The discussion of that economist's report emphasized the belief that the higher and increased standard of living, the law of supply and demand, which had answered to a demand for commodities far in excess of that of any previous generation, had



also tended toward a higher cost of living, and that it was as essential to consider these facts at this proposed conference as the character of the standard of value.

The attitude of the congress toward this and other questions generally regarded as purely commercial is well characterized by the remarks of President Russell of the Boston Chamber of Commerce in introducing President Taft at the evening banquet. President Russell said:

"They (the delegates) truly represent all that is foremost and best in commercial activities, and commercial activities are no longer confined to the narrow realm that marked the past. Today, the grave questions that occupy your attention, the broadest and most far-reaching, are such great questions as that of conservation, and I do not mean the mere conservation of mines, of forests, and of forest streams, but all that pertains to the conservation of human life, of human health, and of human energy is regarded as of supreme importance in all commercial conferences."

#### INTERNATIONAL PEACE CHEERED

While the sessions of the congress considered many questions of technical interest to such trade bodies, yet there ran through the entire discussion a strong sentiment in favor of international peace, of international courts of arbitration for the settlement not only of controversies between governments, but between individuals and governments. This sentiment increased in strength throughout the week, and reached a climax in two events of more than ordinary significance. The first was when Monsieur Louis Canon Legrand of Brussels—who was the first president of the International Congress and is now president again—took the floor at the last session and presented this resolution:

"The congress affirms its desire to see established as soon as possible an international official conference which will ensure between nations the existence of arbitral courts, established in the broadest sense, and of a nature to ensure an equitable solution of all international disputes, whether between citizens of different states or between states. And the congress declares adherence to the principle of a combination of nations when and where it may be thought advisable to act whenever possible to avert the atrocities of war."

The distinguished president himself moved the adoption of the resolution, and he was seconded by representatives from many nations. The resolution was adopted unanimously amid great enthusiasm.

Another illustration of the dominant sentiment of the congress was the reception afforded the address of President Taft at the banquet which concluded the sessions of the congress. World peace, in one form or another, was the thought

in every speech at this banquet—peace that business might prosper, peace that the waste of armies and fleets might be saved, peace through arbitration, peace for the sake of the strugglers for existence. Every American voiced the hope, every European held forth the belief, that peace is coming, and coming through the broad-minded selfishness of commerce. It was as if the sentiment had grown steadily all through the sessions of the week, and now, when business had been laid aside, demanded to be heard. And when the President of the United States said:

"I believe we must have some solution of the problem that arises and some escape in the future from the burden that is imposed by this increasing armament of nations. And you will never have the solution until you have furnished some means of certainly and honorably settling every international controversy, whether of honor or vital interest, by a court upon which all nations may rely. And if, as I believe, meetings like this stimulate the desire and the determination to reach some such result, I hope they may continue year after year until the dawn of permanent peace shall be with us,"

the distinguished guests, representing almost every civilized nation in the world, broke into a tumult of applause, leaping to their feet, waving handkerchiefs, and crying, "Good, good—hear, hear—bravo, bravo!"



#### A DRINK OF COLD WATER

The fountains of Park are its pride; the fountains of New York, for man and beast, are a reproach to its citizens, judging from a recent investigation by the Bureau of Municipal Research.<sup>1</sup>

Inspection of two-thirds of the 200 free fountains for human beings in Manhattan showed half to be unfit for use. Of these, twenty-nine were entirely dry during the hot summer months. As for the other half, the sanitary ordinance of January 30, 1912 abolished the common drinking-cup, but contained no provision for a substitute, with the result that citizens can now, in many cases, get a drink only by turning themselves "wrong side up" and drinking from the faucet. It is true that Park Commissioner Stover has given orders that "where it is impossible to get the head under," the faucet itself shall be turned "wrong side up." But even so, only thirty-five bubblers were found, all told, and of these fifteen were unfit for use; in the vast majority of the fountains the faucet itself, so placed that it

<sup>1</sup>See p. 55.



does not get the wash of the water, has become a very inconvenient and dangerous common drinking-cup.

One of the charity fountains supplies paper cups at a cent apiece, but this is no more a free drink than the Cent-a-Drink supplies, with no pretensions at charity. The Cent-a-Drink, incidentally, appears to be thriving, and no wonder, for in such centers as City Hall and Battery Parks it competes with a free fountain having "three faucets, one dry, the other merely dripping" in the latter park, and in the former, it has no competitor at all.

In addition to their inadequacy in supplying what the public needs, the bureau notes the bad sanitary condition and evident neglect of practically all the fountains.

"Fountains are neglected," says the report, "in spite of the fact that inspectors are around them all the time, who should see that they are clean, and that the water does not run over and make mud puddles at the base. Many of the beautiful memorial fountains are marred by the same disgusting features found around the simple fountains."

One reason for overflow is the perpetual flow; and in this connection the bureau hazards the suggestion that the hundred new fountains that could be supplied by the wasted water might be of more importance to the public than the slight added coolness that a constant flow supplies.

Finally, the placing of fountains comes in for criticism.

"Most of the fountains operated by the city," says the report, "are found in parks or public highways. Unquestionably a relatively small percentage of the people who are working hard and who are working on the streets, go through a public park often enough to have their thirst satisfied by no matter how many fountains in the parks. Within the parks themselves the number of drinking fountains is not in proportion to the demand for them, nor is their location in accordance with relative demand. Along the Harlem river speedway, for instance, there are seven fountains having two or three jets each pouring forth streams of water—for whom? For nobody, most of the time. In contrast is the deck for pedestrians on the Williamsburg bridge, which is usually very crowded, especially in the evening. Only two fountains are found there, both of which, unfortunately, are dry. Again, in the little park situated near Thirty-fifth Street on Second Avenue, are found eight fountains for the comparatively few people who visit it, while Washington Square has only two fountains for its continuous large crowd."

The report closes with an appeal for more fountains, addressed especially to churches and Y. M. C. A's., which it says have advantageous positions in the most crowded sections of the city.

## EDITORIAL GRIST

### MUST THE COMMON DRINKING TROUGH GO?

LILLIAN J. LASER

The old wooden horse trough, the round iron horse trough,  
The filth covered horse trough is doomed, we foretell!

It sounds like "the prophylactic baby and the hygienic pup," but it isn't. It is actual fact. The need for sanitary methods has been brought home to us often enough recently to make us keep our eyes open. But most of us look so hard that we pass over the obvious things.

Did you ever stop to think that the beautiful new iron basin, which has just been erected in your town, at the corner of Main Street and Central, is a transmitting station for all the ailments of the town's horses? The stableman from whom you rent horses for Sunday drives knows it, and if you asked him about it, he would say:

"It would be better if you didn't stop at any troughs along the road. Wait till you get to a river, or borrow a bucket from some farmer to give the horse a drink. You see, you can't tell what kind of animals may have been drinking at those places, and if any of 'em were sick, the next horse'll get the same trouble."

Perhaps you will remember this warning, but the chances are that when you get to a charming old-fashioned town with a pump and a cool green trough from which the water splashes into little pools of mud all around, you will think it a fine place for your tired animal to have a long refreshing drink. And your imagination will make pretty stories about the social intercourse of dumb brutes as you watch the horse across the trough rub noses with your beast and hear the responsive whinny of delight. You will still think the picture a pleasing one when you see a small boy slip between the horses and dangle his feet luxuriously in the cool water. Why should all these pleasures be foregone? Are there really people in the world who are unsympathetic enough to demand the extermination of the time-honored trough and fountain, the monument of mankind's care for its dumb brothers?

The Horse Aid Society of New York City recently refused to accept as a gift five magnificent public watering fountains for horses which were to be erected at a cost of \$350 each. And about 40,000 of the 90,000 horses in Manhattan owned by large stables are never permitted to drink at a public basin. Why?

An investigation of 240 watering places for horses in Manhattan was made in July by the



Bureau of Municipal Research of New York. The bureau found more than a third of these places too dirty for use, and shows by a series of 150 photographs the different kinds of clean and unclean troughs.

There is the large oblong stone basin through which the water flows constantly and which the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals considers the ideal type. Then there are round iron or bronze bowls as high as a horse's chest convenient to reach and filled from an ever-flowing bronze fountain in the center—there are not many of this kind, but a few of them are quite ornamental. The characteristic type is the oblong iron trough, sometimes open at the top and sometimes high enough to be easily reached, but too often so low that the pavement all about is cracked and broken from the pawing of thirsty horses as they struggle to reach the water. Still another kind is the same iron variety with a covered top. In this top are two holes, just large enough to admit the horse's nose. The probable reason for the invention of such a device was to keep the water guarded as well as possible. The result achieved is to hold all filth securely within the basin and to make a thorough cleaning impossible.

Some horse troughs are good and some are bad, some are clean and some are dirty, but of them all, Dr. S. K. Johnson of the New York Veterinary Hospital says: "I regard the public

horse trough as one of the most pernicious sources of disease among horses." The malady to which Dr. Johnson refers particularly is glanders, a contagious disease with which a very large percentage of horses are afflicted—75 per cent is the estimate for New York. Glanders can easily be carried by the water of a common drinking place. The disease is communicable to human beings, too, although not so readily as to horses, but it is even more dangerous to man, once it gets a foothold, than to beast. Human cases have rarely been cured.

Curious as it seems, horses are able to protect themselves better than people. If the water gets too bad from filth and stagnancy, the animal refuses to drink, but the children of the neighborhood are not guarded by the same wise instinct. They play delightedly in any kind of water. They sail boats in the troughs, and pour the water over their faces and necks, they splash it excitedly over their companions and paddle in the cool slime that oozes through the broken concrete below.

Since the investigation, New York has been trying to improve the condition of troughs by more regular inspection. The few stone basins, conveniently high, and the well repaired iron basins with a constant inflow and outlet of water, minimize the dangers offered by the common drinking places, if they are watched and are kept in a thoroughly sanitary condition. But this



"A PERNICIOUS SOURCE OF DISEASE"

This oblong iron trough, with the pavement cracked and broken from the pawing of thirsty horses, is a characteristic type of public drinking place for animals in the city. It is estimated that 75 per cent of horses in New York suffer from glanders, a contagious malady often transmitted at the drinking trough.





FOR HORSES ONLY

Several relief stations of this kind are maintained at private expense in New York. An attendant washes each iron bucket after his guest has had a drink. The hose seen on the ground is used to cool animals that have become overwarm.

cleaning must be somebody's especial business, who will watch and be responsible for the condition of every trough in the city. And even where cleaning is regular, troughs cannot be guarded constantly. There is no one to stop a driver who washes his horse's mouth and bathes its wounds at a public drinking place. Nor can refuse be kept out of the basins or nuisances prohibited, despite the signs: "No dogs allowed to bathe here."

One town, Jersey City, has been far-sighted enough to do away with the common drinking trough. The health officer of New York suggests the establishment of hydrants with faucets in place of the old troughs. At such places there should be a number of iron buckets and an attendant in charge who will carefully wash each bucket after his guest has had a drink. A plain faucet with a short hose attachment for filling buckets can be placed anywhere at a practically nominal expense. Pipes outside of buildings could be tapped, or a new joint of pipe or hose could be connected with faucets or plugs already placed.

There are several relief stations of this kind in New York, kept up by the S. P. C. A., the street railways for their own horses, and by others. The proprietor of a moving picture theater, Mr. Ganes, who originated and maintains the best station at Broadway and Thirty-first street, says that the horses remember the place and often come back alone if drivers leave them unattended blocks away. This station has three shower baths—snobbishly marked "For horses only,"—an iron tub and an attendant in charge. Such an arrangement can be installed for fifty dollars, and an attendant kept in charge at a cost of \$1.50 a day.<sup>1</sup>

Mr. Ganes became interested in the relief

work for horses last summer when he saw a horse drop in front of his place from heat exhaustion. While waiting for an officer to come to shoot the animal Mr. Ganes had one of his men turn a stream of water on its head. By the time the officer arrived the horse was able to stand up and be driven away.

A great many horses would be saved from heat exhaustion in just this way if the stations were numerous enough, and certainly many more would be saved from contamination. But the new stations must be placed with regard to the needs of the horses and not to the business of the nearest saloon-keeper. Exactly one-half of the watering places for horses in New York city are in front of saloons, the owners of which claim that they owe about 40 per cent of their business to the troughs.

Fore-sighted manufacturers have recently produced bubbling fountains for horses similar to those already installed for human beings. These new fountains are being widely advertised. Perhaps they anticipate a law that will post notices: "After January 1, 19—, no public drinking cups for horses will be provided at public watering places."

## FEDERATION OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES

Rt. Rev. D. J. McMAHON

The National Conference of Catholic Charities had some reason to thank the wet weather for the almost uninterrupted series of meetings which were held in Washington, D. C., the last week in September. The rain gave it something of the character of an old-time retreat. The meetings of the conference were held in the halls of the Catholic University about thirty minutes from the national treasury and the delegates who arrived for the first gatherings at 9:30 in the morning, remained until the closing of the improvised afternoon sessions, since none could comfortably venture out in the rain.

About forty papers and addresses were given on the general topics of needy families, children, immigrants, chronic sick and co-operation. There was a decided improvement in the quality and merit of the treatment of the subjects, and while all must hark back occasionally to first principles, the forward step was constantly shown and the religious view was ever prominent in each speaker's text.

The conference opened with mass on Sunday, at which there was an attendance of nearly 600 delegates, who stayed during the conference. The Right Reverend Bishop Canevin of Pittsburgh preached the opening sermon and inspired his hearers by his enthusiasm for the cause of charity and his solemn appeals for the extension of the work and for the increase of workers.

<sup>1</sup>Popular Mechanics reports that the Woman's Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals has installed several shower baths of this ideal type.



The address of the president, Right Reverend Thomas J. Shahan, rector of the university, was a masterly effort on the intimate connection between the Catholic Church and charity in the early centuries of persecution, in the Middle Ages of the monasteries and the guilds and even in its silent influence through these three centuries when, as De Maistre said: "History has been a calumny against the church." She has had her heroes raising up bands of priests, brothers and sisters whose lives were sacrificed for the good of others—Thomas of Villanova, Camillus of Lellis, St. Vincent de Paul and others. The breaking down of the economic system of *laissez faire* has brought about one reaction toward socialism and another toward the upbuilding and reinforcement of Christian charity by those not wearing the religious garb.

The paper of Thomas M. Mulry on The Church and Government was an interesting recital of the history of the connection between the private institutions and the government, as represented in New York state. Mr. Mulry drew on their need in the past, their struggle for life in the Constitutional Convention in 1894, and on later events. It was an interesting, honest and fair exposition, as became a member of the State Board of Charities.

Co-operation was urged under its various forms. To give it cogency and effect a preliminary meeting was held on Saturday and each afternoon thereafter, which resulted in the formation of a Federation of Catholic Women's Charitable Societies, with representatives present from most large centers between Bangor and Seattle. It may bring about in time a union of such organizations similar to that of the St. Vincent de Paul Societies.

A new topic was introduced that partakes of the nature of real charity; namely, the case of the chronic sick, their visitation, their treatment, their relief. It was pointed out that they are usually sent to a hospital leaving behind all hope of seeing friend or kin thereafter.

There was a clear exposition of the work and importance of the Federal Children's Bureau and a luminous paper on the real relation the state bears toward the child and its parents when it becomes dependent, defective or delinquent. Danger there is in yielding to state authority in this line for the state is made up of families and secondarily only of individuals. These papers were well presented by two able lawyers, Mr. Riley of Lancaster and Judge Girtin of Chicago.

The education of children in institutions was discussed by Brother Henry of the New York Catholic Protectory, while the section on delinquents urged most vehemently the home care as well as probation of the children who showed tendencies towards leaving the narrow path of

respect for authority. Time, with constant iteration of the thought, will bring about a more charitable view of the delinquent adult or juvenile on his exit from an institution. The idea now requires patience for its advocates, but will it not likewise demand extraordinary forbearance when it does come to realization? This was shown by the papers of Dr. Charles McKenna of New York, J. J. McLoughlin of New Orleans and Rev. J. Donohue of St. Paul.

The immigrant in his ignorance with his surrounding cormorants was strikingly portrayed, while the energy, ability and quickness of his children, as shown by Mrs. Mandel of New York, required far more guidance than home care gives.

The present methods of treatment and the medical view of the defective child were dealt with by Rev. M. McCarty, S. J., of New York and Dr. Mary Porter of Chicago. The sex hygiene questions were easily solved by the good mother aided with the church's general action in the confessional. Judge De Lacy of Washington, E. Mulready of Boston, Brother Barnabas and William Doherty of New York entered the discussions in these sections.

Some discussion was aroused by the proposition to have the conference annually, but the almost unanimous vote made it biennial, with Washington as the fixed seat. The officers were re-elected—Monsignor Shahan, president, Rev. W. J. Kerby, secretary and William H. DeLacy, treasurer.

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## THE TREND OF THINGS

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Perhaps the most authoritative article of the month is Dr. Wiley's review and analysis, in *Good Housekeeping*, of the present status of pure food legislation—"progress and regress"—both national and state. In the following table *Good Housekeeping* presents the strength and weakness of the federal law:

### WHEREIN THE PURE FOOD LAW FAILS

Unfortunate compromises with the "interests" were deemed necessary by its framers

"Distinctive" names of food products, permitted by the law, afford excuses for frauds

False claims to curative properties of drugs are permitted by court decision

Bad provisions of the law tend to become vested interests

The law's tendency is to favor the manufacturer rather than the consumer

Chemical preservatives have been admitted by decree of the Remsen Board

Important prosecutions in the courts drag interminably



### PURE FOOD LAW'S GREAT SERVICE

Labels have become, for the most part, honest—a great advance  
 Sanitary conditions of manufacture have been much improved  
 Many manufacturers have voluntarily abandoned the use of chemical preservatives  
 Cold-storage conditions have been largely improved  
 Three thousand cases of adulteration and misbranding have been prosecuted  
 The United States District Court of Indiana, and about half of the state food commissioners, have ruled against the use of benzoate of soda  
 The moral effect of the law has been very great

\* \* \*

Woman, Socialism and the coming elections divide the honors in the magazines this month, and of the three woman gets almost a better half. In the *American Magazine* there are articles in point, by Brand Whitlock and Helen Keller. The educated woman should, in Miss Keller's opinion, make it her business to know why millions are shut off from the full benefits of education. She should also know

"why a woman who earns wages has nothing to say about the choice of the men who make laws that govern her wages. We must know why a hundred and fifty of our sisters were killed in New York in a shirt-waist factory fire the other day, and nobody to blame. We must know why our fathers, brothers and husbands are killed in mines and on railroads. We women, who are natural conservationists, must find out why the sons we bring forth are drawn up in line and shot. We must organize with our more enlightened brothers and declare a general strike against war."

\* \* \*

In the *Forum* Anna Garlin Spencer reviews women's historical relation to government and maintains that the new motherly functions of the modern state—the care of the young, the old and the handicapped—demand that woman be raised from a position of subordination to an equal part in the management of the state. In the *World's Work*, Mabel Potter Daggett and in the *Ladies' Home Journal* Edith Rickert tell how successfully organized womankind in America has performed the distinctly feminine function of sanitary engineer in various communities, and has made for herself "a name in the housekeeping of the nation."

\* \* \*

To the *Atlantic Monthly* Ellen Key contributes an article on what is, in her opinion, the true motherhood, the race motherhood for which she believes the social instinct of today is laying the foundations. A woman with such a race-motherly instinct is described by the *World's Work*. She is Lydia Holman, whose nine years of nursing in the southern mountains has led the Red

Cross to organize a Rural Nursing Service. Miss Holman tells how the call to social service—race maternity, to use Miss Key's phrase—may grow out of the individual needs of the child-bearers:

"Motherhood on a mountain top in a cabin with other children for the mother to care for whilst the husband travels for miles to secure the services of the nearest 'likely' person, be it doctor or only neighbor; alas! for American motherhood in isolated rural communities! This phase of the problem alone convinced me that my work was here."

To the periodical literature of the "new woman" Thomas A. Edison adds his contribution in *Good Housekeeping*. There is much common sense, but perhaps a hint of unconscious humor also, in his prophecy that thanks to his electrical contrivances to lighten the drudgery of housework the woman of the future will be able to take her place beside man and will become the mother of a "race of mental prodigies."

\* \* \*

William Hard records in the *Delineator* the endorsement by organized women, at the last convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, of the objects of his Home League. These objects are to find what are the laws regulating the rights in the relations of husband, wife and child in the various states, and to so remodel them, where they are antiquated and unjust, that the wife shall be as free as her husband, and shall have the same right to her children.

\* \* \*

The *Metropolitan* and *Pearson's* present campaign articles for the Socialists: Morris Hillquit's outline of the practical program of Socialism, and Allan L. Benson's contrast between its aims and those of Progressivism as he sees it. Mr. Benson's view may be shown by two paragraphs:

"Radical politicians do a lot of temporizing. Even Lincoln temporized with chattel slavery. When he ceased to temporize he struck down chattel slavery. Then he ceased to be a radical and became a revolutionist. The time for radicalism had passed . . . .

"Wage slavery is as much greater than chattel slavery as the white people in this country are more numerous than the black."

\* \* \*

William English Walling, in the *Twentieth Century*, holds state Socialism to be the goal of the Progressive movement and pictures its dangers in the eyes of an "industrialist" or member of that branch of the minority wing of the Socialist movement which looks to industrial equality with political revolution.

In the same magazine Eugene V. Debs, Socialist candidate for president, essays to show that as judge President Taft reversed the phrase of Lincoln, and put "property before life; the dollar before the man."



By a coincidence President Taft's brief against Socialism is published in the *Century*. Charles Edward Russell, who has in other places treated of the defects of government ownership, shows in *Pearson's* the "altruistic side of the state railroads of New Zealand," and J. W. Whelply, in the *Century*, criticizes the much praised thrift of the French which he holds has kept France behind the other European nations in her national development, and has, in his opinion, been largely responsible for the strength of Socialism as a protest against a "narrowing of her national life."

The *International* fills its pages this month with the subject of the American Democracy in its relation to progressivism, socialism, syndicalism and monarchy—the latter a possible antidote in the opinion of T. Everett Harry for the dangerous radicalism of the day. The Relation of Syndicalism to Socialism is the subject of an article by Robert Rives Lamont in the *International Socialist Review*.

\* \* \*

Interesting articles the current month in the field of sanitary concern, are the *World's Work's* short account of the work of Gaston Odin in isolating the cancer germ and his experiments with antitoxins. Dr. Odin's work gives promise of help in the future; Annette Austin's article on Cancer in the *Delineator* seems of more immediate help. It treats of measures too little used by cancer sufferers and by a medical profession only just beginning to awake to the possibilities of prophylaxis in this disease. Prophylaxis in another class of equally dreaded but even more common diseases is the subject of William Lee Howard's article on the Passing of Prudery in *Pearson's*, as well as Bertha H. Smith's article in the *Forum* on the teaching of sex hygiene. Neither of these is, however, as effective a document in the campaigns for health and morality as the anonymous autobiographical account the *Forum* publishes of a victim of syphilis. Her Spartan recommendation against infection is that syphilitics be isolated, "just as lepers are."

\* \* \*

Other leading articles of the month are Jacob H. Hollender's program, in the *Atlantic*, for the gradual abolition of poverty; the *American's* story of the insurgent movement among the stockholders of the steel corporation for better labor conditions; articles on the various aspects of the problems of congestion and of rural depopulation in the *Atlantic* and *Holland's* (Texas), and on the allied subjects of good roads and irrigation in the *Review of Reviews*, *Sunset Magazine* and *World's Work*.

*Holland's* also has a very entertaining account of a unique New York charity, Arbuckle's Deep Sea Hotel, where young men and women can, the writer tells us, live without that convent separation of the sexes that is characteristic of most semi-charitable boarding-houses, and can mingle in a healthy social intercourse that makes them indifferent to Coney Island and the city dance hall.

## HOME ENGINEERING

### A LETTER AND SOME ANSWERS

#### TO THE EDITOR:

I would appreciate your kindness if you could suggest what might be done along the line of making homes more attractive, so that children might be induced to stay at home more, especially in the evening. For instance, what might an active and influential woman's club do in a city of twenty-five thousand to help create and add to the happiness and attractiveness of a larger number of homes—with special reference to young people? I realize how general and indefinite these inquiries are. It has seemed to me that there has been such a tendency to attract men, women, and children away from their homes that a movement "back to the home" would be of the greatest importance, and I have been trying to learn of practical methods for carrying on such a movement.

WILLIAM C. DUNBAR.

[Probate Judge, Ada county, Boise, Idaho]

\* \* \*

The question of making homes attractive lies in the hands of women. The woman is the heart of the home. If she is attractive, her home is attractive when she is in it. The woman who is desirous of holding her errand boys and men-folk in the home will have to put her attention strongly upon the subject. She must study the needs of her charges, enter sympathetically into their tastes, and provide for their exercise. This for men-folks. In the case of boys, I see nothing for it but positively to forbid their wandering. There is something exciting in the very fact of being out in the night. If boys are allowed to taste it, they readily form the habit of looking to night time for excitement—from which habit much evil may spring through all their lives.

The curfew has much to be said in its favor.

As for the woman who herself wishes to wander, who needs to have home made attractive for her in order to be induced to stay in it—why, pray for her! She is past all other help.

PRESTONIA MANN MARTIN.

[Author of *Is Mankind Advancing?*]

\* \* \*

The encouragement of a love of home is greatly needed, for the outside attractions have become so numerous that many who have seen the effects realize that the time has come to develop and strengthen home ties rather than to weaken and disrupt them, as is the case when children look for all their social life to outside sources.

A woman who for many years had been active in girls' clubs said that she found they had a tendency to make the girls dissatisfied to be at home, and to share with their mothers the home duties which are the best preparation girls can have for home life as wives and mothers. They craved excitement every evening beyond that the home could supply,



and in the making of friends who were unknown to their parents were frequently subjected to grave dangers. The same result has been observed by thoughtful men and women in connection with work designed to be of benefit but which nightly induces both parents and children to seek their pleasures outside the home circle. If these centers were open but one evening a week this objection probably would not apply.

There are many schemes for civic and social betterment which on the surface seem valuable. The only way to judge of their efficiency is to study the results and carefully weigh them.

No scheme for social betterment that ignores the home as the natural center of attraction can be of permanent value. Parents need to realize that part of their duty as home-makers is to make the home attractive to the children not only in childhood but as they grow into young manhood and womanhood. Immersed in business, and often laden with many cares, fathers and mothers fail in this important part of their duty. However small the home may be, this is possible, but in many cases the parents must be shown how to interest their children and imbue them with a love of home. The Mothers' Congress provides in its program for mothers' and parents' circles the topic How to Make Home Attractive to Young people, and is everywhere emphasizing this and explaining how it may be done.

A woman's club could do much to promote the sentiment of responsibility and show how to do it by a series of meetings, in different sections of the city, to which parents would be invited. In Boise there are many mothers' and parents' circles whose officers and members would be able to take up this work.

HANNAH K. SCHOFF.

[President National Congress of Mothers]

\* \* \*

The majority of children go out on the streets because their homes are unattractive. The boy goes because he craves action and wants excitement, the girl because there is no room in which she can see her company. She is ashamed to ask her boy friends to a room which is too often filled with the family washing.

This drying of the clothes in the living room is unfortunately a necessity, and it has occurred to me that if public laundries could be established in our cities where women could take their clothes and wash and dry them, taking them home to be ironed, it would obviate this unpleasant drying of clothes at home.

Such a laundry could be undertaken by a woman's club. It would, of course, have to be advertised among the people who are in need of it and be made popular in some way. A small charge might be made for its use, and in many ways it would tend toward making the home more attractive.

Of course, the whole question of the home goes back to the erecting of such buildings as are fit for the housing of human beings, and I believe that a woman's club could do no better work than try to secure legislation which would provide for the erection of such

tenements as have recently been built in Germany. Here the buildings are a pleasure to the eye; there are courts where the children may play; balconies where the tenants may walk, and all the light and air and sunshine which are the working man's right and which are so necessary for the well-being of his family.

In such tenements the boy has space for play and opportunity for exercise, and the girl takes a pride in her home and is eager to ask her friends to share its hospitality.

LOUISE DE KOVEL; BOWEN.

[President Chicago Juvenile Probation Association.]

\* \* \*

One essential with most children is a ready welcome for their friends into a home—or some part of a home—adapted to the taste and needs of children. Our homes are made for grown-ups. They are made before the children come, and they seem to be made over but slightly and grudgingly when the little ones arrive. The child does not find his normal habitat amid the staid and easily upset surroundings and people in the living-room, and children's playrooms are few and far between; and barns—how I remember our delightful barn!—are distinctly on the wane. One might as safely romp around the sacred contents of a garage as in the purlieus of a grand piano.

I have in mind a singularly charming home where the two little boys live all over the house and there is not a jerkable tablespread or a joggly vase or piece of bric-a-brac anywhere within reach. The dog brings in some little dirt, but his antics with the children bring in, also, much hilarity. These boys have in the friends they want; not "suitable companions," prescribed, like medicine, because supposed to be "good for them." The parents rightly think that nothing very much amiss will happen without their knowledge so long as the children are at home. A carpenter bench and turn-pole in a light, dry basement, popcorn facilities in the kitchen, and stories of adventure read aloud to a lot of little human quadrupeds around the family fireplace—these charm even the dread leader of "the gang" into a nice peaceable child.

The thing that quickest drives a boy away to the wild and "the gang" is lack of really congenial spirits and of freedom to "let off steam." Oh, to think of the countless hosts of fathers and mothers sitting in comfortable chairs on the safety valves and bewailing the waywardness of youth!

The parents in this family I speak of literally "live with the children," as Froebel exhorted; play with them, talk with them about the great and the little things of the day, and all the moral and spiritual questions which children invariably bring to intelligent and sympathetic parents. There is no problem about keeping these children at home as much as children ought to be kept at home. We want them to see some of the good shows and street pageants, do we not? Of course, a part of our work must be to make the street an extension of the home, and a relatively safe place for the boys and girls.

CAROLINE BARTLETT CRANE.

[Founder Kalamazoo Civic League; civic expert.]



## JOTTINGS

### IN THE WAKE OF THE FLOOD

The movements of the waters last summer during the greatest flood ever caused by the Mississippi River were heralded far and wide in the daily press; the movements of the population de housed were told in much less detail. In the final report on work done by the Red Cross during the catastrophe, written by Ernest Bicknell, national director, this phase comes into its own. The troubles of the farmers of that region are still current event. Mr. Bicknell gives the number of persons requiring temporary help in the form of food and shelter as 250,000, and the number for whom further help was needed in the form of seeds for planting, repairs to buildings and fences, furniture, clothing, farm implements and so on, at 50,000.

"From the beginning of this later work of restoration," writes Mr. Bicknell, "the principal and most urgent need was for seeds for planting. Much the larger part of the expenditures from the relief funds, following the closing of the camps, was for the purchase of seeds—cotton, corn, peas and millet. Throughout the southern and major portion of the flooded territory cotton forms the chief crop. The lateness of the season and the slow recession of the waters caused the keenest anxiety and suspense among the planters and small farmers. It was generally agreed that cotton must be planted before the middle of June in order to "make a crop." Would the slowly falling flood leave the land in time to plant cotton? For thousands the hope of the future hung on the answer to that question.

"Wherever a mound or ridge showed its muddy crest above the water, the watching farmer leaped upon it, dropped cotton seeds upon the half liquid surface and trampled them in with his bare feet or covered them by dragging logs or brush back and forth through the mud. If cotton seed is soaked in water over night and planted in wet ground the following day, its tiny green shoots will appear in two or three days. In this crude and hasty manner much cotton was planted at that critical turn of the season in which a day might mean the difference between independence and poverty. It will be readily understood that the farmers were anxious to get back home at the earliest moment possible. They did not wait for the water to leave their land but only until it had fallen enough to allow them to get into their houses. They wanted to be on the spot when the first land appeared. But thousands of the waiting farmers saw the cotton-planting season pass while the water yet stood deep upon their lands. Their next hope was in corn and peas which might be planted with some hope of a crop as late as July 1. And even this last hope died in the hearts of many in lower Louisiana before the last of the flood had gone. To those whose every opportunity for cultivating their lands was denied there remained the necessity of turn-

ing to employment elsewhere. Some found work in lumber camps and sawmills, some on sugar plantations, some went to other and more favorably situated plantations where labor was in demand.

"All through the time of suspense and during the periods of feverish activity when the planting for the year must be crowded into a few hours or days, the relief committees and the Red Cross were ready with supplies of seeds. Shipments were hurried from North Carolina and other states which raise a special quick-growing variety of cotton. The two chief centers for distribution were Baton Rouge, La., and Natchez, Miss., where active committees composed of business men who fully understood the best methods of handling seeds and who had an intimate knowledge of the needs, were in charge. With these committees the Red Cross was in the closest affiliation and through them the relief funds of the Red Cross reached and relieved the most urgent wants."

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ARTHUR P. KELLOGG,  
Business Manager.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 2nd day of October, 1912.

EDWARD B. BRUCH,  
Notary Public,  
Westchester County.

Certificate filed in New York County, New York  
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Form 3526.



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## Child Labor

National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y.

25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

## Child Helping

Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York.

Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

## Recreation

Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.

Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

## Recreation Bibliography

Division of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City. Pamphlet containing a list of the more formal publications, with annotations, and an extensive list of magazine articles dealing with the subject of recreation. Price 10 cents per copy.

## Conservation of Infant Life.

American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore. Gertrude R. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request.

Studies preventable causes of death and illness; urges birth registration, maternal nursing, parental instruction.

## Mental Deficiency

The American Association for the study of the feeble-minded, publishes the proceedings and papers of its annual meetings in the *Journal of Psycho-Asthenics*. Address Dr. A. C. Rogers, secretary, at Faribault, Minnesota.

## Tuberculosis

National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M. D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., will be sent upon request. Annual Transactions and other publications free to members.

## Sex Hygiene

Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies.

Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

## School Hygiene

American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M. D., Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M. D., College of the City of New York, New York.

Yearly congresses and proceedings.

## Conservation of Vision

American Association for the Conservation of Vision, New York, D. C. McMurtie, Acting Sec'y, 1 Madison Avenue. To prevent blindness and impairment of vision from diseases, defects, accidents and abuse. Literature and exhibits. Ten state organizations. Membership \$1. Charter \$5.

## Mental Hygiene

National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City. Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of the insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

## National Health

Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Executive Secretary, Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York.

To unite all the government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

## Working Women

National Women's Trade Union League, to better industrial conditions through organization and legislation. Information given. "Life and Labor," events in industrial world. Three months for 25c. Mrs. Raymond Robins, Pres., 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

## Women in Industry

National Consumers' League, 106 East 19th St., New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, Sec'y. Annual Report and other literature free.

Minimum wage boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

## Evening Clubs for Girls

National League of Women Workers

Hotel Savoy, New York. Organizing Sec'y, Joan Hamilton. Recreation and instruction in self-governing and self-supporting groups for girls over working age. Monthly magazine—"The Club Worker" Twenty-five cents a year.

## White Slave Traffic

American Vigilance Ass'n, Central office, 105 W. Monroe St., Chicago; Eastern Office, Library and Bureau of Information, 156 Fifth Ave., N. Y. Purpose: to suppress commercialized vice. Carries on investigations, assists in prosecutions, etc.

## Young Women

National Board, Y. W. C. A. 600 Lexington Ave., New York City. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty; the advancement of physical, social, intellectual and spiritual interests of young women. Official Publication, "The Association Monthly" \$1; free literature.

## Labor Legislation

Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws.

Official publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.

American Association for Labor Legislation, Metropolitan Tower, New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

## Prison Labor

National Committee on Prison Labor, 27 E. 22d St., N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stagg Whitin, 1st D. Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. \$5 a year.

## The American Seamen's Friend Society

Rev. J. B. Calvert, D.D., pres. George McPherson Hunter, Sec'y.

The national seamen's society has stations in the United States and abroad, relieves shipwrecked and destitute seamen. Annual membership includes all literature, \$5.00 a year. C. C. Pinneo, Treas., 76 Wall Street.

## Short Ballot and Commission Government

The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, President; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters*.



# INFORMATION DESK

Continued from preceding page

## Municipal Problems

National Municipal League, 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

## Charities and Correction

THE PROCEEDINGS of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. BUREAU OF INFORMATION on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 2, 1913.

## Charity Organization

Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.

To study, teach and publish in the charity organization field. Pamphlets on family treatment, community study, relief, transportation, etc., sent free.

## The Church and Social Service

The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service.

For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

## Unitarian Social Advance

The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service.

Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees. Rev. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

## Social Betterment for Negroes

National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, 281 Fourth Avenue, E. R. A. Seligman, Chairman; G. E. Haynes, Director. Develops welfare agencies. Trains social workers. Aids travelers. Supports probation officers. Seeks industrial opportunities. Correspondence invited.

## Home and Institutional Economics

American Home Economics Association, for Home, Institution, and School. Publishes Journal of Home Economics, 600 pp. per vol. \$2.00 per year. Conducts Graduate School of Home Economics. Meeting: Boston, December 31, 1912—Address, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.

## Aid for Travelers

The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex.

For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Sec'y., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

## The Smoke Nuisance

Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement; How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

## National Conference of Jewish Charities

Lee K. Frankel, president; Louis H. Levin, secretary, 411 West Fayette St., Baltimore, Md. Issues monthly "Jewish Charities," containing articles of interest to all concerned in Jewish social and philanthropic work. Subscription \$1 a year, includes membership in the Conference.

## Presbyterian Social Service

Bureau of Social Service, The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rev. Charles Stelzle, Supt., 156 Fifth Avenue, New York.

Sociological surveys made. Clearing house for city problems of the Church. "Downtown Church" Labor Temple, New York. Literature free.

## Studies in Social Christianity

Oct.: Growth and Causes of Crime. Nov.: Treatment of the Criminal. Dec.: Prevention of Crime.

See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York City. Price 50c. per year.

## Methodist Social Service

Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature; Bureau of Information, Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; Invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities.

Rev. Harry F. Ward, Sec'y., 343 S. Oak Park Ave., Oak Park, Ill.

## Negro and Race Problems

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 26 Vesey Street, New York. O. G. Villard, Chairman, Board of Directors; M. C. Nerney, Secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, Director Publicity. Publishes Crisis Magazine. Investigation, Legal Redress, Literature, Lectures, Lantern Slides.

## Probation

National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y.

Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, 50 cents a year.

## City Planning

National City Planning Conference 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at \$5 a Year Includes All Literature.

## Organized Charity

National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City.

To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs, in the United States.

## Church and Country Life

Department of Board of Home Missions of Presbyterian Church. Warren H. Wilson, Supt., Anna B. Taft, Asst., 156 Fifth Ave.; makes sociological surveys of rural populations; conferences, graduate summer schools for country ministers, literature for rural workers.

## Baptist Social Service

Social Service Commission of the Northern Baptist Convention.

To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies.

S. Z. Batten, Des Moines College, Des Moines, Iowa, exec. ch'm.

## Episcopal Social Service

The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

## Immigration

National Conference of Immigration, Land, and Labor Officials, 22 East 30th Street, F. A. Kellor, Sec. Information affecting aliens *after admission*, especially in reference to labor, land, education, protection and distribution. No matters of admission or restriction dealt with.

## Remedial Loans

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.

Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

Each space like this, \$20 a year, to appear 12 times, once each month.

Would you hesitate to spend \$1.66 a month on circulars and postage to possible new members?



## THE PITH OF IT

THE growing co-operation of Protestant churches, the social pronouncements of the Catholic societies, one instance in which lightning flashed from a Jewish temple, and some first books of the churches' new social campaign—these are topics dwelt upon in Professor Taylor's new department of the Church and Community. P. 82.

A RECRUDESCENCE of the Malthusian fear was suggested by at least one speech before the American Public Health Association. P. 72.

MORRIS LOEB, of New York, who died last week, was widely known as a scientist, educator and philanthropist. Among many kindred activities, he had been president of the New York Foundation, of the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, a director of the Educational Alliance and one of the founders and patrons of the Solomon and Betty Loeb Memorial Home for Convalescents. Formerly he was professor of chemistry in New York University.

OUT of nearly twenty-five hundred women working in Montreal department stores, all but 3 per cent either support themselves entirely or aid in the family support. This is one more blow to the theory that such girls do not require a living wage because they reside at home. P. 63.

THE minimum wage: What it is and why it should be are answered by Arthur N. Holcombe, chairman of the special committee devoted to its propaganda by the National Consumers' League. P. 74.

ONE out of every three children born in the alleys of the national capital dies before it is a year old. P. 67.

THE Hull House Players, twelve "working people" who have been trained into a creditable group of actors, will spend six weeks next summer in the British Isles. P. 33.

IN codifying the laws of Ohio relating to illegitimate, defective, neglected, dependent and delinquent children, a legislative commission makes some sharp pronouncements. P. 64.

ONE of the services for which Dr. Alexis Carrel, of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, was awarded the Nobel prize in medicine this month was his success in keeping the heart tissue of a chicken alive for 120 days after removal from the body. This has led to speculation in scientific circles as to whether "permanent life" might be made possible. Dr. Carrel is the first person in this country to receive the Nobel prize in medicine.

## THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE,  
EDITOR

GRAHAM TAYLOR,

JANE ADDAMS,

ASSOCIATES

### A JOURNAL

### OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

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#### Church and Community

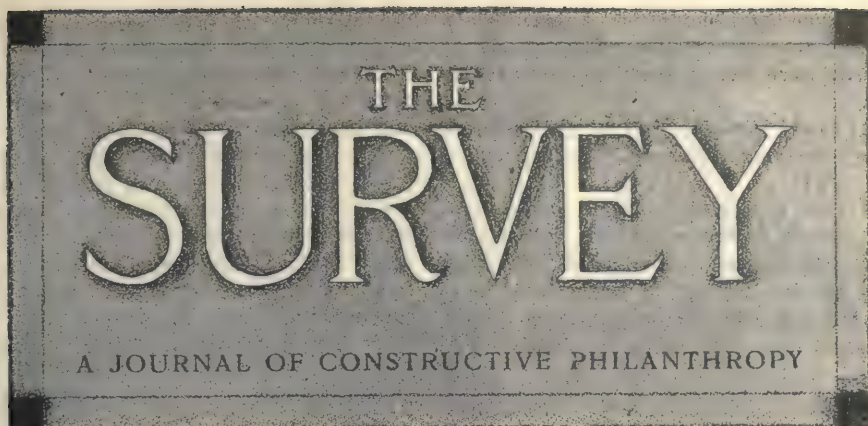
(Graham Taylor, Editor)

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AT the second National Conference on Vocational Guidance, which will meet in New York October 23-26, sessions will be held on placement, occupations, scholarships, vocational analysis, opportunities for vocational training, methods of vocational direction, and the relation of the employer to vocational guidance.

THE Committee on Amusement Resources of Working Girls, of New York, announces five class lessons "in new social dancing to provide interesting and usable substitutes for vulgar dancing and to define socially correct dancing." The class is especially for men and women engaged in teaching or supervising in recreation centers and settlements, either volunteers or professionals; also those preparing for such work.





VOLUME XXIX, No. 3

OCTOBER 19, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### SUMMER ABROAD FOR HULL HOUSE PLAYERS

Inspired by their study and production of several Irish plays written by Yeats and Lady Gregory, the Hull House Players are planning to spend six weeks next summer on a trip to the British Isles. They became acquainted with the Irish Players who with Lady Gregory spent a month in Chicago last winter. Moreover, many of them are of Irish ancestry and are anxious to see the home land.

The Hull House Players are a unique group of twelve so-called "working people." Organized twelve years ago by Laura Dainty Pelham, and working harmoniously with her through all these years, they have taken so keen an interest in their work that they have come to Hull House twice a week for rehearsals, and oftener when necessary. Most of the money for their trip abroad they hope to earn by giving as many performances of their plays as possible this winter. Some money has been saved from last year and some of it they will provide from their own earnings. Although the summer season is unfavorable for the theater, it is possible that the players will give one or two performances of the Irish or Galsworthy plays during their visit. The management of the Abbey Theater in Dublin was very anxious to have them come earlier in the season in order that such an arrangement might be made.

Whether they play or not, they are anticipating the trip keenly because of the insight it will give them into the land and the people they have learned to know so well through the folk plays. In June they will sail for Queenstown, and will

visit Cork, the lakes of Killarney and other smaller places, and then will spend several days in Dublin. Then crossing to Liverpool, and stopping at Chester, Warwick and the Shakespeare country, they will make their way to London for an eight-day visit. In London they hope to see something of the settlements in Canningtown and to gain an insight into the setting of the English life so vividly portrayed by Galsworthy whose plays they have very successfully produced.

To Mrs. Pelham's years of devoted and unstinted services is due the spirit of unity and good fellowship which makes the history of this club, in the opinions of many persons, unusual in settlement annals; she also deserves much of the praise which the club has earned by its selection of plays and intelligent and sympathetic acting.

### WHY GIRLS WORK IN DEPARTMENT STORES

The claim so often made that girls in department stores do not require a living wage because they are living at home, has been punctured again by an interesting research made by Montreal young women. An association of department store girls organized for semi-religious and semi-educational purposes conducted an investigation for the Child Welfare Exhibition now in progress in Montreal. They secured responsible young women in each of the stores to make the rounds of their associations. The questionnaire was of the briefest possible kind, prepared by the director of the Child Welfare Exhibition and adapted to amateurs. The result showed that out of the 2,471 women employed in eleven stores in the city:



7 per cent were the sole support of their family  
 60 per cent were aiding in the family support  
 30 per cent were living alone and supporting themselves.

3 per cent worked only for pin money or clothing, making no contribution to the finances of the home.

The fact that a girl is living at home may mean that she is protected in her recreations and social engagements, but these Montreal figures add to the cumulative evidence that it does not mean that she can depend upon others for her support, and thus work for less than a living wage.

#### WHAT A STATE SHOULD DO FOR ITS CHILDREN

In codifying the laws of Ohio relating to illegitimate, defective, neglected, dependent and delinquent children, and in recommending revisions and amendments, the commission appointed for this purpose by the legislature of the state has taken a definite stand on more than one phase of child care that is now prominently in the public mind. Pensions to widows, labor on the stage, medical inspection in schools, supervision of institutions, and juvenile delinquency are some of the subjects to which the commission gives attention in its published report, the purpose of which is to bring the laws of Ohio into harmony with the best thought in this field. In general the commission recommends that existing laws be retained whenever possible, building upon this foundation such new legislation as seems necessary.

Ohio has fifty-five county children's homes supported by county funds, six others supported in part by county funds and one district home. Infants under one year of age are kept in the almshouses and transferred to the county homes thereafter. A part of all these children are placed out upon adoption. Besides the public institutions, there are the usual large number of private asylums and homes which also place some children out.

The report recommends a power of supervision on the part of the state over all public and private institutions for children, especially aimed as a means of following up a child after it is placed. The existing county children's homes, the report holds, should serve merely as temporary homes for children who may later return to their parents; as places to train and fit children for foster homes or to care for them while a foster home is being found; and as suitable asylums for children who are of too low grade, mentally or physically, to be placeable, and who should in the county homes mix with the normal and placeable children.

No new homes should be established without

the approval of the Board of State Charities, says the report. Physicians should be employed by these homes not merely to visit sick children but to make a careful study of each child and keep records of physical and mental condition. Teachers in such homes should have elementary school certificates and the public schools should be open to institution children if the management desires. Normal children should be admitted to institutions upon order of the trustees, that is, the overseers of the poor or of the juvenile court, but the juvenile court should consider each case and authorize commitment. The system of indenture is called, by the report, a kind of slavery and its abolition is urged. State supervision should extend to children placed out who should be visited by agents of the State Board of Charities, whose supervisory powers, the commission feels, should be increased in other respects also.

On the administrative side the report speaks favorably of the New Jersey system of children's guardians, but it does not consider a change to this system feasible in Ohio. Its recommendations are that, as under the Massachusetts law, the board shall receive as its wards dependent or delinquent children from the juvenile court, or from children's homes, houses of refuge or other institutions, with the consent of the court which committed them to such institutions. Such children shall be placed by it in carefully investigated homes, and board paid when necessary.

In the matter of reimbursement of the board by the county the commission recommends a plan like that followed in Indiana, which like Ohio has the county home system. This plan is that salaries and general expense shall be charged to the state; traveling expense referable to each child together with one-half the board, if any, paid for it, shall be charged to its county, the state to stand this expense, and then collect from the county instead of waiting until the county sets aside enough money for the purpose. State child placing is not regarded by the commission as inconsistent with but as an important supplement to placing by county homes.

Delinquent children are now sent by the juvenile court to the industrial school and reformatory, and there is no system of placing them in private homes. The report holds that the best cure for both dependency and delinquency is to place the child in such an environment as will tend to make him independent and honest. In this connection, however, it says of both classes of children:

"We believe that most institutions are infinitely to be preferred to a loose and careless system of placing children in homes. One hesitates to think what may happen to the helpless child



farmed out as a slave and drudge, with no one in all the world to care what becomes of him."

The age for delinquency should, the commission feels, be raised to eighteen. To the legal definition of a delinquent child, an amendment would add children who frequent moving-picture shows or who are habitual truants. Another important recommendation is that providing that parents or guardians shall be held liable as contributory causes of delinquency. Again, persons charged with abuse of a child or acting in a way tending to cause delinquency shall be subject to arrest and trial.

Under the subject of "offenses against children" the commission recommends a law prohibiting children under the age of fourteen years from appearing on the public stage.

"There are perhaps exceptions to the general rule that stage life is harmful to a child," says the report, "but it must follow in the majority of such cases that such a life is one of overstimulation and fatigue for a child and tends to pervert it morally away from wholesome ideas."

Upon the subject of child labor and compulsory education the report tersely says:

"The old system under which the child was unduly exploited for the benefit of industry and its parents is rapidly being done away with. We believe that the enactment of such a measure as the Uniform Child Labor Law of the National Child Labor Committee, as a whole, is inevitable in every progressive state in the Union."

Because of laws existing in Ohio the commission does not follow this uniform measure, but proposes additional provisions not in the uniform law. These relate to vacation certificates, examiners to pass on the fifth grade requirement, penalizing the making of false affidavits and statements in order to obtain working certificates for a situation for a child under the required age.

The report recommends that permissive medical inspection of school children in cities be made compulsory and general throughout the state, in rural as well as urban communities. Such legislation, it is contended, will serve not alone to safeguard the health of communities, but to discover and remove the causes of apparent backwardness in children. It should also bring to light the large number of children of mental deficiency who need special treatment under custodial care.

It hesitates to recommend sterilization and falls back upon segregation of certain classes of children. This it admits will involve great expense, but "the longer it is deferred the greater the expense will be."

One of the most interesting recommendations relates to the mothers' pension. Upon this subject the commission says:

"Widows' pensions are provided for in section 1683-2 to 1683-9. These provisions are modeled after those of the Missouri statute, but contain several additional safeguards. The following conditions precedent to the receipt of such pensions are described. Women having children, whose husbands are dead, disabled, or imprisoned and not contributing to their support may receive from a special county fund upon order of the juvenile court an allowance of \$15 for a mother and one child, and \$7 for each additional child; provided, upon investigation of the court, associated charities, or other organization, it is found that such a pension will be necessary in order to hold the home together, that it is a fit home for the child, that the mother will thus be enabled to stay at home, where she may both work and look after the children every day except one for work outside. The allowance can be renewed only upon investigation and will cease when the child becomes fourteen years old.

"While your commission is not unanimously agreed as to the desirability of any enactment of this kind, it is agreed that should any be passed, it should be in the form above outlined."

#### NEW WORK FOR MENTAL HYGIENE

The Committee on Mental Hygiene of the New York State Charities Aid Association, now entering upon the third year of its work, is increasing the scope of its activities by undertaking on a larger scale medical social service work with incipient mental cases.

In co-operation with the Manhattan and Central Islip State Hospitals, the committee opened this month a dispensary for nervous and mental diseases at 295 Henry Street, to be known as the East Side Clinic. This will be open every day in the week but Saturday and Sunday. The large staff and the number of hours that the clinic is open make possible the careful treatment of a considerable number of mental cases. It is expected that when the plan is well under way patients will be referred to the clinic by social workers and agents of various charitable organizations. Many will come directly as a result of information received from friends or relatives, and from press notices. Others will be referred by the Nurses' Settlement which is close by. It is expected also that arrangements will be made with some of the near-by general dispensaries for referring their mental cases to it.

In addition to the patients coming from these



various sources it is planned to have many of the recovered patients discharged on parole from the Manhattan and Central Islip State Hospitals report there during parole period. A recent law provides that the hospital superintendents may at their discretion discharge any of their patients on a parole varying from one to six months. The parole period is designed to be a trial home visit and is given in cases where the patient is not entirely recovered, or if entirely recovered, needs some medical guidance for a few months after the regular hospital treatment is discontinued. The parole system has not met all the expectations of those interested in its establishment, for the reason that it has been impossible in most of the hospitals to induce more than a small percentage of patients to visit the hospital in person during their parole period for the purpose of receiving medical advice. It is thought that many more will visit the clinic than would go back to the hospital because of its greater inconvenience and also because many patients would be more willing to attend a medical station outside of the state hospital limits.

The medical social service work with incipient cases began recently when Katharine Tucker became assistant on the staff of the committee. The wide distribution of literature on the causes and prevention of insanity during the past year has resulted in a large increase in the number of individuals making application for advice and information. Miss Tucker, who graduated from Vassar in 1907, received her R. N. from the Newton Hospital in 1910. Later she did volunteer work in the social service department of the Massachusetts General Hospital and then took charge of the tuberculosis social service work in the University of Pennsylvania Hospital in Philadelphia. Following that she had charge of the social service department of the New York Dispensary. Miss Tucker will interview patients suffering from incipient mental diseases in their homes, in the office and at the dispensary. A careful study of the environment and family history will be made for the purpose of doing all that can be done to check the approach of mental trouble. Accurate records will be kept of the histories of these patients for their immediate value in solving the individual problems and for the purpose of demonstrating the value of social service work in the prevention of mental diseases. These records may also be used to furnish scientific data on the relation between heredity and environment and the causation of insanity.

The committee is also establishing a bureau of information on the causes, prevention and treatment of insanity, will furnish promptly upon application from any part of the state of New York advice as to what steps should

be taken in securing the examination and treatment of persons apparently suffering from mental disease; what public and private hospitals in any given locality treat mental diseases; what means are available for obtaining in any locality competent medical treatment of cases of mental disease in their homes or at dispensaries; recent literature and addresses by authorities upon mental hygiene and the causes and prevention of insanity.

#### A CO-OPERATIVE GROCERY IN BOSTON

The city of Boston has just seen the establishment of a co-operative store following the model of the Rochdale institution. Some five hundred employes of four mercantile establishments have organized what is to be known as Everybody's Co-operative Grocery Store. Two classes of members are provided for by the constitution: directing members, limited to the payroll employes of the four establishments, and participating members who are not so limited. The rights and privileges of members of each class are identical except that only directing members have a right to vote.

The business of the association is conducted by a Massachusetts corporation with seven stockholders who hold their stock as trustees for the association and its members and act as directors of the corporation. These stockholders are elected by the directing members and may be removed by a three-fourths vote. Each member, directing as well as participating, pays a membership fee of five dollars which entitles him to share in the profits of the establishment, and the store's net earnings are distributed among all the members in the proportion that the purchases of each bears to the total sales.

The association operates under a strict rule of cash sales and is starting its career under no load of office expense, only the ordinary wages being paid. But one salary is paid and that to the superintendent, this, however, being no more than a similar position would carry in any establishment.

The constitution provides that 5 per cent of the earnings may be set aside for educational purposes, and 10 per cent for a reserve fund to be used at the discretion of the stockholders, and intended chiefly as a protection against unexpected demands.

The establishment of this institution is due largely to the initiative of William E. Butler who, in conjunction with Ralph Albertson, not only is largely responsible for the plan followed, but made its speedy accomplishment possible by the loan of \$10,000 to the association.



# CIVICS

## THE ALLEY HOMES OF WASHINGTON

THOMAS JESSE JONES

CHAIRMAN OF THE HOUSING COMMITTEE OF THE MONDAY EVENING CLUB, WASHINGTON, D. C.

After forty years of agitation and search for ways and means to eliminate the blind alleys of Washington, they still remain to spread crime and disease throughout the beautiful city and its inhabitants. Two startling facts should have swept these alleys out of existence years ago. One out of every three children born in these by-ways dies within the first year of life. To make matters worse these houses with their diseases and crime fill the center of many blocks rimmed with splendid houses and hotels.

A glance at the map of Washington shows the dangerous proximity of these disease centers to the best residential blocks of the city.

Blocks containing inhabited alleys are indicated in black on the map below. The transverse lines divide the city into the four well-known sections with the capitol buildings at the center. According to this map, based upon official records of the District of Columbia, no part of the city south of Florida Avenue is free from the contagion of the alley. Even the White House, and the northwest section, famous for its palatial homes of national rulers and foreign ambassadors are not free from these menacing blots. In this section, the dwelling place of the élite, there are 161 blocks with alleys containing 1,940 houses. Only a narrow street separates the magnificent marble offices of the United States senators from Schotts Alley where, during the Christmas holidays last year, a drunken brawl ended in murder. In the southwest the alley blocks extend in almost solid color to the grounds of both the national capitol and the

White House. Altogether there are in the city 275 alley blocks containing 3,337 dwellings and approximately 16,000 inhabitants.

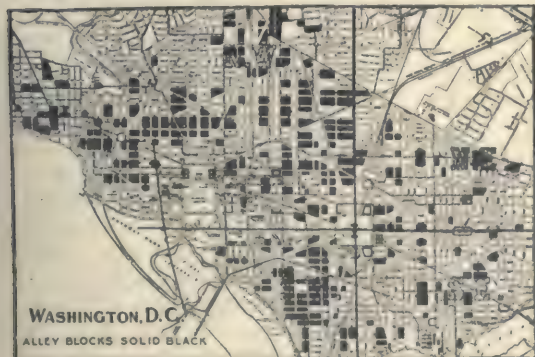
The report of the health officer of Washington for 1910 gives some significant figures on health conditions in the alleys. The following table presents a comparison of the number of deaths per thousand persons for streets and alleys:

DEATH-RATE PER 1,000		
AGE	ALLEYS	STREETS
All ages .....	30.09	17.56
Under 1 year .....	373.49	158.66
1 to 4 years .....	30.82	16.75
5 to 20 years .....	7.84	5.25
Over 20 years .....	27.05	18.08

The most striking difference in these rates is that for children under one year of age. According to the health officer, 373 alley children out of every thousand under one year old die every year as against 158 deaths of children living on streets. In other words, for every three deaths of infants living on streets, there are seven of alley children. For all ages it is seen that there are thirty deaths per thousand among alley dwellers while there are only seventeen per thousand of the street inhabitants.

The menace of the alley is further seen in the following four most common causes of death in 1909. The figures in the table state the number of deaths per 100,000 of street and alley residents.

CAUSE OF DEATH	WHITE		COLORED	
	ALLEYS	STREETS	ALLEYS	STREETS
Pneumonia .....	310.9	117.9	432.8	188.1
Tuberculosis ....	186.5	121.2	621.3	433.7
Whooping Cough?	62.2	5.3	21.9	15.6
Diarrhoea				
(Under 2 years)	62.2	36.8	321.6	137.8



WHERE EVERY THIRD BABY DIES.

October 19, 1912.

For the white population the highest death rate is caused by pneumonia; among the colored people tuberculosis leads with the high rate of 621 deaths per 100,000. In every instance the rates are higher for the alley population than for





AN UNTRAINED, BUT WILLING NURSE.

the people living on the street and, with one exception, the mortality of the colored people exceeds that of the whites.

Significant as these statistical comparisons are as a measure of unnecessary suffering and needless loss of life, they are far more significant—they are even startling when they are understood as a measure of contagion and infection from the alley inhabitants to street population. Fortunately or unfortunately, I am not sure which, the insanitary houses of most cities are localized in certain sections away from the homes of the prosperous. This separation affords some protection. In Washington this is not the case. The alleys are in every section south of Florida Avenue. Disease in them, therefore, means more than the suffering and death of alley population; it means the possible and even probable infection of the comfortable and supposedly sanitary houses of the streets. One need only recall the typhoid fly and the malaria mosquito and their trips from the house of the poor to the house of the rich to realize the close relationship that may be established between the consumptive of the alley and the resident of the street.

One of the obstacles to the reform of these conditions has been the inability of many people to understand the real complaint against the blind alley. These people visit the alleys and find many of them paved. In increasing number water and sewer connections are being made. The substantial brick houses to be found in a large number of them help to allay the anxiety of this occasional visitor, and he is quite apt to return from his slumming trip with the feeling that the dangers of alley life have been exaggerated. Such a visitor misses the real danger of this blind street formation. The most potent cause of disease and crime in these places is not a lack of paving or a lack of water or a lack of sewerage facilities—but seclusion from the helpful criticism of the passer-by, seclusion too frequently from the overworked building inspector and health agent, seclusion from the policeman whose large beat does not allow time to enter every alley. Seclusion is the almost in-

evitable consequence of an alley with the usual H formation. Some have a much more irregular shape.

On the straight street one policeman can keep several blocks under his observation. In the H-formed alley, it is necessary for him to enter every part of each alley. Seclusion is the explanation of the alley house which "looks all right but isn't." These were the significant words of a regular visitor to one of these fairly respectable looking little brick houses in which there were five cases of tuberculosis and two deaths in one year. Could we add to the definite statement of the alley deaths, an equally definite measure of the crime in these hidden corners, scattered throughout the city, the picture would be even more startling. As it is we can only give the testimony of the policemen on the beat who are always complaining of the difficulty of giving effective attention to the blind alley and who in the southwest always go in pairs after nightfall.

Objectionable and dangerous as these alleys have been since the Civil War, the history of the effort for legislative treatment of the condition is a story of forty years of struggle which has borne but comparatively little fruit. On almost every occasion the forces of selfishness have succeeded in overthrowing any appeal to Congress for a systematic treatment of all the blocks infected with these by-ways. It was in 1872 that the first act providing for the condemnation of insanitary dwellings became effective. This act was in force until 1880 when greed succeeded in having the act omitted from the health regulations of the District. After twenty-six years of inaction, the condemnation power was re-enacted and vested in the Board for the Condemnation of Insanitary Buildings (May, 1906). The work of this board in regard to alley houses from 1907 to the present year is summarized below:

YEAR	NUMBER OF ALLEY HOUSES		
	EXAMINED	REPAIRED	DEMOLISHED
Total .....	582	315	375
1907 .....	175	33	89
1908 .....	156	64	124
1909 .....	79	50	52
1910 .....	94	97	68
1911 .....	78	71	42

According to this table an average of seventy-five alley houses have been destroyed annually during the last five years. At this rate it will be at least forty years before Washington is rid of the 3,337 houses now forming these 275 dangerous centers of contagion. Other than the re-enactment of the condemnation law, only one act affecting the general alley situation has been



passed since the Civil War. This was the law of 1892 forbidding the construction of dwellings in alleys less than thirty feet in width.

An adequate record of the various movements for eliminating the alleys of Washington would require pages. The continued services of Dr. Kober and General Sternberg in this cause merit the gratitude not only of citizens of Washington but of all who are interested in the sanitation of the national capital. Undoubtedly the most effective presentation of this problem has been made in *Neglected Neighbors* by Charles F. Weller and in the report of the President's Homes Commission in 1908. Yet even these stirring publications together with the testimony of Jacob Riis that the Washington alley is worse in many respects than the New York tenement did not result in any organized effort to change the alleys into minor streets or eliminate them as dwelling places.

Of the 258 inhabited alleys in Washington today there are

88	that	contain	from	1	to	4	houses	each
70	"	"	"	5	to	9	"	"
34	"	"	"	10	to	14	"	"
24	"	"	"	15	to	19	"	"
36	"	"	"	20	to	29	"	"
23	"	"	"	30	or	more	"	"

The alley problem has confronted the citizenship of Washington and the patriotic citizens of the land for forty years. Some progress has been made in the improvement of the inhabitants of these places by the Associated Charities and by the churches. Every department of the District government is doing better work than ever before, though they are seriously handicapped by the inadequacy of their inspection force. Special praise should be given to Dr. W. C. Woodward, the District health officer, who against the odds of insufficient appropriations and a small number of inspectors, has succeeded in reducing the death rate and improving health conditions even in the alleys.

Some alleys have been eliminated to meet the demands of commercial enterprises. One disreputable place was converted into a minor street by assessments upon neighboring property equal to the cost involved in the change. Further application of this method was stopped by a Supreme Court decision in 1907 which cast doubt upon the legality of this form of assessment. At the last session of Congress \$78,000 were voted for the change of the most notorious alley in the city into an inner park. This year the commissioners are planning to attack four more alleys.

But in spite of all these accomplishments and plans, there is no plan to attack the problem as a

whole. A careful study of the whole situation leads to the conclusion that the final solution of the alley problem awaits the aroused public interest of the nation. Let us add to our plans for a city beautiful, a demand for a city pure. Let the women's clubs of the land, the civic associations of the nation, and political organizations of every state and city unite in the call for a national capital that shall be both beautiful without and clean within.

## A WASHINGTON ALLEY

WILBUR VINCENT MALLALIEU

Snow's Court is a labyrinthic interior alley in the center of a large city block. It has one entrance, a twenty-foot passageway leading from the thoroughfare, although there is another ingress for the initiated through a private five-foot alley winding in from Second street. This particular court has been a festering sore in the District of Columbia for years. Old inhabitants say that it has been notorious as far back as they can remember. Charles F. Weller in *Neglected Neighbors* in the National Capital says it illustrates the failure of the retail method of dealing with the complicated alley problem. In this book he shows that in 1908 after four years of agitation, the only improvements made were "the reduction of the number of people sleeping in a pestiferous barn and the demolition of seven extremely dilapidated shacks." Since 1908 no advance has been made and the conditions condemned in 1905 still exist.

The court consists of forty-seven houses in eight separate rows facing five distinct alley streets. There are many blind pockets and hidden ways



SMOTHERING THE SMELL WITH A BLANKET  
The linen of the prosperous hangs in the stench.



amid the irregularities of the fences. Most of the buildings are brick, but there is one row of "shabby frames which are like the rough shanties of a lumber camp," only less sanitary. According to the police census of 1909, the latest figures obtainable, there were living in the court 204 persons, three of whom were white and the rest colored. All the inhabitants are colored with the exception of the family which keeps a little store.

The location of the court is strategic because of its relation to a large colored population to the west and southwest of it. It is almost immediately connected with Hughes Court, another interior alley. The two form one underworld community. The situation is also strategic because it is near a prosperous part of the city, which must be kept from retrogression. Within a radius of little over a block, there are eight well-known public institutions.

As to health conditions, while the death rate for the alley dwellers is higher than that of the street dwellers, in the Health Department's subdivision district in which Snow's Court is situated, the death rate for the colored alley population is even higher than that for the city at large. In 1909 the death rate per thousand for the alley colored for the whole city was 31.94. For this particular district it was 34.14.

The sanitary inspector never visits the court without finding something wrong to report. His note-book is full of entries relating to filth and disordered plumbing. He has recommended that the wooden houses be removed and also that the whole place be cleared out for an open court or possibly a playground. But as the owners or agents of the property keep up repairs above the minimum required by law, nothing has resulted from his suggestions.

Other social workers have also recommended the demolition of several of the houses but without success. They urge that a house may be safe from a builder's viewpoint and yet totally unfit for human habitation owing to long continued infection. The rotten houses and filthy sanitary arrangements here are such disease breeders that nothing but destruction could ever disinfect them.

It is the opinion of the instructive nurses that Snow's Court is one of the worst in the city. "They groan whenever they hear of anyone moving in." There are always cases for the baby nurse and the tuberculosis nurse. In the recorded cases of last year, which is but a small proportion of the total number, there were four of tuberculosis in different houses and ten calling for the care of babies, several of whom died. One case on file is that of a woman who has brought into the world her seventh illegitimate child. Practically every house in the court has been entered on call by the regular nurse within the past year.

As most of the people in the court are either laborers or servants, and are usually in demand, the economic situation is not so acute. Yet even in this respect there has been need of help. Twelve families were cared for in the past year. In one house the father died two years ago leaving six children. The oldest, a girl about sixteen years of age, had been ill for two months when the visitor was summoned. She lay upon a couch in the front room exposed to every one passing. Recently when the visitor was present, three men came in who evidently were very much at home. A fourth shied off when he noticed the stranger. The widow is now an expectant mother. The family pays \$9.50 per month for four rooms and a shed kitchen which is in miserable condition. The backyard was full of ashes and trash. Yet linens laundered here are beautifully white and well done. They are kept in the room with the sick girl who is suffering from glandular tuberculosis.

Another mother was left a widow last September and moved into the court in November with her four children ranging from a girl of eleven to a boy three weeks of age. They have two wretched rooms for which they pay six dollars. The back room is used for a kitchen and dining room and the front room as a bed room for the entire family, including an aunt who is a confirmed drunkard. When the visitor first entered this house, the kitchen was piled up with cinders, ashes and pans of garbage from which food was being picked for the children. There was one bed and a couch which opened out to a half-bed, a small stove, a broken chair and a cupboard for food, all in the most filthy condition imaginable. The drunken aunt takes care of the children while the mother works as a vegetable cook in a cafe. It is thought that this aunt is a distributor of cocaine but no definite proof has been obtained. The attention of the Associated Charities was first called to the family by a report that a twelve-year-old girl was found begging in one of the parks. It was the oldest child who was relating a false story.

The moral conditions in such a secluded inclosure as this court can scarcely be imagined. The police who have to do with it agree in speaking of its disreputable character. One officer has remarked that it is the worst place in the United States and that there is no crime unknown to it. The police blotter of the precinct shows that from March 1, 1911, to March 1, 1912, there were 114 arrests among the 204 men, women and children living in Snow's Court. The charges were drunkenness, disorderly conduct, assault, unlawful assembly, larceny, cruelty to animals and accusations relating to sexual crimes. Nor does this number of cases represent all the evil, because it does not take into account residents of Snow's Court arrested in other precincts, nor does it include the mischief done in Snow's Court



by inhabitants of the neighboring alleys and residents of other parts of the city.

The probation officer of the juvenile court considers the alley one of the worst in the District. She has visited it at night and has seen it at its worst. According to her report, in the summer, the backyards are often veritable beer gardens with beds, tables and chairs. Young people congregate here unsupervised by older persons. Cases have been brought before the court for fornication and a number of women are criminally syphilitic. Young men loiter about the entrance to the court. Cocaine is sold under the name of candy but the guilty persons have so far escaped conviction. There are three saloons in the immediate neighborhood.

On the front of one shack there was formerly a crude sign reading, Charitable Baptist Church, and announcing services. Report declared that the man in charge was "not capable of doing any body any good." The Alley Improvement Association has been holding a Sunday-school in Snow's Court for the past three years. While the officer of this association has no interest in singling out this court as a locality of specially deep depravity, he says that it is as bad as any in the city. Every one with knowledge of alley conditions speaks of this court as superlatively bad. The Sunday-school under this association is in charge of two students from Howard University. The work naturally is carried on under difficulties. Sometimes after a woman has granted the use of her front room for the meeting, her husband comes in crazy drunk and breaks it up. Once a service was conducted in a crowded room with the head of the house lying dead drunk on the hearth. To leave this house for another was to fall perhaps into something worse.

Does this work do any good? Undoubtedly. Men, women and children have been led out to churches, better Sunday-schools and good influences, which in all probability would never have reached them but for the religious effort in the alley itself. But does this work solve the problem? Not in the least. For as fast as any one is benefited and has kindled within him the desire for a better way of life, he moves out of the alley. In this he is rightly encouraged. But others move in and the conditions remain unchanged. The simple folk from the country who take their places are most vilely corrupted by influences many times stronger and more continuous than those of the Sunday-school. The situation is like that of a leaky boat where the water rushes in faster than it can be dipped out. The trouble is not that there are no agencies hard at work bailing. The real difficulty is that the boat is rotten.

Snow's Court is a peril to our capital's life. Only an awakened public conscience that shall demand the abolition of this and other pest centers will rid the city of very grave dangers.

## JOTTINGS

### TOWN PLANNING IN FRANCE

The chorus of praise and comment on the town-planning act of Great Britain has made people overlook the fact that France has its counterpart in the Beauquier town extension bill. The act provides that within five years after its passage each urban district containing ten thousand or more people shall prepare a plan for its improvement and extension. "This shall determine position of public squares, gardens, parks and open spaces; shall fix the width of roads; direct the manner of construction of houses; and in general shall establish the proper development of the towns on hygienic and artistic lines."

Each plan must be approved by the Department Bureau of Hygiene and by the Commission on the Preservation of Sites and Places of Natural Beauty and Historic Interest. The plan must also be subject for a year to public criticism before its adoption. Once finally approved, it is to remain in operation for thirty years when it is to be renewed or modified. During all this time extension and improvement must be made in accordance with it.

### "BARKING FOR A LIVING"

The phrase "barking for a living" in this country conjures up a picture of the man in front of the circus side show who invites the public to see the "Wild Man of Borneo" and the other marvels of the world. But Paris has a company of barkers of a more literal kind. To qualify one must be able to imitate perfectly every variety of canine yelp. Candidates for the post of "dog-revealer" must submit to a rigorous test. They are tried literally on the official dog. If they satisfy that discriminating animal they are appointed at an initial salary of \$30 a month.

The duties are simple. Each night the "dog revealer" barks for five minutes outside of every house on a pre-arranged beat. If the dwelling contains a dog it replies with enthusiasm and the "dog-revealer" takes down the street number. On the following day the license office examines the records to see if the house owner has paid a dog tax. If he has not an action is brought against him.

### PEOPLE'S CLUB HOUSES FOR MINNEAPOLIS

The last annual message of James C. Haynes, mayor of Minneapolis, shows how widespread throughout the country is the movement for social activities, administered by local governments. The mayor's program calls, among other things, for the appointment of a commission to investigate and report on the feasibility of a municipal fuel-gas plant, and for the taking over by the municipality of the lighting companies and applying the profits accruing from their plants to the construction and maintenance of People's Club Houses, which should furnish throughout the winter such social recreation as do the parks and playgrounds in summer. Such public center would in his opinion go far toward reducing vice and crime.



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# HEALTH

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## WHEN SOCIAL WORKER MEETS HEALTH OFFICER

JOHN IHLDER

To social workers perhaps the most interesting thing about last month's annual meeting of the American Public Health Association, held at Washington, D. C., was the program and point of attack of the new sociological committee. Those who found their chief interest in this quarter moreover escaped from what many called an overcrowded program, for the sociological section alone had limited the number of formal papers so that there might be ample opportunity for discussion. And of this opportunity full advantage was taken. In the general sessions especially was the program overcrowded. On Friday evening, for example, there were the election of members, reports from the executive committee, from the advisory council and from each of the five sections, the election of officers, miscellaneous business, and then the presentation and discussion of eleven formal papers. Some of the discussions were vigorous, but people who stayed to the close became weary.

The chairman of the sociological committee, John M. Glenn, who is director of the Russell Sage Foundation, brought out in his report the close interrelation between social work and the older branches of the association. He said:

"The purpose of this section is to increase the social worker's knowledge of health problems and his interest in them; to bring social worker and health officer into closer touch with each other with a view to securing closer and larger co-operation between them; to bring to both a clearer recognition of the fundamental relation between social and health problems; and thus to develop the potential power of both to win and hold the interest and support of the public."

The report then defined the functions of social worker and health officer, and showed how intimately these functions bring the two together in their common desire to conquer the twin evils, poverty and disease. If such contact results in co-operation both will be strengthened; the health officer has legal authority which may be of great value when exercised in aid of social betterment, the social worker has opportunities to reenforce the health officer by securing for

him public sympathy and support, needed legislation, adequate appropriations and a larger staff.

This relationship was discussed further from the social workers' point of view by Homer Folks, secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association, who declared that the social worker, if he is to preserve his mental and moral integrity, must be interested in the prevention of poverty and that the health officer, in seeking to prevent disease, is doing exactly the same thing, though he designates it by a different phrase.

From the health officer's point of view the subject was presented by Dr. W. F. Snow, secretary of the California State Board of Health, who laid a little more stress upon the aid which the health officer can give the social worker. Dr. Snow instanced a case in which the California State Board of Health, by officially endorsing a certain campaign of education undertaken by a social agency, had contributed very greatly to its success. He found fault, however, with the methods of social workers who disregard the health officer. Such a worker, on finding bad conditions, instead of going to the health officer for co-operation, or without knowing that the health officer lacks power or equipment to deal with the evils in question, gives publicity to his discoveries and to his demand that the health department cure the evils forthwith. This naturally prevents co-operation.

Dr. Snow's accusation brought an answer from Philip Jacobs of the Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, who said that he is constantly receiving complaints from local workers who find that municipal health officers refuse to co-operate with them. This started one of the liveliest discussions of the conference, the health officers claiming that there are among the social workers a proportion of "office fussers," to quote one of the speakers, who are trouble makers, while the social workers dwelt upon the tendency, especially in cities where social work is comparatively new, of health officers to resent any suggestions from those who have no official position. Dr. Woods of Indianapolis described as a hopeful sign the increasing attention given to sociological work in the medical schools, but other speakers thought that even more encouraging is the fact that in cities where social work has become firmly established and where social workers and health officials have consequently been brought into long and close contact there has already developed a co-operation which is bringing about the results desired. It is chiefly in those parts of the country where the social workers are now breaking ground that the problem is still serious, and



such discussions as this where each side has opportunity to present its point of view must hasten the time, it was argued, when co-operation will be general.

Another aspect of the large problem of co-operation was touched upon by Selskar M. Gunn of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. In urging closer team work between the public health and police authorities, Mr. Gunn argued that since there are few sanitary inspectors, each with a large district, and many police officers, each with a small district, the police should be used to inspect daily the cleanliness of out premises. When there is question, the matter should be referred to the health department. This, he believes, would not interfere with inspection as carried on at present. The opinion of police authorities secured in various parts of the country differed as to the feasibility of the plan.

At the other session of the sociological section, Dr. George Thomas Palmer, superintendent of the health department of Springfield, Ill., spoke on the Diagnosis of a Sick City, and Wickliffe Rose, secretary of the Rockefeller Sanitary Commission, described rural sanitary surveys in the South. Both speakers confined themselves closely to the investigation of existing evil conditions and the education of the community as to the significance of those conditions. The discussion turned upon the necessity for making a constructive program an integral part of a survey. In both cases inadequate toilet facilities had been found to be the most important evil. In the case of the city the constructive program could easily be formulated, as experience with similar conditions in other cities has led to the enunciation of the well defined policy—abolish all privies and install indoor, sewer connected water-closets. In the case of the country, no policy has been clearly stated. Mr. Rose's paper, which dealt chiefly with the close relation between hook worm disease and lack of sanitary toilets, contained no suggestion for the future except the use of that hitherto undiscovered thing, a sanitary privy. The best now in use is the L. R. S. barrel privy which the commission rates at 100, solely, it must be remembered, on the score that it does not appreciably pollute the soil. Next in order is the water-tight, fly-proof bucket privy which is rated at 75. From this the various types are listed down to "no privy at all," a very common occurrence, which is listed at 0.

One of the delegates from Porto Rico led the discussion of Mr. Rose's paper, describing the success which has attended the hook worm fight on the island, but he admitted that there has been no constructive policy designed to safeguard against a recurrence of the trouble, giving only his personal opinion that the owners of plantations should be induced to build latrines and compel their peons to use these structures so that the soil may not again become polluted.

The hookworm disease appeared constantly in the discussions of the conference and added interest was given it by the presence of two boy sufferers from North Carolina, one almost cured,

the other now in a most serious condition. These exhibits were enough to convince any sceptical northern delegates of the seriousness of this malady and of the tremendous importance of the work being done in the South to wipe it out.

Dr. C. E. Terry surprised many of the northern delegates by declaring that the Negro race is not increasing in southern cities. It has long been known that the Negro does not hold his own in northern cities. Dr. Terry's figures, based on investigations in Jacksonville, Fla., tend to show that not only is the Negro death rate large, but that it is larger than the birth rate, due mainly to unsanitary living conditions. These conclusions are corroborated by investigations made by Dr. E. C. Levy in Richmond, and by the National Housing Association, which has found an unusually small proportion of children among southern urban Negroes. According to Dr. Levy this condition is not confined to city Negroes but obtains also among those in the country districts about Richmond.

At a time when the high prices of food are a matter of almost universal concern, the argument advanced by Prof. William T. Sedgwick of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, for less "fussiness" may obtain a more respectful hearing than it would under other circumstances, though the lack of enthusiasm in the audience which heard him did not promise immediate concurrence. Professor Sedgwick recalled the distressful times in Ireland at the time of the Irish famine and intimated that we of bountiful America may some day have a like experience if we do not stop throwing away good food. By this he did not refer to the overuse of the garbage pail, but to the strict enforcement of our pure food laws. "Suppose there are blood rings in the egg, what is the harm?" he asked. "An egg may have a spot and yet the greater part of it be wholesome food. Use a little common sense and use them for food. If your oysters are polluted, cook them and use them for food: if the milk is a little low in standard, cook it and use it for food; and if there is a little tuberculosis in beef cattle, use parts which are not affected."

#### SUNDAY, OCTOBER 27

Sunday, October 27, is being given almost a greater social burden this year than it can stand. Not only has the National Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis designated it as tuberculosis day, but the American Prison Association, following an established custom, has chosen it as Prison Sunday. One hundred thousand churches and religious societies have been asked to observe it in the interests of tuberculosis prevention, and boards of charities, prison associations and other bodies in all the states are seeking to make prison reform the chief topic of conversation on that day. Many people are asking whether either cause will get the aid which it deserves. In the long run the conflict may prove beneficial, for a movement has already been started among various organizations, including these two, to make a schedule which will prevent such a possibility in the future.



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# INDUSTRY

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## WHAT IS THE MINIMUM WAGE?

ARTHUR N. HOLCOMBE

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The time is ripe for a statement regarding the minimum wage. No plea is wanted, but an explanation and a discussion of the part it should play in the program of the social reformer. The enactment of a minimum wage law in Massachusetts, the adoption of a constitutional amendment authorizing the enactment of minimum wage legislation in Ohio, the endorsement of "minimum wage standards for working women" by a great political party, all within the last six months, indicate that the minimum wage has been brought down out of the realm of the "ideologists" and become a tangible proposition for practical Americans.

Readers of *THE SURVEY* do not need to hear an argument for the minimum wage. Since the International Conference of Consumers' Leagues unanimously recommended it to its members four years ago, the advocates of the minimum wage have actively urged their cause in this country. The most convincing and at the same time the most accessible pleas for the minimum wage are the two reports by Mrs. Florence Kelley for the Committee on Standards of Living and Labor to the National Conference of Charities and Correction of 1911 and 1912.<sup>1</sup>

The Massachusetts act of 1912 is a typical minimum wage law. It instructs the governor to appoint a commission of three persons, and authorizes this commission to establish minimum wage boards for the determination of the wages of women and minors in any occupation in which the commission has reason to believe that the wages paid to a substantial number of the employees are inadequate to supply the cost of living and to maintain the worker in health. A board will be established by the election of an equal number of representatives by the employers and employees respectively, in an underpaid occupation, and by the appointment by the commission of a smaller number of representatives of the general public; or the commission may appoint the representatives of all parties concerned. It should be observed that the law contemplates the establishment of minimum wage standards above the amount required for the bare cost of subsistence. "To maintain the worker in health" means to provide him or her with the means of a

wholesome and sane livelihood, to enable him or her to lead the life of an active, intelligent, free American. In short, the object of the minimum wage is not merely to maintain life in individual workers but to maintain the American standard of living in the working classes. The Massachusetts law, it is true, applies only to women and minors; but the Ohio constitutional amendment authorizes the enactment of legislation for men as well as for women and minors.

The Massachusetts law is frankly an experiment. Its operation must be judged in the light of the purpose underlying it. The term "minimum wage board" suggests the minimum wage boards which have been in use in certain Australian states for nearly a score of years, but the purpose of the Australian and American boards is not the same. The Massachusetts boards are to be constituted in much the same way as the Australian, and their procedure should be much the same. The Australian boards, however, are authorized to fix the wages for adult men as well as for women and minors and for skilled, well paid workers as well as for unskilled underpaid workers. The Australian boards in practice have greatly diminished the evil of sweating, that is, of persistent systematic underpayment of unskilled labor. They have also served as potent instrumentalities for industrial peace for all grades of labor. The boards contemplated by the Massachusetts act of 1912 are not intended to deal with the problem of industrial peace except in so far as that problem is affected by sweating. They are intended to deal with the sweating problem alone.

The Massachusetts law, moreover, does not give to the commission the power to forbid the payment of less than the minimum rates fixed by the wage boards. If two-thirds of the members of a board agree upon a schedule of minimum rates, the commission is authorized to notify all employers and employees concerned and, thereafter, if the employer fails to pay at least the rates fixed by the board, the commission may give public notice of such delinquency by advertisement in the local press. Public opinion is thus relied upon to provide the necessary sanction for the observance of the minimum rate schedules. The Ohio constitutional amendment gives the legislature unrestricted power to estab-

<sup>1</sup>Reprints of these may be obtained from the National Consumers' League, 105 East 22d Street, New York.



lish and enforce a minimum wage. Clearly the people of Ohio are willing to see the principle of the minimum wage applied to men as well as to women, and enforced by such means as may in the judgment of the legislature be necessary. This grant of power makes it possible to apply the principle of legal protection to the standard of living in a more logical manner than has been done in Massachusetts. So long as the unit of society is the family, the standard of living can not be effectively protected unless a minimum wage can be determined for all its members. The Massachusetts law should put a stop to the worst forms of exploitation of female labor, but it can not effectively protect the standard of living so long as the supply of male labor is uncontrolled. The people of Ohio have voted for a thorough and consistent policy for the protection of the standard of living.

The minimum wage is a measure of social reform which can not stand alone. It must be supported as an indispensable plank in a broad platform. The state which undertakes to set up minimum standards of remuneration for normal workers is substantially undertaking to guarantee the wage-earner from poverty resulting from the special cause of underpayment. If this attempt is to be made under the most promising conditions, it must be made as part of a general effort to combat poverty by striking its causes at their roots. The minimum wage must go hand in hand with insurance against accident, sickness, old age and unemployment. Furthermore, the state which undertakes to set up minimum standards of remuneration must also undertake to set up minimum standards of efficiency. The minimum wage must therefore also go hand in hand with better industrial training and vocational guidance.

It is not the purpose of the present article to set forth in any systematic way the case in favor of the minimum wage. But it is desirable to consider briefly the arguments commonly advanced against it.

These arguments are of five sorts. First, the opponent of the minimum wage may object that there is no need for additional legislation to prevent underpayment. Readers of *THE SURVEY* know that more drastic action of some sort to prevent the exploitation of unskilled and low paid workers is necessary. Uninformed persons, however, will often deny the existence of any considerable amount of underpayment in this country. The only effective reply to such persons is to point to the facts. These facts may be most copiously found in recent reports of the Federal Immigration Commission and of the Federal Bureau of Labor. Particularly, the immigration commission report on immigrants in cities and the bureau of labor report on Women in Industry are most illuminating sources of

information. These reports, unfortunately, are not easily accessible to all. Interested persons can find this information conveniently summarized in Scott Nearing's book on Wages in America. A thorough discussion of the question, What ought the American wage-worker to earn in order to live in decency, as distinct from the question, What does he earn, may be found in Mr. Streightoff's book on the standard of living among the American working classes.<sup>1</sup> I have put together the most significant evidence on this subject in an article on the minimum wage in the *American Economic Review* for March, 1912.

Secondly, there is the objection that the establishment of minimum standards of remuneration by authority of law is inexpedient. Those persons who make this objection are not necessarily either ignorant or heartless. They may be simply the victims of a false theory. Persons who have been trained in the evolutionary philosophy are apt to assert that wage-workers tend to receive what they are worth, that to pay the least efficient workers more than they are worth will encourage inefficiency, that if the competitive system is permitted to operate undisturbed, the least efficient workers will be eliminated by natural causes and thus in the long run the prosperity of the working class as a whole will be best promoted. Such stated rather baldly is the argument of the *laissez faire* doctrinaire. Those who advance this argument today are guilty of assumptions that are contrary to fact. It is not true that unskilled and low paid workers today necessarily get what they are worth. Some underpaid workers are the victims of brutal employers. Others are the victims of social and industrial conditions wholly or largely beyond their control. The evidence of these statements may be found in the report of the Massachusetts Minimum Wage Commission to the legislature of 1912. Individual action, even voluntary collective action, as through trade unions, has proved utterly incapable of dealing with brutal employers or with the stubborn facts of social and industrial environment. Nothing short of public legal action will meet the necessities of the case.

Thirdly, it may be objected that the plan of fixing minimum wage standards by special boards is impracticable. We can only reply that we believe the contrary, and in support of our belief, we appeal to the success of such boards in England and Australia. The earlier history of the Australian boards is well described by Victor S. Clark in his book, *The Labor Movement in Australia*. Since the publication of Mr. Clark's book

<sup>1</sup>Standard of Living among the Industrial People of America, Frank H. Streightoff, Houghton Mifflin Co. 1911.



six years ago, the system of minimum wage boards in Australia has been greatly extended. It was the good results obtained in Australia that induced the British Parliament three years ago to provide for the establishment of minimum wage boards in Great Britain. The results of the British legislation are clearly and fully described in an article by E. F. Wise in the *American Economic Review* for March, 1912. The experience of Australia and Great Britain affords ample ground for the belief that the machinery for the establishment of minimum wage standards will work in America.

Fourthly, it may be objected that certain alleged pernicious consequences will more than outweigh any possible benefits. For example, it is sometimes asserted that the establishment of minimum wages for low paid workers will inevitably lead to the reduction of wages of high paid workers. This assertion is fallacious. The price of skilled labor depends on the supply of such labor and its value to the industry. The supply of such labor will not be increased nor will its value to the industry be decreased by the fixing of minimum standards of remuneration for unskilled labor. Again it is asserted that the fixing of minimum standards of remuneration will throw the least skilled workers out of employment. In so far as underpayment is the result of the inability of the worker to secure the true value of his services by individual bargaining, this assertion is not true. Some workers, however, are not worth a minimum standard of living wage. This unfortunate class exists anyhow whether the minimum wage is provided for or not and the establishment of the minimum wage will make it easier to deal with this class more effectively than heretofore, either by the extension of industrial education and vocational training or otherwise. Instead of discouraging the minimum wage will tend to encourage efficiency.

Again, the opponents of minimum wage legislation assert that there are industries which cannot afford to pay standard of living wages. The only answer to this argument is that if there be such pauperizing industries, the country would be better off without them. However, no evidence that such industries actually exist in the United States has yet been made public. Another form of this argument is that the industries of a given state cannot bear the establishment of minimum wages until minimum wages are established in similar industries in other states. This argument, however, is advanced against every proposal for labor legislation and requires no special consideration in connection with the minimum wage.

Lastly, when all other arguments fail, the advocate of minimum wage legislation is told

that his proposal is unconstitutional. This argument evades the merits of the question. It is obviously not intended to convince the reformer of the un wisdom of his proposal but to discourage him from attempting to put his proposal into effect. The advocate of the minimum wage, however, will not be thus easily discouraged. He will remember that the eight-hour law for women was once held unconstitutional, but that the judicial mind eventually yielded to the compelling arguments of the Brandeis brief. The constitution does not forbid the establishment of the minimum wage by law. It forbids only unreasonable and arbitrary infringements of the individual's liberty of contract. If the minimum wage is not unreasonable and arbitrary, it need not be unconstitutional. Those who are familiar with Miss Goldmark's *Fatigue and Efficiency* know how the judicial mind can be convinced of the reasonableness of a legislative measure, even in the face of adverse precedents. Certainly the present Massachusetts law is not unconstitutional. If the Massachusetts law conferred mandatory powers as recommended by the original minimum wage commission instead of merely recommendatory powers, the law doubtless would still be constitutional. If a minimum wage law should be enacted applying to adult males as well as to females and minors, as authorized by the recent constitutional amendment in Ohio, the case would be somewhat more doubtful since the state constitution cannot authorize legislation in conflict with the federal constitution. Since the twentieth century definition of the police power by Justice Holmes in the *Oklahoma Bank Guarantee Law* case, the power of the state to protect its citizens even against such evils as underpayment is apparently secure. The advocate of minimum wage legislation will not be discouraged by the alleged unconstitutionality of his proposal.

## HISTORY OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

ANNIE HOWES BARUS

"The story of woman's work in gainful employments is the story of constant changes or shiftings of work and workshop, accompanied by long hours, low wages, insanitary conditions, overwork, and the want, on the part of the woman, of training, skill and vital interest in her work." With these words Helen Sumner<sup>1</sup> summarizes her findings after a careful study of the conditions which brought woman into industry as a wage-earner, and has kept her there for over a century. An impartial reader of her historical evidence can but assent to this verdict, despite its severe arraignment of modern civilization.

<sup>1</sup>Report on Condition of Women and Child Wage-earners in United States, 10 vols., Vol. IX, History of women in industry in the United States, prepared, under the direction of Charles F. Neill, commissioner of labor, by Helen L. Sumner, Ph. D.



The establishment of government and state bureaus of labor and statistics within the past thirty years has put a mass of reliable data at the disposition of a student of present-day conditions. In consequence Miss Sumner wisely placed greater stress on the early years of factory and work-shop life as the material for this study of early conditions only became available within recent years, having been buried in rare old pamphlets and newspaper files.

The unpaid woman worker within the home with her distaff and spinning-wheel has from time immemorial been an important factor in production, though the character of her contribution to the economics of society has been frequently overlooked, probably because it received no remuneration. It is as a re-adjustment of industry rather than as an economic revolution that the unparalleled change in woman's labor since she has become an industrial wage-earner is presented in this study.

Omitting agricultural pursuits and the professions, the industries in which women have been at work are grouped into six classes. In four of these, viz., the manufacture of textiles, the clothing and sewing trades, domestic service and the preparation of foods, women are shown to have continued their traditional occupations.

With the introduction of machinery they were compelled by the pressure of want and necessity, despite popular prejudice against women working outside the home limits, to follow their trades into the mills. At the outset they held almost entire possession of the textile industry. Later the division and subdivision of labor made possible by improved machinery, the incoming of immigrants, the practical shutting down of many cotton mills during the Civil War and the consequent dispersal of their skilled women weavers completely changed the ratio of men and women operatives in the cotton mills until today women number less than fifty per cent. And the percentage is constantly decreasing as the requirement that one hand shall tend an increasing number of machines makes the weaver's task too severe for women.

The gradual loss of opportunities in the textile factories led to women seeking employment elsewhere, and without training they could only secure unskilled positions. As unskilled workers they entered the printing shop, the book binderies, the paper manufactories, etc. They forced their way as strike-breakers into the tobacco industries and a certain natural deftness of hand has kept them there in considerable numbers.

Into the needle trades early in the past century drifted a large number of dependent women whose legitimate employment as "spinsters" had been taken from them by the displacement of the home by the factory products. The pressure brought to bear by competition in this trade presents one of the most pathetic phases of the sacrifice of woman's vitality in the long period of labor re-adjustment. The average pay of a worker in a textile factory from 1833 to 1850 seems to have been about \$2 a week plus board. The latter was estimated from \$1.25 to \$1.50 a week. This wage of \$3.50 made it difficult for

households in the neighborhood of mills to retain their servants, as the pay for domestic service, which had gradually risen from 50 to 70 cents a week in the early days of mill opening, had not kept pace with the rise of wages in the factories, and was but about \$1.50 in 1850.

A study of the wages paid in the sewing trades at about the same time made by Matthew Carey, the champion of the underpaid seamstress, gives the following estimate of receipts and expenditures. It is valuable for comparison with similar studies of working women's budgets today:

44 weeks' work at \$1.25....	\$55.00
Lodgings, 50 cents a week, per year .....	\$26.00
Fuel, 25 cents per week (but say 12½) .....	6.50
	<hr/> 32.50
Amount left for victuals, clothes, etc., per year.....	\$22.50

A committee of ladies "of respectability, intelligence, and competence to decide the subject" whose names were suppressed "from motives of delicacy" stated he had overestimated the number of shirts a seamstress could make in a week as well as the average rate of pay. A new compilation based on their figures gave but six cents a day as available for food, clothing, and other necessities. "It may excite wonder," he said, "how seamstresses, spoolers, etc., are able to support human nature as their rent absorbs about two-fifths of their miserable earnings. The fact is they generally contrive to raise their rent by begging from benevolent citizens."

It is interesting to find as early as 1845 an appeal to consumers in the *New York Tribune* to use their purchasing power to secure openings for the employment of women in dry-goods shops as salesgirls and relieve the pressure of competition in the clothing trade. The same method was urged that the Consumers' League now uses to protect girls from the bad working conditions in department stores. "Our women of intelligence and means," suggests the *Tribune*, "should take compassion on their less fortunate sisters and for their sake refuse to trade where they cannot be waited on by females."

It was assumed that when women replaced men in the shops they would receive the same pay for similar work, no account being taken of the fact that, as Miss Sumner puts it, "when women replace men the standard of wages in the occupation tends to be reduced to the level of women's wages in other occupations."

The increase in the employment of women in the past decade in the trade and transportation group of industries forms one of the most salient features in modern industrial history. Such employment calls for a better education and more training than is needed for unskilled work in factories and work-shops. There has been so eager a response to the openings on the part of native-born women and girls that the payroll, except for specially gifted workers, does not show a much higher average of wages than women



secure in the manufacturing industries. The social prestige of such positions seems in part to offset this low wage in the minds of the workers.

That phenomenal publication, *The Lowell Offering*, the one picturesque episode in cotton-mill history, which fixed upon the coterie of Lowell mill girls the attention not only of the literary world but of students of economics, seemed to make possible the dream of such a wholesome inter-play of life and labor that the working life might blossom into poetry and fiction. Miss Sumner's narrative of mill conditions at that period makes *The Offering* appear still more extraordinary.

With a twelve to thirteen hour labor day; a system of blacklisting that would not be tolerated in any mill community at present; a "paternalistic" supervision that insisted on church attendance, but did not pay the pew rent and which in some cases even forbade dancing; with ill-ventilated and overcrowded sleeping quarters in the company's boarding houses, the splendid resiliency of the spirit of these mill girls gives one cause for wonderment and, incidentally, throws a side light on what must have been the dreariness of their farm homes, since the tonic of companionship, even under such wretched conditions, stimulated their imaginations.

"We are confined," writes Harriet Farley, in an editorial in *The Offering*, "but a life of seclusion is the lot of most New England females. We have but few amusements, but 'all work and no play' is the motto of this section of the Union. We breathe the close atmosphere, but ventilation is not generally better attended to elsewhere than in the mills. We are better and more regularly paid than most other female operatives. Our factory life is not often our all of life." This latter assertion may refer to the fact that a number of these mill operatives were accustomed to return to their respective villages and teach school for a portion of the year at one time.

The cotton-mill history is an index of the migration of unskilled labor into the country. The period of American operatives ended before the middle of the century; the Irish who replaced them were in their turn largely replaced by the French Canadians who came into the states shortly after the close of the Civil War, while within the past decade the southern and southeastern races of Europe have been crowding out the Canadians.

Athwart the black shadows cast by the conditions under which women have been exploited for this long period of time can be seen some glints of hope for future betterment in the fact that legislation has reduced the hours of labor; that the social conscience is gradually awakening to a realization that the hardships formerly tolerated as economic necessities may be lightened by such further legislation as a minimum wage, and that the abilities and aptitudes of the individual will be better gauged and trained for industry in youth when the public school system is re-adjusted as a vital part of an industrial democracy. The recent rapid growth of the idea of the value of trade unions for women

workers must be counted as a factor in securing better wages in the future. The gradual withdrawal of the sweated trades out of the homes by factory competition as well as by legislation, and the probable recognition as woman gains wider political influence of her right to equal pay for equal work in positions connected with the state and government are tendencies making toward the acceptance of the justice of her claim to a living wage.

Whether these ameliorations in the lot of the average working woman will make it possible for her to have an interest in her work if it remains of the monotonous character which division and subdivision of labor have made imperative, and which bears no relation to her hopes of future marriage and family life, is somewhat questionable. It may be that before the lapse of another century some re-adjustment of industrial conditions will make it possible to meet the drudgery of life by the method said to be suggested by the late Prof. William James of drafting into the industrial army of the world for brief periods of discipline and social service the youth of the country.

The careful survey Miss Sumner has made of the field of woman's industry outside the home will undoubtedly be of permanent value in helping to interpret and forecast future developments in such labor.

## THE EIGHT-HOUR LAW

JOHN A. FITCH

One of the most important labor bills passed at the last session of Congress was the eight-hour law applying to government contracts. This law provides that in all future contracts involving the employment of labor, to which the United States, the District of Columbia or any territory may be a party, there shall be a clause stipulating that the hours of labor shall not be in excess of eight per day. There are a number of exceptions to this general provision; the most important having reference to contracts for transportation by land or water, the transmission of intelligence, the purchase of supplies and the construction or repair of levees or revetments on navigable waters.

What effect this law will actually have on industry remains to be seen. If rigidly enforced, it will of course go much further in its application than to government contracts. A plant working on government orders could not very well meet the requirements of the law with respect to those particular orders without applying the eight-hour day also when working on private contracts. It would also be difficult for a plant to be divided, one part of it working on government contracts under the eight-hour day and the other part on private contracts on a longer day. There have already been suggestions that the law is unconstitutional and it will undoubtedly go to the courts for a decision before it has been in effect long. It may be, too, that the law will be nullified in some of its important provisions on account of a certain looseness in the wording of the part providing for exceptions, especially



that part declaring that it shall not apply to the purchase of supplies or of such materials as may usually be bought in open market. In specific terms, however, the purchase of armor plate is included in the law, and this will have a far-reaching effect upon those steel mills now providing armor plate for the government.

This bill, as a matter of course, aroused the opposition of manufacturers during the period prior to its passage and it is still being discussed in a hostile spirit by some of the leading trade papers, especially those devoted to the iron and steel trade. The *Iron Trade Review* of July 4 declared, in an editorial discussing wages and prices, in which it was claimed that wages have been constantly advancing while prices of steel have either remained stationary or declined, that "the suggestion that the twelve-hour day give place to a three-shift system is particularly out of place at this time." In an editorial in the *Iron Age* of June 27 the statement is made that "the eight-hour day will come when our economic conditions favor it, but never by force, even though it takes the semblance of law."

In view of these statements consideration may well be given to conditions in the steel industry at the present time. Ever since the publication in the *Iron Trade Review* of the editorial referred to above, prices of steel have gone steadily up and they are still rising. There has not been an issue of either of these important trade papers since the first discussion of the eight-hour law that has not described the booming prosperity of the steel mills. By the middle of September orders for 1912 delivery were no longer being accepted and only last week it was reported from Pittsburgh that "many manufacturers in this district already have booked sufficient tonnage to necessitate mills operating at capacity well into the second quarter" [of next year].

The *Iron Trade Review* tells us that the demand for labor in order to get out the piled-up orders has grown so keen that the missions and rescue stations of the great cities are being called upon to assist in meeting the heavy demand for labor by furnishing a large quota of reformed down-and-outers.

In connection with the eight-hour movement it is interesting to observe what has happened in another country. In 1907 John Hodge, secretary of the British Steel Smelters' Union, proposed to the steel manufacturers of South Wales that they should adopt an eight-hour day in their open-hearth furnaces. After considerable discussion and after one company had made a trial of the plan for a year, the Employers' Association of South Wales agreed to this proposal. Confronted then, as they were, with the practical difficulty of getting men in case all of the steel companies adopted the eight-hour day at once, it was decided to leave the working out of the plan entirely in the hands of John Hodge, all decisions with regard to the time of adopting the plan to be left to him. As a result of this agreement, Hodge designated the time when each company in turn was to go to the eight-hour day.

The first mill went on eight hours in 1907. The last mill in South Wales to adopt the eight-hour day went on that schedule June 17, 1912. By this gradual process the industry was not disturbed by any sudden and violent change. So satisfactorily was the whole matter worked out that recently an official of the Employers' Association of South Wales testified before a government commission that they would not think of being without the union. There may be a suggestion for American manufacturers in this little incident in collective bargaining in another country.

### THE FURRIERS' STRIKE

On September 8 a settlement was reached in the strike which the furriers of Greater New York had been maintaining since June 20. New York is the largest fur-manufacturing city in the world. There are 800 shops and 10,000 workmen, skilled and unskilled.

A few of the skilled men, numbering about 300—all of them German immigrants—have had a union for a number of years known as the Furriers' Union of New York and Vicinity. It is a conservative union devoted to the interests of skilled men alone, maintaining different sorts of benefits, but it had utterly failed to bring about any important improvements in conditions in the trade.

Five years ago an attempt was made to organize the whole industry into a union. Some success was attained in organization, but in a strike which was called the men lost and the union was disrupted. A few have maintained the organization and last winter, beginning in December, 1911, it renewed its activity and the men began to join in large numbers until finally it had a membership of over 6,000. This organization is known as the Furriers' Union of Greater New York.

During the strike just closed there were a number of serious grievances against which the men felt they had a right to protest. In many ways, the most important was the lack of regulation with regard to overtime work. The men had a nominal working day of nine hours with a six-day week, but the custom was to require them to work seven days a week with many hours overtime each day during the heavy season which extends from September to January. Overtime in varying amounts was paid, but it did not prove sufficiently burdensome to discourage the practice of requiring overtime work. The effect of the long hours was further accentuated by the fact that the industry is a dangerous one because of the liability to occupational disease.

Another grievance was with regard to wages paid. As many as three separate scales were paid the same men each year. A skilled worker would get about \$12 a week in January, \$20 a week in May and during the heavy season from September to the end of the year, he would get as much as \$30.

The settlement which ended the strike did not definitely settle all of these grievances, but it did provide the machinery for settling them and opened the way for future adjustments. The



employers did not entirely recede from their claim that during the rush season the men should be employed every day in the week, but they did agree to a forty-nine hour week with the payment of time and a half for all overtime and to a half holiday on Saturday, not to be encroached upon even in the rush season. No definite scale of wages was agreed upon, but it was provided that there should be two price adjustments each year instead of three.

Further than this, the most important terms of the settlement were with regard to sanitary conditions and the future settlement of grievances. It was provided that no work was hereafter to be taken to employes' homes and that equivalent conditions should prevail in all outside shops as in the inside shops. This is a very important provision, for some of the employers had been having only a small part of their work done at their places of business and the larger part in unsanitary tenements on the East Side. This rule will either clean up the tenement shops or drive the work into the factory of the owner. It was provided also that a joint board of sanitary control, similar to the one now operating in the cloak and suit industry, should be established. As to the settlement of further difficulties, a conference committee has been established consisting of eleven members, five representing the employers and five the workers, the chairman to be elected by them and representing the public. The choice of the committee for chairman has fallen upon Dr. J. L. Magnes of the Jewish Community.

The importance of this strike and its settlement lies in the fact that a hitherto unregulated industry, where conditions seriously affecting the health and welfare of the workers had previously been allowed to exist, is now to be subject to supervision not only of committees representing the workmen but of the interested public as well.

#### HOURS OF LABOR IN FRANCE

A recent consular report<sup>1</sup> contains a brief account from Consul General Mason, at Paris, regarding legislation regulating hours of labor in France. In 1848 a decree was issued establishing twelve hours as a maximum in manufactures and workshops. In 1892 a statute was enacted limiting hours for women and children. In 1900 a new law made eleven hours a maximum for establishments employing men on the same premises with women and minors. This law further provided that the maximum should be ten and one-half hours after 1902, and ten hours after 1904. In 1905 a law was passed applying to mining operations alone, limiting the day's work to nine hours, and providing that in 1907 the limit should be placed at eight and one-half hours, and that in 1909 it should be further reduced to eight hours.

It was found in practice that the strict enforcement of the general law of 1900 "entailed difficulties in the management of certain industries,"

so in 1902 a decree was issued that greatly impaired the effectiveness of the law. A list of exceptions were published allowing overtime from one-half hour to four hours in the case of certain industries, some continuous and some not, and in certain cases allowing overtime to an unlimited extent.

As to the enforcement of these laws the report very naively says:

"It is to be remembered that France is a republic; the working classes are independent citizens; they are for the most part industrious, frugal and zealous in all that relate to their earnings and income; and many resent any interference which by restricting their hours of labor must diminish their earnings.

"It results, therefore, that in certain classes of employment, particularly the manufacture of millinery, women's clothing, hats, etc., in which many thousands of skilled operatives and needlewomen are engaged in and about Paris, the laws limiting hours of daily labor are enforced with great leniency, in many cases not at all. The employe by working overtime in busy seasons earns the privilege of being retained when others are discharged during the seasons when trade is dull.

"Factories and machine shops which have important orders to fill within a prescribed period frequently obtain permission from the local inspector of labor to work their employes two, three or even four hours overtime, generally with the proviso that proportionate free time shall be given when the urgent work is completed and the stress is past.

"France realizes the extreme importance of enabling its manufacturing industries to maintain their highest standard of productivity, especially in all that relates to export trade or competition with the industries of other nations, and the labor laws are enforced in a spirit of benignant consideration for the material interests involved."

Discussing the effect of this legislation, the report states that labor cost has in some cases increased. Especially is this true where the machinery is driven by power "independent of the physical strength of the operative," where a reduction in hours means a decreased output. A further effect noted is that "the shortening of the labor day has been followed in French factories by a great increase in the system of piecework, under which operatives who formerly worked by the day of eleven or twelve hours now work by the piece, so that the work performed, not the time consumed, forms the basis of compensation. Moreover, the most intelligent employers find that the effective daily capacity of most employes, especially in occupations which require the exercise of manual skill or mental intelligence, is practically limited to ten hours. 'Better ten hours of good, earnest, intelligent work,' said the director of a great electrical manufacturing company, 'which leaves the workman time to take some recreation and care for his family, than weary, listless service after the physical energies have been exhausted.'"

<sup>1</sup>September 27, 1912.



## JOTTINGS

## PUBLICITY AND INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

The New York Labor Bulletin for June contains an interesting account of how Commissioner Williams and the State Board of Arbitration brought an employer and his employees together and ended a strike. The cotton spinners at New York Mills went on strike last March their demands being higher wages, the abolishment of fines, the discharge of a disliked superintendent, and the improvement of the company houses.

Representatives of the Bureau of Arbitration made repeated attempts to induce the officials of the company to meet a committee of men to discuss grievances, all to no avail. Finally in April, Commissioner Williams served notice on the mill owners that unless they made announcement through the press of their willingness to meet their employees, and fixing a place and time for such a meeting, he would at once begin a public investigation of the strike. The company replied by publishing an announcement, in the press, on April 18, in which they agreed to meet their employees and named a place and date. On April 20 and 22 conferences were held, resulting in an adjustment satisfactory to the workers, including a 12 per cent advance in wages, the employment by the company of an interpreter to hear complaints, and the improvement of company houses.

This incident illustrates the power for social betterment possessed by the State Board of Arbitration when supported so vigorously by the commissioner.

## WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

Three very useful publications on workmen's compensation have recently been issued. In Part I of the Thirteenth Biennial Report (1911-12) of the Bureau of Labor, Industries and Commerce of Minnesota, Don D. Lescohier and Arthur O. Garrison discuss important technical points, summarize the various forms of compensation law passed in the last two years, give the text of the recent court decisions in compensation, outline the principles underlying the different laws and give an elaborate table of all the compensation laws so far passed. This Minnesota report is even more inclusive than the excellent table prepared by *Human Engineering* a few months ago. The tabulation shows three compulsory and eight elective compensation laws, three compulsory and four elective insurance laws.

The July Bulletin of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin contains, besides a full study of the first year under the state action, a comparative review of all the acts now in operation in the country. A supplement is devoted to the year's industrial accidents in Wisconsin.

Another handbook of American compensation laws has been lately prepared by the National

Association of Manufacturers in co-operation with the Manufacturers' Association of Connecticut which can be obtained from the National Association, 30 Church street, New York, for fifteen cents. This digest is arranged for subject reference under the matter covered by the various clauses of the state laws with marginal notes giving state and section of the law.

## OREGON INVESTIGATION OF WOMAN AND CHILD LABOR

The Consumers' League of Oregon will present to the Oregon Legislature in February, 1913, a bill for the creation of minimum wage boards for those industries which employ women and children. In order that the campaign may rest upon a well-grounded foundation of facts, the league is conducting a thorough survey into all conditions pertaining to the life of the working woman and child in the home and in the factory. The investigation is divided into the following heads: 1. standard and cost of living; 2. housing; 3. wages and hours; 4. sanitary conditions under which women and children work; 5. legislation concerning the four topics; 6. education and recreation in their relation to the efficiency of the workers.

The work is in the hands of experts and all sources are being drawn upon for information and help. The recreational survey is in charge of L. H. Weir, field secretary of the National Playground Association. Caroline Gleason, a graduate of the University of Minnesota, has charge of the industrial survey.

## MATERNITY INSURANCE IN ITALY

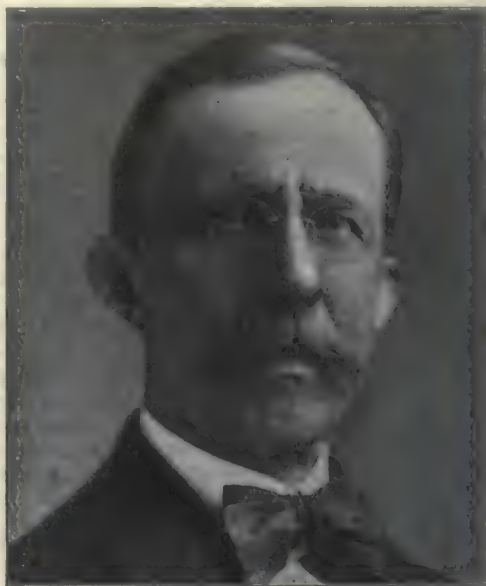
Italy joined in 1902 the few European states which have established laws for the better protection of women working in industrial occupations after confinement. This law prohibited women from working for a month after confinement, but contained no provisions about the collecting of funds from which the expenses could be defrayed. For this reason the regulations were generally disregarded, and women went back to work as soon as they were able to do so.

At the end of April of this year a new law came into force. All women in industries between fifteen and fifty years of age belong now to an obligatory maternity insurance fund. The employer pays the dues of twenty to forty cents a year, and is allowed to deduct half the amount from the wages. These dues, together with fines of employers for violation of the law and a government subsidy, make it possible to give in case of confinement or miscarriage \$8. It does not make any difference whether the woman is married or not. Mother and child are thus taken care of for at least one month after the birth of the infant. The Italian law requires, further, that a factory with more than fifty women workers must provide a decent room in which mothers can attend to their babies and nurse them. Frequently, large factories have a kind of day nursery with a trained nurse in charge. Infant mortality has been greatly reduced among industrial workers.



# CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR



GRAHAM TAYLOR

Warden of Chicago Commons, member of the faculty of the Chicago Theological Seminary, who will edit this department. Communications should be addressed to the western office of *THE SURVEY*, 116 Michigan Avenue, South, Chicago.

**U**NDER this title the action of religious bodies—Jewish, Roman Catholic and Protestant—which seem to have greatest social significance will be concisely reported and commented upon from month to month. \* \* \* Among many signs of better times coming is the growth of the common ground upon which church workers and social workers meet, mingle and exchange values.

That religion and society, the church and the community, have values to exchange becomes clearer in the consciousness of those working for each. Indeed, it becomes more and more evident that work truly done for one serves the other. Though not identical in aim or method the church and community cannot be separated.

\* \* \*

*If the community fails the church cannot succeed.*

*If the church fails the community is not successful.*

\* \* \*

Reciprocity is more and more sought by each. The church needs the social spirit and method of the best work for the community. And social work no less needs the spiritual ideals, sanctions and passion which religion only can give to any and every kind of service.

The common ground upon which this religious consciousness in social work and this social consciousness in religious work are being born anew is growing under the feet of those most actively and effectively at work for their fellowmen. The National Conference of Charities and Correction, with Roman Catholic, Jewish, Protestant, and Ethical Culture members equally interested and active, is a new kind of "Ecumenical Council," which broadens the ideal and scope of the service which the early church sought to render when it was one in all the world. Church assemblies and missionary conferences, congresses of social workers and gatherings of specialists vie with each other in laying both the religious and social emphasis upon the same aspect of human life.

In the process, work for the individual becomes no less indispensable but all the more effective, and work for the community becomes no less socialized for being more personal and human.

\* \* \*

It is being demonstrated to the church and community alike that while it is good to reform it is better to form; while it is good to dispossess wrongs it is better to pre-



*occupy and prepossess with the right. While sometimes it is necessary to be negative it is stronger to be positive and affirmative; while it is good to know and teach and legislate what not to do and what not to be, it is better to preach and practice what it is best to do and be; while destructive aims and methods are demanded, yet both church and community far more need constructive ideals and executive ability to realize them.*

\* \* \*

THE SURVEY aims to be part of this common ground on Mother Earth upon which workers in the church and community, working for distinctively religious or social ends (if indeed they are to be distinguished) meet and mingle for mutual interpretation and co-operation in serving the common human cause.

Its contributors bring to its columns information about the social work of the churches and synagogues such as does not fail to interest and inspire social workers. They bring the record and challenge of social achievements which are new and suggestive to church workers. These contributions find place in Trend, in Common Welfare paragraphs, in editorial comments, and contributed articles. They will continue to be scattered through our general pages.

But in this new department, THE SURVEY will be able to give more consecutive and inclusive service than heretofore. Editors and readers will alike be largely indebted for material to the executive officers of the various denominational social service boards, and other agencies fulfilling the same function. Items of news bearing on church and community experience are sought from all those who in each religious fellowship are actively at work on the common ground where "religion in action" trenches upon the field of THE SURVEY.

\* \* \*

Communications should be addressed to the editor of this department, Prof. Graham Taylor, at the Chicago office of THE SURVEY, 116 Michigan Avenue, South, Chicago.

#### FEDERATION FOR SOCIAL ACTION

The growing co-operation of Protestant churches is nowhere faced with greater or more practical opportunities than through the Commission on the Church and Social Service, through which the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America seeks to fulfil its social function.

This commission is now reinforced by a Secretarial Cabinet, consisting of the secretary of the commission and the eight secretaries of the denominational social agencies representing the Baptist, Congregational, Episcopal, Methodist and Presbyterian churches.

A series of social service handbooks is now in course of preparation. Among the helpful publications already produced by these co-workers are a brief bibliography for the study of social and industrial questions; a reading list outlining a course on social subjects for ministers and social workers; and a social service catechism. The commission has just brought out a very useful volume on the Social Creed of

the Churches.<sup>1</sup> In order to interpret each of the thirteen articles in the declaration of social faith adopted by the Federal Council in 1908, brief studies of these tenets are presented. These include the conditions demanding the declaration; what is being done or proposed to meet the demand by official or voluntary action, and what the churches may do in co-operation with these endeavors, or through their own initiative. This joint work by a group of twelve men has been so effectively collaborated by the editor, Harry F. Ward, as to present a unity and progress of thought unique in a symposium. The hard facts of working conditions bearing upon the character, development and destiny of men, women and children for whose interests the church stands, are combined with the urgency of Christian ideals and obligations to indicate the points and methods through which the church should apply its standards to life. References to accessible sources of information and lists of ques-

<sup>1</sup>Social Creed of the Churches, edited by Harry F. Ward. Eaton & Main.



tions leading out to the study of conditions in local communities enable the reader to put the manual to very practical use.

### VIEWS OF CATHOLIC SOCIETIES

A significant recent event in the rapidly developing social service of the Roman Catholic church was the eleventh national convention of the American Federation of Catholic societies held at Louisville the latter part of August.

Attended by many of the most distinguished prelates of the church and by hundreds of representatives of federated societies, representing twenty-six states, the District of Columbia, the Philippine Islands and Porto Rico, and solemnized by the highest ceremonials of the church, the convention, as reported in the September number of its bulletin, presents an impressive survey of the varied and vigorous social agencies of the American Catholic church. The movements receiving special emphasis were those against divorce; against indecency in the theater and theatricals; against immoral pictures, statues, post cards and books; against the white slave traffic; and, in every utterance and the work of every agency, against socialism.

Among constructive actions taken by the federation were resolutions appealing to all citizens to further the abolition of unnecessary labor on Sunday; urging the religious care and humane treatment of prisoners; exhorting all Catholics to labor for the peace of the world; and demanding a living wage, reasonable hours of labor, protection of life and limb, abolition of child labor, just compensation for injury, proper moral and sanitary conditions in the home, shop, mine and factory; sympathizing with organized effort and conservative trade unions; recommending co-operation with other institutions providing for the welfare of the more handicapped members of society, the immigrant, the colonist, the unorganized worker and the helpless; endorsing social study circles, lecture conferences, institutes for merchants and mechanics, and the study of co-operative movements, especially among foreigners.

The Social Service Commission of the federation, created last year by the convention held at Columbus, held its first general conference, with Bishop Muldoon in the chair. In speaking to the subject of social service, Michael Fanning, a West Virginia coal operator, urged co-operation with the Consumers' League and attributed most of the improvement in working conditions to organized labor. Professor James Haggerty of Ohio State University, estimated the unorganized workers' chances for organization and a living wage. The creation of public opinion for the promotion of social legislation was urged as a prime function of these federated societies by Peter J. McArdle, of Pittsburgh.

The bulletin of the federation, which is published monthly, gives a survey of Catholic social activities and contains a social service section edited by Rev. Peter E. Dietz, who with some Catholic trade unionists, organized two years ago The Militia of Christ. The stated purpose of this organization is to unite leading Catholic men and women in the crafts and professions and in social service to bring under the standard of religion the industrial relations, the interests of labor and capital, and particularly the labor unions.

The great federation of all Catholic societies and the organization of the National Conference of Catholic Charities and of this new industrial order, mark a new advance in social service in the American Catholic Church. So, too, does the use of parochial school buildings as neighborhood social centers in Chicago and elsewhere.

### LIGHTNING FROM THE TEMPLE

The lightnings which flashed from Sinai of old continue to strike out from the temple of the same name in Chicago. The following is part of a letter mailed to candidates for elective offices in the pending campaign:

To the Honorable—: Congregation—, one of the largest and oldest Jewish temples of this city, will give a bazaar and ball, the proceeds to be used toward our new temple. We herewith enclose tickets, feeling that your candidacy will be greatly benefited by your disposition thereof, as the attendance at this affair will be of such a cosmopolitan class of voters that cannot be reached by any other medium. Trusting that we may have the honor of your presence, and assuring you that our combined efforts will be used in supporting you at the coming election, and thanking you in advance for your favor in assisting this most noble cause,

Yours respectfully,

P. S.—It was unanimously voted that a list of all the names of those candidates that will make their remittance will be inserted in our souvenir program, also their names will be mentioned during the approaching holidays.

Dr. Emil G. Hirsch scorched this impiety in a recent issue of the *Reform Advocate* with such a stroke as Chicago has rarely, if ever, seen excelled, even in all the destructive and constructive work the rabbi of Sinai Temple has so valiantly done for a score or more of years:

"Sense of duty impels us to republish the above piece of literature, remarkable both for its style and grammar and for the cool effrontery of its demands. Silence in a case like this on our part might be construed too readily into approval of the damnable smartness which suggested to the writers the possibilities of their shrewd scheme. They have taken unpardonable liberties with the good name of Israel's religion. They have put in jeopardy the reputation for honesty and integrity of every voter of Jewish birth in this and every other community. They have committed a veritable *Hillul-ha-Shom*, an offense so grave that it is excluded from the list of



transgressions for which *Yom ha Kippurim* is said to bring remission.

"We are sure our feelings of shame and resentment at this outrageous hitching of peanut politics to questionable devices for raising revenue for religious institutions without the slightest consideration of the good name of Judaism and the good repute of Jewish citizenship, are shared by ninety-nine out of every hundred voters of Jewish origin in this city."

### JOTTINGS

#### METHODISTS AND SOCIAL SERVICE

The Methodist Federation for Social Service, since it was adopted as the official agency of the denomination, has been so fortunate as to secure the full time of Rev. Harry F. Ward as secretary. To his editorial service of the federation he thus adds all the executive functions of the new office, which is established at 2512 Park Place, Evanston, Ill. Two state secretaries have also been appointed, the Rev. E. Guy Talbott for California and the Rev. O. H. McGill for Washington.

Social service commissions are being appointed by the annual conferences to inquire concerning the extent of seven day work. An anthracite social service mission has been organized in Pennsylvania. Pittsburgh Methodist preachers have conducted a social service forum for the discussion of municipal affairs. One of the federation's men has been appointed assistant to Judge Lindsay in the juvenile court of Denver and another has entered the service of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company's sociological department. Meetings under the joint auspices of local labor unions and Methodist ministerial associations are being successfully maintained at Elkhart, Muncie and Terre Haute, Ind. The basis of settlement that ended the corset makers' strike in Kalamazoo, Mich., was drawn up by the superintendent of the Kalamazoo district, who by request of the mayor acted as mediator.

All such local movements will gain information from the federation's publication and information bureau, inspiration from its suggestions for social evangelism, and initiative and constructive criticism from the "working plans" to be issued for the purpose of directing and testing the work of each local church.

#### UNION OF CHURCH AND CHARITY

A decided advance has been made at Buffalo, N. Y., in promoting the co-operation between the churches and the Charity Organization Society. While not yet ready to federate formally, the Protestant churches, practically all of which affiliated in the Men and Religion Forward Movement, have decided permanently to maintain common effort and to engage an executive secretary to represent and act in behalf of all of them.

The Charity Organization Society has also been moved to add a special church secretary to its staff, whose function it will be to promote and guide the co-operation of local churches with the district work of the society. Since 1885 the

city has been divided into 195 church districts, every church agreeing to care for neglected poverty in the district accepted by it, to that end supplying volunteer visitors and relief so far as it was able. The visitors and relief thus provided by the churches, however, have been placed under the direction of the Charity Organization Society. While every needy family is in the first instance referred to the church with which it has any connection, if it is still neglected the church which has assumed responsibility for the district undertakes to care for this still neglected family. The obvious advantages of this co-operation both to the churches and to the society have been somewhat offset by the difficulty of bringing the ready resource and the immediate need together and by the difficulty and delicacy in securing effective supervision. It is hoped that efficiency will be greatly increased both in administration and in the personal work accomplished by reducing the number of church districts to forty, which has already been done, and by the constant active co-operation of the two executive secretaries.

#### GIRLS' FRIENDLY SOCIETIES

The American Episcopal church renders no small part of its large social service in the co-operation it actively gives to the Girls' Friendly Society. The help extended this organization by the church is well exemplified in the conference of the society's social service associates held last month at the Vacation House at Huntington, Long Island.

The women who gathered there from eight states, representing thirteen dioceses, were leaders in some department of betterment work. The conference was devoted to a week's serious study less of methods than of the principles underlying the society's work. Courses of lectures on the social teachings of the prophets by the Rev. Ernest deF. Miel of Trinity Church, Hartford, and the social teachings of Jesus, by the Rev. J. Howard Melish of Holy Trinity, Brooklyn, emphasized the fact that industrial and economic problems, far from lying without the pale of religion are to be recognized as an essential part of the divine order of human society. Women in industry and the rural problem were the subjects of equally serious studies, led respectively by two women of large experience, Rosalie Phillips of Cincinnati and Anne Campion, fellow of the Bureau of Social Research in New York. The social service department of the Girls' Friendly Society is studying the prospect of establishing self-supporting houses for self-supporting girls.

#### SUMMER WORK FOR CHILDREN

Vacation Bible schools grow apace. In five years they have increased from 19 to 160; the children attending them from 5,000 to 38,000; the teachers from 70 to 700 and the cities maintaining them from 4 to 24. Over 700 college men and women engaged in their service last summer. The cost of the work was only one dollar for every child enrolled. The aim for 1915 is for 500 schools and 2,000 student helpers.



## MEN AND RELIGION MOVEMENT TO CIRCLE GLOBE



### FROM PERTH TO DURBAN

Route of the world tour which will carry the message and method of the Men and Religion Forward Movement into Shanghai, Jerusalem, Cape Town, and back to New York city.

In the belief that "present problems of the church are so intense that a real victory is possible only when all the forces are brought into action," an effort is going to be made in the first half of 1913 to carry the message and method of the Men and Religion Forward Movement around the world. Fred B. Smith, director of the movement, and Raymond Robins, the social service specialist, the story of whose thrilling rise from poverty and whose eloquent challenges to the church to make good in the Twentieth Century caught men's imagination's last winter, will be the chief standard-bearer in this "world gospel conquest." They will be accompanied by Harry N. Holmes of Wellington, New Zealand, as organizing secretary, and by the International Male Quartet—Gilbert, Metcalf, Keeler, Peck. The standardization of methods for making effective an aroused interest in social effort is one of the chief objects of the trip.



FRED B. SMITH



RAYMOND ROBINS

## SOME FIRST BOOKS OF THE CHURCHES' NEW SOCIAL CAMPAIGN

Wherever the churches are federating, they are undertaking, singly or unitedly, new campaigns in the local fields for social work. Next to a new comity between themselves, the greatest aim of the federated churches is to express

their common faith in terms of their common social ideals and relationships, and in united action to carry out these ideals and to realize these relationships both locally and in society at large. The first fruits of this movement of new life



in the federated churches happily took the form of a declaration of social faith, which is even more of a program for their industrial action. It was the initial utterance of their Federal Council's social service committee not only, but has been ratified by the largest denominations included in the thirty-five national religious bodies represented in the council which number no less than twenty million members. This declaration and program was followed quickly by the report of an attempt to apply these principles to the acute industrial situation at South Bethlehem, Pa., which seriously involved the local churches in the controversy between the steel workers and their employers over the right to one rest day out of the seven day working week.

Some of the first books of the new movement, written or edited by some of the men in the lead of this effort to federate the churches for social action, have already resulted in significant first acts. For instance, the two volumes of symposiums issued by the Methodist Federation for Social Service, under the titles, *The Socialized Church and Social Ministry*, led to the adoption of this voluntary society by the Methodist General Conference as an authorized agency of the denomination, with Rev. Harry F. Ward, editor of the latter volume, as the officially appointed secretary.

The latest of these attempts to give initial expression to the present phase of social faith is by Charles S. MacFarland,<sup>1</sup> secretary of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. In its aim it is typical of a group of recent publications, written to fulfil specific parts of a general purpose, so to interpret the social movement to the religious motive as to inspire its expression in social action. It is, as is each of the others, avowedly a first book. There is an unannounced but none the less manifest effort upon the part of every one of these writers to demonstrate, what Professor Rauschenbusch declares has become the fact, that to give social expression and application to Christianity is at last orthodox.

The "apologetic" trend just beneath the surface of all this literature clearly shows a sub-consciousness that the movement, however, is still under fire, and that these authors feel themselves to be still on the firing line. But their attitude is far more conciliatory than aggressive, more interpretative and mediating than defensive. They are, however, intent upon interpreting the social movement to religious people, so that it

becomes a part of their religious experience and work, rather than to interpret the bearings of religion upon social work and workers, which needs to be done just as much. Where this latter attempt is made it is incidental and in the form of very general, but not very effective, assertions of the ineffectiveness and evanescence of all human efforts without divine power, of all humanitarian agencies without personal regeneration.

To find common ground upon which to demonstrate the community of interests between religion and social progress is, as it should be, the primary purpose of these first essays to bring the two spheres together. Naturally, therefore, the religious experiences and passages of scripture most commonly identified with personal religion, are selected for social interpretation and application. Mr. MacFarland's appeal for social service, through many such passages and experiences, is that it is the incentive to, the condition of, and the expression for, spiritual culture.

Professor Batten,<sup>2</sup> who has just been chosen to be the social service secretary of the Northern Baptist Convention and the American Baptist Publication Society, writes as if he were conscious only of the dawn, referring to what is needed "at this hour of the morning." He seeks to face the crisis of the churches with that of the age, in order to summon their common Christianity to its social task as "to the new crusade." Modestly claiming new achievements for Christianity in the realm of the individual life and its more personal relationships, he insists that the best it has yet attained is not good enough to meet the need for and the tendency toward socialized life and conditions.

In so doing, however, he fails to recognize as religious, those educational, charitable and humanitarian interests which he describes as having "broken away," "slipped away" from the churches. It is surely as inadequate a view of religion as it is of social service to intimate that if social work is not under "the control of the church" it is losing "all connection" with it; that because social service has "created its own ideals and methods and much of its work goes on outside of the churches," it is therefore done "with little reference to religion." The fact is that such work is more and more identified with and considered a part of religion. And in the broader conception of the church now held very many of the agencies organized and at work beyond the immediate control of ecclesiastical authority, really are the church at work for the world. For surely the Church is greater than the churches. The animating, initiating, organizing, achieving spirit within it is greater than its ecclesiastical forms of organization.

Nevertheless, Professor Batten fearlessly faces Christianity with its social task, to socialize the individual and to christianize human society. In a very incisive and constructive way he bears this task home to the heart and conscience of the church as the supreme test of its loyalty to

<sup>1</sup>*Spiritual Culture and Social Service*, by Charles S. MacFarland. Fleming H. Revell Company.

<sup>2</sup>*The Social Task of Christianity* by Samuel Zane Batten. Fleming H. Revell Company.



its great commission and to its present opportunity. In so doing he has made one of the first constructive attempts to state the program and method of the church's social action. While dealing concretely with general terms, his broad outline includes plenty of room and many suggestions which appeal to be filled in and carried out by the worker on any local field.

The Rev. Frederick DeLand Leete, a working city pastor who has recently been elected bishop of the Methodist church, has been led by the religious social interests which he has shared to study for the last ten years the teachings underlying the movements for brotherhood.<sup>1</sup> In a rapid though interesting series of glimpses at the men and the fraternal organizations which have characterized Christianity from the earliest times, he has gathered valuable notes and references, not accessible to the general reader elsewhere, in a very readable volume and in an arrangement which facilitates ready reference. His treatment appeals to more readers and interests, because it includes the trade and social fraternities, such as the old gilds, the educational brotherhoods of teachers and literateurs, the military and secret orders, such as the old knights and the modern free masons, the humane and philanthropic fraternities, and the political, temperance and insurance or benefit orders, some of which are not usually regarded as distinctively Christian.

It will surprise most readers to know of the great variety of human service rendered at great personal cost by these volunteer brotherhoods, most of which were avowedly Christian, that long anticipated and surely led the way to the humanitarian care of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes which the tax-payers now take upon themselves. It will also be a discovery to learn how many of our most modern movements were long ago anticipated by the old church and its "brothers." Brotherhoods of bridge-builders and Christian knights kept up the highways and protected them from robbers, before the civil government attempted this task. Out of rough and dissolute freight handlers and porters in mediaeval Florence, the Christian spirit made "Brethren of the Misericordia," who still respond to the call for first aid to the injured or the last care of the dead with their litters and in the masks of their modesty. Fore-runners of our Red Cross, visiting nurses, prisoners' aid, friendly loans, legal aid, juvenile protective associations and free schools are all found in these pages to have been at work.

While the historic continuity and interest of the story drop suddenly when the attempt is made to weave the disconnected and stray threads of Protestant brotherhood movements into it, yet this compendium of their names, dates and successive aims, some finely fulfilled, more of them unfulfilled and evanescent, is all the more valuable for permanent reference because of the fugitive character of the information. The one overpowering feature of this historical review is our dependence along all

lines of progress upon the co-operative unity in the kinship of the serving spirit. This is the binding thread that gathers and holds together these scattered lives and these diverse movements in the one volume of the book of life.

Professor Alva W. Taylor of the Bible College of Missouri sums up 'The Social Work of Christian Missions' in a text-book for mission classes which is also a most readable resume which will surely interest in each other's fields those well informed about missionary and social work. Again the foreign mission field best demonstrates the common aims, the common ground and the common methods of religious and social workers. There the exigencies of the field have forced social, philanthropic, industrial expressions of the Christian spirit and the co-operative unity of the churches, faster and further than in the home lands of Christendom. If ever a reunited Christendom is achieved, it will come as a direct return, as well as by a reflex influence, from the work of the church for the world at large on foreign mission fields. The outward and inward flow of the forces and results which are making this history are well grouped in this glowing volume.

Of unique value for its suggestions of the specific needs and near-at-hand opportunities for the social work of the churches, are R. Fulton Cutting's Kennedy lectures.<sup>2</sup> They caught the overflow of his long and many sided experiences in religious work, as warden of St. George's—the first and most experienced church of the institutional type; in the administration of charity, as the president of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; in New York city politics as the former president of the Citizens' Union; in education and research as founder of the Bureau of Municipal Research, and on the board of the New York School of philanthropy, to whose students this course of lectures was delivered.

Through special inquiries made by or for him, he gathered much information of the social work the churches are attempting, fairly estimated and contrasted it with the more that needs to be and can be done by them. Then in the most enticing and encouraging way he suggests the simple and personal things which churches and their members, singly or together, can do to give and get help by co-operating with the public schools and their teachers, with policemen and officials, with departments of health and their doctors and inspectors, with agencies and agents working for child welfare and the protection of youth. Opening with the identification of the church and civilization and closing with the responsibility of the church for public opinion, this vital little volume cannot fail to vitalize the churches to do many first works needed by their neighbors and fellow citizens, their public officials and body politic as desperately as any part of the old service which religion has ever rendered the community.

<sup>1</sup>The Social Work of Christian Missions by Alva W. Taylor. Foreign Christian Missionary Society, Cincinnati.

<sup>2</sup>The Church and Society by R. Fulton Cutting. The Macmillan Company. \$1.50.

<sup>1</sup>Christian Brotherhoods by Frederick D. Leete. Jennings and Graham \$1.50 net.



# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 4

October 26, 1912

## A Tuberculosis Day Prayer

**O** God we pray Thee for all whose vigor is being drained by slow and wasting illness. Strengthen their powers as they battle for their life, and if it be possible, we beseech Thee to restore them and grant them the fullness of their years. If their strength is failing, give them courage still to labor cheerfully and to leave to those who love them dear memories of faith and patience for the distant days.

Since we are all jointly guilty of the conditions which have bred their disease, may we stand by those who bear the burden of our common sin, and set the united will of our community against this power that slays the young and strong in the bloom of their life. May this death that creeps from man to man be a solemn reminder that we are all one family, bound together in joy and sorrow, in life and death, that we may cease from our selfish indifference and together seek Thy kingdom and Thy righteousness which will bring us health and life.

WALTER RAUSCHENBUSCH

This

Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**B**ALTIMORE has worked out a plan which it is believed will abolish begging and vagrancy. Co-operation between city authorities and private charitable agencies is of the essence of the scheme. P. 89.

**T**OKIO and Berlin contribute evidence that the increased cost of living is world-wide. P. 90.

**T**HE International Prison Commission, in addition to preparing for quinquennial congresses, will henceforth be an agency for collecting and distributing information in relation to correctional and preventive methods. P. 91.

**G**OVERNOR MARSHALL, of Indiana, the Democratic candidate for vice-president, recently told the people of his state that he stood for the use of county jails only as places of temporary detention for short-term prisoners, and for other planks in the social workers' platform. P. 90.

**N**EW YORK has invited the national and county chairmen of the five leading political organizations to use public school buildings for evening mass meetings. P. 91.

**M**OST people agree that six dollars a week is too low a wage to support one young girl with no one dependent upon her, yet **THE SURVEY** showed recently that many of the women who scrub floors in New York skyscrapers receive less for themselves and families. It now turns out that the unskilled male worker in an office building in New York is in no economic position to be a married man. Thus one more industry is proved to be parasitic. P. 92.

**F**IGHTING vice in Chicago has become a game in which the whole city has taken a hand. Some recent events reviewed by Graham Taylor. P. 94.

**D**EATH has laid a heavy hand recently on New York residents known for their philanthropic activities. Bits of their work described by those who knew them. P. 103.

**I**LLUSTRATING the statement that this is indeed "the century of the child," six books dealing with various phases of child rearing are reviewed. P. 101.

**W**OMEN and the Suffrage, Living on a Salary in 1912, and other equally vital topics are discussed this week by **THE SURVEY**'s correspondents. P. 96.

**M**AYOR Lunn of Schenectady and other members of the Socialist administration have

## THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE,  
EDITOR

GRAHAM TAYLOR

JANE ADDAMS

ASSOCIATES

### A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

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#### THE COMMON WELFARE

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#### EDITORIAL GRIST

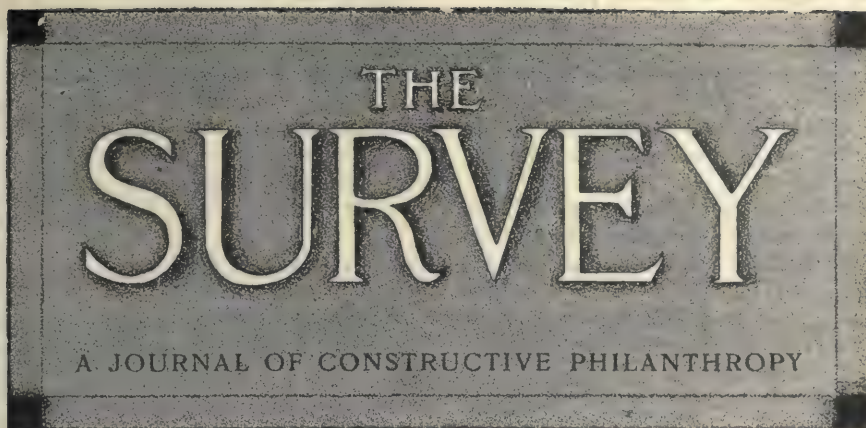
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been the central figures in a dispute with city authorities at Little Falls over speech making on the streets. One result of the disagreement was a statement from the attorney general of New York on the right of free speech. P. 93.

**O**NLY YESTERDAY my neighbor said: "I must take Charley out of school; he does not seem very well." With the dawn of a new era the parent will say: "Charley has not been very well; he seems to be pale and sickly; I must send him to school more regularly for that is the place where they keep him well."—ARTHUR D. DEAN.

**T**HERE are those who think that the city should entirely support charities of this kind. I do not think so. I never want to see private beneficence withdrawn from the care of the helpless and unfortunate. The city might raise enough money by taxation, but where would your mere office-holder get the sympathy and vision necessary to the task? These you cannot buy."—[MAYOR GAYNOR of New York at the dedication of the new cottage homes of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Asylum at Pleasantville, N. Y.]





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OCTOBER 26, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### STOPPING MENDICANCY IN BALTIMORE CITY

With the appointment recently of eight additional mendicancy officers in Baltimore, Md., increased impetus was given to a new movement to abolish begging and vagrancy in all their forms. The plan calls for the close co-operation of private charitable organizations with public agencies, such as the magistrates and the police department. It is believed to be something new in municipal warfare on the evils of mendicancy.

Like the laboratory of social hygiene established a few months ago<sup>1</sup> at Bedford Reformatory, the plan grew out of discussion at a dinner. Magistrate J. Abner Saylor, in the presence of fellow magistrates, members of the police department, social workers and others, described some of the difficulties confronting the judge who is called upon daily to dispose of scores of beggars and vagrants, many of them "rounders," to the best interest of society as a whole. He was followed by J. W. Magruder, secretary of the Federated Charities, who outlined a plan for solving the problem. This was later adopted by the city, substantially as Mr. Magruder had given it.

The new scheme, which other cities may find adaptable to their needs, calls for the creation of practically no new machinery in municipal government. In Baltimore a plain clothes man was assigned to duty as a mendicancy officer. His first obligation was to observe the distinction between beggars and vagrants, the beggar being a resident of the city, the vagrant a non-resident

or homeless person. Instead of arresting the beggar on sight, the mendicancy officer warns him that he is violating the law and is therefore liable to arrest and punishment. He conducts him to his home, leaving him there with the assurance that his condition will be reported at once to the Federated Charities, the Federated Jewish Charities or the St. Vincent de Paul Society. It is agreed by these societies that the proper one will visit the beggar promptly and deal with him as with any other case of need, guaranteeing emergency relief, investigation and adequate treatment. Thus it is rendered unnecessary, the originators of the plan contend, for him to resort again to begging. In case he repeats the offense, the officer arrests him and the proper society appears in court, along with the officer, as witness against him.

In the case of a vagrant, the mendicancy officer has no alternative but to arrest. Vagrants under sixteen years of age are taken at once before the juvenile court, to be dealt with in the same manner as other juvenile offenders. Vagrants between sixteen and twenty-one are sent to the proper custodial or correctional institution, the magistrate having no power under the law other than that of commitment. The prisoner may, however, be held in custody for a reasonable time, pending an investigation by one of the three societies mentioned. If it be ascertained that the prisoner is a runaway child, a defective or a delinquent of any kind, who should be restored to parents or friends or public authorities, the magistrate may release him in such custody as

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, May 18, 1912, page 285.



the case may require. A similar procedure is used in the case of adult vagrants, except that if the investigation requires a long time, a jury trial may be asked for by the state's attorney. If the accused be found to be a deserting husband or a mental defective, he may be released. Otherwise, he may be brought to trial and committed under the law.

It is declared that the working out of this plan has made Baltimore freer than ever of mendicants, and it was the recent increase of the staff of mendicancy officers from one to nine which gave rise to a statement that soon all of them would be removed from the streets. The following characterization of the plan is contained in a pamphlet published by the Police Department:

"It secures in every case just and considerate treatment for the accused. It guarantees to the beggar proper and adequate care; at the same time it permanently estops his begging. It protects the city against the nation-wide army of vagrants, estimated at 500,000 in number; and especially against the influx of vagrants from neighboring cities and states, where laws against vagrancy are beginning to be vigorously enforced. It is hoped that this method of individual investigation, and of fair and humane but firm and consistent treatment, will be a genuine contribution to a national crusade against vagrancy, which is now being definitely planned."

#### GOVERNOR MARSHALL ON SOCIAL POLICIES

Indiana is reaping the advantage of having long sustained one of the best of all state boards of charities and correction, under the leadership of one of the most effective secretaries—Amos W. Butler. The tribute paid to both by Governor Thomas R. Marshall on a recent public occasion was felt by those who listened to be as well deserved by them as it was creditable to him. Not the least gain to the state from their labors and his may be the fact to which the governor bore generous personal testimony that he himself had been led by them to "give up many of his own notions" in order to help along social policies in which they believed.

In enumerating some of these policies Governor Marshall took as his text the title of a sermon by Albion Fellows Bacon which appeared in *THE SURVEY* of October 5: "The Divine Call: Follow Me." The planks in Indiana's social platform for which he stoutly stood include the continuance of the careful supervision of town expenditures for relief by county authorities and the registration of every case by the state board; a farm colony for the insane, like the state's successful village for epileptics; preventive sanitary and medical care of infectious and contagious diseases; central temporary homes for dependent children, while waiting to be placed out in

families, as substitutes for local asylums, or "orphans' homes," which at best can only be "public boarding houses"; county jails to be used only as places of temporary detention of short-term prisoners, while waiting commitment to penal farms, where they should work out indeterminate sentences, "not for the state, but for their own keep and reformation and for the support of their families."

#### TOKIO, BERLIN AND THE COST OF LIVING

The New York *Sun* recently carried news letters from Berlin and Tokio, which give point to the movement urged by Prof. Irving Fisher and others for an international inquiry into the cost of living. The paragraphs were published on different pages and had no connection one with the other. Brought together, they are seen to be different faces of the same stone which the world seems to be getting in its search for bread.

The Berlin despatch tells of a series of tables based on official statistics, which have been published by the merchant elders of this German city, showing how the rise of food-stuffs has reached a point where it is provoking public meetings throughout the Empire:

"The two five-year periods, 1901-1905 and 1906-1910, are compared with last and this year and the result indicates that, apart from a decline in one or two articles in 1911, which was almost entirely due to the shortage of fodder crops and the consequent forced sales of live stock, a general and rapid enhancement of the prices of the principal articles of food has been in progress since the beginning of the century.

"As compared with the averages of 1901-1905 the prices of leading comestibles in Berlin last July showed the following increases, all by the English pound, in cents: Rye bread, .64; wheat bread, 1.48; beef, 5.56; veal, 4.9; mutton, 5.76; and pork, 4.64.

"That is to say, wheaten bread has gone up 1½ cents and meat on an average over 5 cents a pound during the twelve years covered by the figures. This rise of prices for some months past has been agitating the German nation to an unprecedented degree, and not a day passes but some municipal council or other public body makes it the subject of long and earnest deliberation.

"Hundreds of public meetings throughout the empire have petitioned for a complete or partial suspension of the import duties on food-stuffs. In particular there is a widespread demand for chilled meat, which for one reason or another is practically unknown in this country.

"Should the rise of prices continue the government will be in a very awkward predicament. Every rise in the price of food means an accession of strength to the socialists."

The Tokio despatch tells us that the death of the emperor only "temporarily checked the discussion and consideration of what remains and must remain for a long time the most important



affair in the state, the condition of the lower classes. To quote the semi-official *Japan Times*:

"The cost of living keeps going up. No one seems to be able to reach out his hands to bring the steadily ascending balloon to the ground; people helplessly watch its course and gasp. At the same time poverty walks about at large and the miseries of life increase. Above all the heads of families of the laboring class seem to have the worst allotment of miseries and tortures. Many of them are daily deserting their wives and families.

"The laboring men cannot support their families with the scanty wages they get. The little storekeepers find it impossible to balance their ledgers with the credit ahead of the debit, and are universally discouraged by dull business. At home their wives need money and their children are simply crying aloud from starvation.

"The hard pressed and miserable husbands go out in the morning to search for work and many of them never return again at night. Daily the charity lodging houses are crowded by women and children begging a night's lodging, to drift away the next morning, to return again at night starving. Many of them are sick, husbandless and fatherless, penniless and homeless. Some of them follow the paths of their husbands to death.

"The general hard times in Japan are making themselves felt in ways that mean increased difficulties for the government. The heavy increase in crime means increased outlay on prisons and prisoners' food."

#### PRISON EXPERTS TO COLLECT DATA

When the American Prison Association comes together in Baltimore next month an added earnestness may be given to its discussions by the unusual succession of convict uprisings and prison scandals which have aroused the citizens of several states the past year, notably in Nebraska, Michigan and Wyoming. Similarly, an increased interest is felt at this time in a step just taken by the International Prison Commission, which met recently in Paris to make preliminary arrangements for the 1915 international congress at London. This was the decision that the commission shall, in addition to preparing for a congress, make its central office an agency for collecting and distributing reliable information in relation to correctional and preventive methods. In friendly and helpful relations with governments and international scientific associations the commission proposes to engage in systematic investigation of the subjects which come within its scope. For this task it has some special advantages, since most of its members are officials of the national administration of prisons and all of them are officially appointed by governments and interested in private societies for the study of prison science, the care of prisoners and their families, or the reformatory and preventive measures affecting children and youth. The secre-

tary, Prof. Simon Van der Aa, is well equipped for the task of conducting this series of studies, the results of which are to appear ultimately in bulletins of the commission. The information thus collected will be sent by the bulletins to contributing governments, individuals and associations of specialists, and thus the fullest publicity will be assured.

In order to meet the greatly increased expense of this advance movement, the different governments represented will be asked to contribute the maximum amount (\$10 per million of population) instead of the minimum sum, or half the maximum, which is totally inadequate. Several governments have already intimated their readiness to pay the larger sum, and it is hoped that the United States Congress will not lag behind. Even then it is feared that the amount expected will be inadequate for the most fruitful prosecution of studies and for full publication of results; and so it is expected that private endowments or funds will be asked for this extended service. Many on the commission think that perhaps nowhere else could money be used with such good effect in the conflict with crime, with such direct command of the resources of government and of the influence which accompanies high authority.

The American Prison Association, the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology and other organizations interested in correction and reformatory measures will be invited to help promote these objects in the United States. It is pointed out that this is especially appropriate because Americans, and especially the late E. C. Wines, once secretary of the New York Prison Association, took the initiative in securing the foundation of the International Prison Commission by the action of the sovereign powers of Europe. This honor, many think, involves special responsibilities.

The commission agreed to postpone the final choice of subjects for the congress of 1915 until next year.

#### NEW YORK FOR SOCIAL CENTERS

New York has invited the national and county chairmen of the five leading political organizations to use public school buildings for evening mass meetings. The New York County Progressive Organization held the first meeting in accordance with the invitation on October 18.

This step toward the socialization of the school plant followed close upon the heels of the success of Herman A. Metz, former city controller and now a member of the Board of Education, in inducing the committee on the care of school buildings to open experimentally seven buildings as political and social centers.

The schools selected all have spacious auditoriums and are accessible from every part of



the various boroughs. For these political meetings a charge is made. The Socialist Party has decided not to accept the offer of the Board of Education on the ground that this fee, which is \$28 for five of the seven schools, is excessive.

Special agents of the Board of Education are to attend each meeting to see that school property is not abused. Their reports will go far to determine whether the newly inaugurated movement for making the school a social and political center in the community is to be extended or discontinued.

THE CUSTODIANS OF OUR SKYSCRAPERS

The figures on scrub women given by the Riverside Improvement Association of Brooklyn in THE SURVEY of June 8 reveal a woman's trade in which wages fall far below the cost of living and are supplemented by family or community aid. Six dollars is by common agreement too low a wage to support a young saleswoman with no dependent family, but it turns out to be an unusually high rate of pay among scrub women, the vast majority of whom have others dependent or partially dependent on them.

In turn, just as male salesmen are many of them unable to maintain a family on their wages, so the male unskilled worker in an office building is in no position to be a married man, in the old-fashioned sense of a father supporting his family. Taking male and female help together, office building work in New York is a clear case of a parasitic industry, which, in common with an increasing number of other industries pays wages graded to the principle that the actual modern basis of family support is the earnings of the family—mother, father and children combined. A study of unskilled male workers in twelve office buildings, based conservatively not on the statements of the workers themselves but on the superintendent's payrolls, forms an interesting supplement to the story of scrub women's wages.

These workers can be classed roughly as porters, engine-room helpers, night watchmen and elevator men. The buildings studied employed staffs of from fifteen to seventy-five, thirty being the average. There was no model building among the twelve, though one or two made a model of some one feature or some one group of workers. Some paid unusually high rates for a particular type of labor. One cut its hours down as short as possible; another cut the hours of engine-room men only on the ground that the work was especially hard; another gave a long vacation to this group for this reason; three, and only three, gave increase of pay with length of service in some occupations; another deemed

shoulder straps without increase of pay sufficient reward for long service.

The total number of men employed was 340. The largest group, almost half, were those connected with the elevators and halls, the functionaries of the building, whose work must be monotonous and unsatisfactory to a man who has not been at it long enough to become an automaton. The majority of this group, though not a very large majority, were unmarried. Almost all in the remaining miscellaneous group of men who do the laborious work of an office building were married men in the prime of life. Scales of weekly pay are shown in the following table:

NUMBER OF BUILDINGS GIVING WEEKLY RATES OF PAY AS FOLLOWS TO GRADES OF SERVICE NAMED<sup>1</sup>

WEEKLY RATE OF PAY.	TO ELEVATOR MEN.	TO HALL MEN.	TO PORTERS	TO WATCHMEN.	TO FIREMEN.	TO UTILITY MEN IN ENGINE-ROOM
\$ 9 1-3 . . . . .	12 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	3 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	5
10 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	7
10 1/2 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
11 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
11 1/4 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
11 3/4 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
12 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
13 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
14 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
15 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
16 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
17 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1
17 1/2 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1 . . . . .	1

In this table the poorest paid worker is shown to be the porter who begins at the lowest wages, \$9.33, and in no case rises above \$12. Next to him is the elevator man who, in no case, goes above \$14. The general utility man in the engine-room is strictly limited to two rates of pay, \$12 and \$14. The fireman in not a few cases earns higher pay as he often has some of the duties of an engineer. The most general rates of pay among all classes of workers are from \$10 to \$15. Where pay in a few buildings is higher than this it is only for groups containing few workers.

Skilled positions, such as engineer or machinist of which there are few, are omitted from the table, as of course is the superintendent. In some of the largest buildings a janitor, a head porter or a head hall man was employed in the supervisory position of superintendent's assistant. There were sixteen of these positions. The pay of the janitors so employed ran from \$14 a week and rooms to \$25 and rooms; that of head porters from \$15 to \$25 a week, and that of head hall men from \$15 to \$18.

A few of these represent an increase of pay of only a dollar or two over regular porters' or hall men's pay, others a very considerable in-

<sup>1</sup>Fractions of a dollar in the weekly rate of pay are due to the fact that the semi-monthly method of payment is used.



crease. The semi-monthly method of payment, which is very common, saves the building a dollar or so each month for each man. This method is one of the mean economies of modern business. The dollar or so a month means infinitely more—perhaps the saving for a summer outing—to the workers, than it can to the superintendent's accounts.

Possibilities of an outing are, however, rare. Only half of these buildings give a week's summer vacation. One or two give an occasional week end or a fortnightly day off in summer for some groups of workers. Pay is perhaps the primary essential, but leisure, which means family life, is equally essential to decent living. To the rule that long hours and few paid holidays are an almost invariable accompaniment of low wages the office building proves to be no exception.

For porters and elevator men in these buildings six days constituted a week's work, though the elevator men took turns on Sunday which meant an occasional seven-day week.

Seven buildings had a seven-day week for men in the engine-rooms, and eleven out of the dozen buildings had the same for watchmen, though two buildings arranged for a fortnightly night or day off.

Hours are shown in the following table:

NUMBER OF BUILDINGS EMPLOYING SPECIFIED GROUPS OF WORKERS THE NUMBER OF HOURS NAMED:

	ELEVATOR MEN.	HALL MEN.	PORTERS.	WATCHMEN.	ENGINE MEN.
8	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
9½	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
10	.....	.....	.....	.....	4
11	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
11½	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
12	.....	.....	.....	.....	3
13	.....	.....	.....	.....	1

The worst sufferers from long hours are night watchmen, who are, in eleven buildings, it will be remembered, seven-day workers. They have a thirteen-hour shift in three buildings, a twelve-hour shift in eight. One building has a night engine-room man employed thirteen hours, the day man working eleven. Three buildings have a twelve-hour shift for engine-room men, four have such a shift for porters and one for elevator men.

THE CONSTITUTION  
AND THE POLICE

Though platforms of the Socialist Party, more than others, are accustomed to insist upon the constitutional rights of free speech and assemblage, it seems to be the socialists who are most often interfered with in the exercise of that right. Recent illustration of this was had at Little

Falls, just outside of Utica, N. Y., where a strike of a few hundred workers—latest figures put it at four hundred—has been going on in the Phoenix Knitting Mill. This strike, which was brought on by reduction of pay following the imposition of the fifty-four hour week, has proved the occasion for a free speech fight which has involved persons in the Schenectady Socialist administration, and has brought forth a valuable opinion on the subject of free speech and the police, from the attorney general of the state.

Mayor George R. Lunn of Schenectady was arrested with others for speaking in the strike district when a permit was refused, with the deliberate purpose of testing whether the local authorities had the right to interfere on this ground with the right of free speech and assemblage. The state committee of the Socialist Party, to test the matter still further, started their whole state ticket of five persons for Little Falls and applied through the Socialist representative for Schenectady to the governor and attorney general for protection of their speakers in the forbidden district. Alarmed at the proportions the opposition was taking, the Little Falls authorities, after consultation with the governor, agreed not to interfere with these or other Socialist speakers, and the battle was declared off. The thing of permanent value that has come out of the controversy is the attorney general's opinion, which should, it would seem, make it impossible for New York to become the scene of such interference with free speech as has distinguished California and New Jersey during the last year.

"The constitution of the State of New York provides," says the attorney general, "that 'no law shall be passed to restrain or abridge the liberty of speech or of the press'; also that 'No law shall be passed abridging the right of the people peaceably to assemble.'"

"No disorderly act must be committed: Public thoroughfares must not be unreasonably blockaded. Subject to these restrictions, the right to assemble and hold public political meetings cannot be denied by any municipality, not even by the state itself.

"This right is too valuable to be left with police officers to enforce or restrain. It is one of the highest privileges granted by our government, and is entitled to the most liberal interpretation.

"The attorney general advised Mr. Merrill that the supreme court had ample power to restrain interference with this meeting, or any other meeting, and undoubtedly would do so upon a proper case."

Two New York papers, the *World* and the *Globe*, have published interesting editorials on the trouble at Little Falls. Says the *World* on the subject of the police, "our rulers":



"The Socialist mayor of Schenectady would have been within his rights at Little Falls if he had not undertaken, by means of conversation, to lodge an idea in the head of the chief of the local constabulary. That precipitated a crisis and he was arrested for treason, malpractice or something.

"Most Americans come in contact with government only through the police. Why must that expression of authority in so many cases be arbitrary, unreasoning and brutal?"

The *Globe* asks:

"How long will the constitutional rights of property be respected in this country when the constitutional rights of freedom of speech and assemblage are not respected? Foolish persons are playing with edged tools when they say that in their communities no one shall say anything they don't like—that they will not allow outside agitators to come in and stir their people up."

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### FIGHTING VICE IN CHICAGO

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The war against the segregation of vice in Chicago has suddenly assumed city-wide proportions and will call country-wide attention to the acute crisis created. Ever since the vice commission rendered its report to the mayor and city council a year and a half ago, it has been obvious to those who know Chicago best that sooner or later the city administration and its police department, the county authorities and the state's attorney would have to reckon with the appalling situation, which the commission dug up by the roots and held forth in the light of common day.

Upon taking office last April, Mayor Carter H. Harrison was characteristically non-committal regarding the policies recommended by the report, but with his usual political astuteness he at once saw the bearing of its vast body of authenticated facts upon his responsibility for the continuance of the scandals in which the report involved the police. The city civil service commission was thereupon authorized and supported by the mayor in disciplining fifty or more police officials for inefficiency, some officers of the highest rank, longest service and most doubtful reputation being summarily dismissed from the service. Conditions at once improved on the streets throughout the city, and the segregated district of the West Side, which was surrounded by a vast tenement house population, was promptly and effectively closed up. Most of its hundreds of disreputable characters were forcibly driven into the larger segregated district of the South Side, which thereby grew

rapidly both in density and extent. The North Side district was not affected, either by interference or accession. But the domain of the vice kings—the two aldermen of the first ward, including the great business center—was thus vastly increased in power and profits.

Meanwhile two expressions of public determination to make an end of this situation preceded and precipitated official action. A "clean city" demonstration was made again, as it was last year about this time. Such spectacular displays do not appeal to all who oppose and fight against such evil conditions in ways which seem to them more effective. Nevertheless this procession rallied 5,000 people on a rainy day to march through the streets with banners and floats, and it made its own impression upon the city. But it was the vigorous and persistent attacks by Virginia Brooks on the equally vicious conditions in the outlying town of West Hammond which forced the hand of the county authorities. By this exercise of her right and fulfillment of her duties as a property owner there, this young woman has provoked official action affecting the city and suburb alike.

Charged by her directly before the grand jury in the public press not only with responsibility for the existence of these illegal conditions, but with defeating attempts to get legal aid to improve them, the state's attorney took sudden and drastic action. He issued hundreds of warrants for the arrest of the keepers and inmates of disorderly resorts in the segregated district of the South Side and closed up almost all of them within a week. Spectacular citations by *capias*, were also issued upon owners and agents of properties used for illegal purposes.

But, as usual in such spasmodic and cyclonic movements of personal and political motives upon the part of rival, partisan public officials, the results are very mixed and the situation is even more complicated, from the point of view which takes into account the human interests and the public welfare involved. Indeed, it is more than suspected that this complication is not regretted, not to say aided and abetted, by both sets of officials responsible for the situation as it was and is.

Hundreds of the women inmates, thus suddenly thrown out of the resorts, appeared upon the streets, in largest numbers where the big business and the best residences made them most conspicuous and their presence most annoying. They applied to rent rooms and flats in buildings and in sections of the city where it is not likely that many of them would have thought of applying had it not been suggested to them. Through the streets of the district, and past the dark and locked houses from which they had been driven, hordes of men roamed wantonly about, rushing after the patrol wagons, and in



the intervals trying the doors and entering the houses which ventured to keep open while waiting their turn for arrest. Plain clothes "detectives" swarmed over the district, doing little or nothing to disperse the disgraceful exhibition which these gangs of men made of themselves, but alert to discover and play up in the papers any hapless "reformer" and "uplifter" to be found there after dark. Salvation Army and other evangelistic groups added their songs, banners and excited appeals to the indescribable confusion of the sordid and morbid midnight scene.

Out of it all some permanent good is resulting. It has been shown that the segregated district can be summarily closed, and therefore can be permanently abolished. The officers of the law and the courts who can do it, who are doing it, or who have done it are officially and personally designated. The "special interest" of commercialized vice, although estimated by the vice commission as amounting to \$15,000,000 a year, has not proved itself able to protect itself from all the legal resources at the command of the community. The aggressive, well manned and managed agencies fighting commercialized vice and struggling to rescue and defend its victims have demonstrated the power of public sentiment, when only partially organized, to enforce the law, even by the hands of reluctant and pliant officials at odds with each other. The women who have led the forlorn hope in keeping open ways of escape from the human shambles protected by the authorities, into refuges and homes for their "fallen" sisters who seek to rise, have had their inadequate support sufficiently increased to warrant them in offering to take in any woman who is either out on the streets or who is in worse durance within doors.

Thus far, however, few if any of the dislodged women have taken advantage of this offer. They are supposed to be temporarily cared for by the resort keepers in hope of an early resumption of their illicit traffic.

The real estate dealers and agents are taking steps to present a solid front against the encroachment of denizens from the closed district upon residential sections and other buildings under their care. Owners and agents reported by the recorder of deeds to the state's attorney as renting property for illicit purposes are pledged immunity if they will promise the prosecutor to evict all immoral persons from their property.

At the call of Clifford W. Barnes, chairman of the Committee of Fifteen and head of the Sunday Evening Club, a mass meeting was held in Orchestra Hall to protest against further tolerance of the segregated district.

But best of all is this public demonstration of the shame, irrationality and futility of such a planless, purposeless spasm of law enforcement, without any preparation or provision for controlling its immediate effects so as to reduce the

harm to the minimum and to secure the permanent good of the community and the individuals involved. If anything were needed to prove beyond question the necessity of some public policy toward the social evil—such as the vice commission recommended, or any other policy that would be better than none—the present situation exhibits it. It will be worth all it costs if the self-respect of the great city shall at last be awakened and aroused to the point of demanding the mayor's serious consideration of the vice commission's recommendations and the serious and sustained enforcement of the law at the hands of the police, the state's attorney and the courts. The mayor's preposterous proposition of a referendum vote to record the people's preference for or against the segregation of vice, in direct contravention of the statute law, is likely to be anticipated by an imperative mandate of public opinion, which will be heard and heeded by him and all officials whose sworn duty it is to enforce the law.

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Since the foregoing statements were written, the City Council of Chicago has taken action, appointing a committee of nine aldermen to investigate and report recommendations. In the light of the tense situation, and in view of the fact that the thorough investigation and recommendations of the Vice Commission officially reported to the council in 1911 are still ignored as they have been for a year and a half, the language of the preamble and resolution is curiously interesting.

Whereas, The Social Evil is a problem of such importance, that we, as city representatives, should investigate and report our findings and recommendations thereon in an efficient manner; therefore,

Be it resolved by the City Council of Chicago that a committee of nine be appointed by His Honor the Mayor . . . to take up the investigation of the Social Evil in a thorough and systematic manner in all its phases, causes and cures, and based upon the findings of such investigation, make recommendations to this body, as to its elimination or segregation, or otherwise, as may be deemed most advisable by this committee; and that the committee make its report to this body as soon as it conveniently can do so after thoroughly investigating the subject.

To the request of some members of this committee that the state's attorney should allow the reopening of the segregated district for thirty days while the investigation is being made, that official promptly and emphatically declined to do so, asserting that while he was in office, every disorderly house there or anywhere else in the city would be closed and kept closed. Meanwhile, the council committee by a good majority has voted against secret sessions and thereby left the way open to public hearings.



## COMMUNICATIONS

### WOMEN AND THE SUFFRAGE

TO THE EDITOR:

In an editorial in *THE SURVEY* of June 1, concerning Votes for Women and Other Votes, Jane Addams called attention to the relation of woman suffrage to the ever-widening application of the principles of democracy.

Every new effort to throw light on the relation of suffrage to the general welfare should be received with fair consideration and an effort at full understanding. A very careful reading of Miss Addams' propositions leads me to question her historical accuracy, as well as her interpretation of the facts she deals with. She gives an impression of reading back into history and into the accepted principles of democracy her own emotional bias. She puts aside her practical experience of the value of the franchise to the individual or the class (see her book on Hull House), in favor of a sentimental or emotional theory of the way the vote ought to work toward the public good. When she assumes that the extension of the franchise proceeds by orderly steps each extension being the cause or the reason for the next she loses sight of the historical fact that the movement of governments toward democracy has been retrogressive as well as progressive, and that the evolution is not determined by demand (demand being only a minor factor), but by pressure of those changing conditions which make it expedient either to extend or to contract the limits of political responsibility and power. In military Rome the suffrage was a matter of military expediency. In the commercial towns of the Hanse it was a commercial expediency. In the England and Germany of the nineteenth century industrial evolution forced political evolution. While in America the enfranchisement of the blacks was purely political expediency, a mistaken expediency, as proved by experience, although school text books present a perverted view of it.

She fails to see, also, that to include women in government is not an orderly progress, but an erratic movement, since women have not the same relation to government that men have. It is a different proposition wholly, involving enormous social and industrial changes. All extensions of suffrage to men have due reference to the man's power to support his authority by force when necessary.

When Miss Addams urges the "readjustment in relation to changing experience" she fails to discriminate between organic and statutory law. Our constitution is based upon the unchanging principles of representative government. We cannot pretend that those principles do not exist. We must obey the law upon which they rest, or suffer in our national welfare.

But the change which she declares to be essential is a change easily within reach of

the people,—a change made easy by the wise foresight of the framers of the constitution, without any enlargement of the franchise.

I have heard it said that Miss Addams believes the salvation of the country depends upon giving the vote to the immigrant women; and her next paragraph seems to confirm this. Because there are more illiterate or ignorant or stupid or vicious people in any nation than wise and experienced people, it by no means follows that it would be to the interest of the former classes to allow them to dominate on a basis of mere majority of numbers. Quite the contrary. Democracy itself would curl up and die under such an application of democratic principle.

Her fallacies are well indicated in her closing sentence: "Then only when all the people become the governing class can the collective resources and organizations of the community be consistently utilized for the common weal." Does she mean to include fully the ignorant, the minors, the insane, the criminals and aliens?

It seems to most of us that the franchise should be limited by the welfare of the nation. Government is only intended to give the governed a chance to live in safety and peace. All other organized policies are extra-political. And the opportunities of women to work for the public welfare are much greater out of politics than in politics. Miss Addams's book on Hull House makes that clear; and so, on the democratic principle that government is for the benefit of the governed, it would seem that Miss Addams is not justified in her appeal for this extension of the suffrage. It has by no means been proved that women can serve the state or society as well as voters, as they can as non-political agents.

BERTHA LANE SCOTT.

[Chairman Publication Committee N. Y. State Association Opposed to Woman Suffrage.]  
Yonkers, N. Y.

### LIVING ON A SALARY IN 1912

TO THE EDITOR:

A faithful reader of *THE SURVEY* and a sincere sympathizer with its aims and with the causes which it advocates, I have been watching its pages hoping to find a study or a presentation of a problem that is giving anxiety to some thoughtful people. All these movements for increasing the wages of shop girls and of laboring men, for shortening the working day, for insurance against accident, sickness and the like, must raise prices. (At least, I have never seen that denied). What is to become of the people who live on fixed incomes, the salaried folk?

Here in New Jersey the new Employment Law with its provision in regard to domestic servants, is forcing householders to insure and so increasing the budget. This is a concrete instance of what must, it appears, be in effect a result of all such measures. What is to become of the people who cannot increase their incomes—or not to a degree that makes any special difference; who do not belong to the laboring class? I am asking these



questions in no carping spirit. I am in full sympathy with all these reforms, but I cannot see the outcome as concerns me and my kind. If you should think it wise to discuss this matter in *THE SURVEY*, I should be deeply interested. And I believe I am one of a class.

A. S. W.

Summit, N. J.

## PRINCIPLES OF COMPENSATION

TO THE EDITOR:

All workmen's compensation legislation is based upon the theory that the cost of human wear and tear should like the cost of raw material, machinery, etc., be thrown upon the industry and included in the price of the product. An examination of the compensation legislation of different countries shows three general principles or methods of applying this theory. These principles may be respectively termed the principle of individual liability, the principle of collective liability, and the principle of state liability.

*Individual Liability.*—Under this principle the liability to compensate the workman is thrown upon the individual employer as an element of the relationship of employer and employee. The injured employee looks for his relief directly to his employer, who thus becomes an individual insurer of the workman against accidents. The principle of individual liability is illustrated in the English Workmen's Compensation Act under which employers in every occupation are required, regardless of fault, to compensate any injuries sustained by a workman in the course of his employment, employers being of course permitted to insure themselves against this liability by taking out employers' liability insurance. The act of the state of New York recently held unconstitutional, and the acts in New Jersey, Wisconsin, New Hampshire, Illinois, Kansas, California, and Nevada, as well as the act being introduced in congress, are of the same class as the English act.

*Collective Liability.*—Under this principle the liability to compensate the workman is thrown upon employers collectively in groups according to the industry or the hazard of the occupation. Employers are encouraged or compelled to combine in associations for the purpose of insuring workmen against accidents and providing the funds for the purpose. The injured workman looks for his compensation, not to the individual employer, but to the association or the fund. The principle of collective liability is illustrated in the German system under which employers are grouped by industries under state compulsion and supervision and required to provide compensation for workmen injured in the industries included in the groups. The acts recently adopted in Massachusetts and Michigan are evidently intended to evoke such a system though they do not directly provide for it.

*State Liability.*—This involves the assumption by the state itself of the obligation to pay compensation, the cost being levied upon employers, or employers and workmen jointly, through the agency of the taxing machinery of the state. The workman looks for his compensation directly to the state. This principle is illustrated in the acts of the states of Washington and Ohio. Under these acts the compensation is paid out of a fund administered by a government commission, and the cost is levied as a tax upon industries classified according to risk.

The principle of individual liability is pronounced with singular unanimity by impartial investigators and authorities on workmen's compensation as a failure in practice and as essentially wrong in principle. It involves a violation of natural justice in throwing upon the employer a liability for something not his

fault. It is not an accidental misfortune that the American constitutions render it difficult, if not impossible, to enact a measure of the English type. The constitutional provisions which create the difficulty are in reality expressive of principles of natural justice. A burden which may with justice be placed upon a group or class may be entirely unjust when placed upon an individual. The individual system necessitates also a direct contest, legal or quasi-legal, between the employer and employee in the establishment of each claim for compensation, and the circuitry of liability involved in employers' liability insurance entails a waste of a large, if not a major, portion of the money paid by the employer. The English act and its counterparts in various parts of the British Empire and various states of the American Union are generally regarded as representing merely a stage in the development of a satisfactory compensation system. The operation of systems of this character has proven anything but satisfactory either in method or in result.

The principle of collective liability as applied in Germany and some other countries is generally pronounced successful. The German system is recognized as the type in efficiency and economy and none of its defects appear to be vital.

The state liability systems are equally approved by impartial investigators. The state insurance systems of Washington and Ohio are in reality centralized systems of collective liability. The Washington system has been described as a collective insurance system under state administration. The experience of other countries leaves little room for doubt that a state liability system represents the ultimate solution of the problem. The recent criticisms of the German system by Dr. Friedensburg point to, and in fact recommend, the assumption by the state of a more direct share in the administration of the compensation system of that country and a broad survey of the whole field of compensation certainly supports his view.

F. W. WEGENAST.

[General Counsel, Canadian Manufacturers' Association.]

## SOCIAL SERVICE IN ITALY

TO THE EDITOR:

The *Associazione Italiana di Liberi Crendenti*, formed some time ago to meet certain of Italy's urgent social needs,<sup>1</sup> has issued a report on the work of its first ten months. Utterances of university professors, public officials, parish priests, and Protestant ministers of Italy seem to indicate that the country is ready for such a campaign in behalf of social betterment as Anglo-Saxon countries are today going through. The society, of which Signor Gaetano Conte is general secretary, has headquarters at 44 via Margherita, Florence. One means of advertisement which it has adopted is that of distributing gummed labels for general use. Among the mottoes are the following:

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, Oct. 21, 1911, page 1022.



"Spend only where there are really fixed prices and you will moralize commerce";

"Every lottery is an immorality and our government teaches it to us";

"A frequent bath prevents sickness and disgust";

"Tips are proofs of abjection. Be ashamed to ask." M.

### THE SERVANT PROBLEM

TO THE EDITOR:

House work, the bane of the mistress, is as well the bane of the servant; yet houses must be kept clean and orderly for decent living and the family must be furnished with nourishing food. With the increasing difficulty to supply the demand for servants, with the constantly rising scale of wages, how is the work of the family of average means to be done? Does the problem resolve itself into the mistress doing her own work with occasional day help, or does the family take to a boarding-house existence or to a semi-family way of life in a small apartment with a kitchenette? With the rapidly increasing number of apartment houses containing two-, three-, or four-room apartments it would seem that this last way was gaining a foothold in American life and that the home of the past generation had already become historic.

For some years efforts of various kinds have been made to solve the problem, yet apparently without success. Schools of domestic science have been inaugurated to elevate the various phases of household work to the point of professionalism, an effort has been made to raise the social standing of the girl in the kitchen—yet the problem has remained unsolved. The only recourse left has seemed to be a higher standard of wages with a lessening of tasks imposed. And yet, is the problem solved?

A suggestion of co-operative housekeeping has been made, but this has not gained favor because it seems an infringement upon private family life. The apartment life, though demoralizing in many respects, seems to preserve some privacy of family life and is preferable to a communistic plan. So the question before us is how to preserve the family life and get the hard work done. We can not suggest any plan which involves social differences—we must do away absolutely with "mistress" and "servant," there must be no thought of social superiority or inferiority in the relation of workers.

The functions of the home have been gradually taken from the home and socialized—for instance, religion, education, and industry. Now it remains to socialize domestic work. How is this to be done? It has already begun in the establishment of bakeries, *delicatessen* shops, laundries, etc., but we are at the mercy of private profit in these concerns. Why do not women study out a plan of domestic management which will place in their own hands these bakeries, *delicatessen* shops, laundries, etc.? Would it not be possible for a group of women to establish a bakery on a profit-sharing plan, where hygienic

modern conditions would exist, where all materials used would be pure in quality, where all the workers would have common interest, and where "servitude" would be unknown? If these women, instead of going to the club and talking about solutions, would set to work actually to develop a scheme of supplying pure food on an economical basis and putting it into the homes, then half the problem of domestic work would be taken care of. Profit-sharing schemes could be developed to take care of laundry work, cleaning, and other domestic activities which as carried on now are wasteful of energy and money. The average wage paid to a servant doing general house work is \$5 a week or \$260 a year. The average expense of maintaining a servant is \$2 a week or \$104 a year, making a total expense to mistress of \$364 a year. This amount contributed annually to a profit-sharing plan should make possible a return equal to the service rendered by the hired help.

Flour mills, merchandise houses, banks, and other commercial enterprises may well continue to be in the hands of men, but may not women enter into the larger field of their traditional occupations through profit-sharing bakeries, laundries, cleaning processes, etc.—thereby rendering to themselves and to society a wholesome solution of the evils of present day housekeeping?

GRACE PUTNAM POLLARD.

Minneapolis.

### PUTTING IT UP TO PHILANTHROPY

TO THE EDITOR:

We live in an age of inquiry, an age of research, and are fast coming to an age of applied science, of preventive science.

Typhoid fever, yellow fever, and small-pox have practically disappeared as epidemics from civilized countries, and individual cases have almost been rooted out of our army; why not do away with the idiot, the feeble-minded, the insane, and the hereditary pauper?

It is now thoroughly understood that these classes are not in existence by chance; they are bred from the seeds of their fathers. This was already known in ancient Greece and now in modern England Sir Francis Galton has proved it to be true.

The University of London has established a Laboratory for National Eugenics, which publishes a lecture series in pamphlet form. These brochures can be bought for 5 cents apiece and obtained from the publishers, Messrs. Dulau and Company, No. 37 Soho Square, London, West.

Some of the titles are: The Scope and Importance to the State of National Eugenics, by Karl Pearson, and, by the same famous author, The Groundwork of Eugenics, The Problem of Practical Eugenics, The Influence of Parental Alcoholism on the Physique and Ability of the Offspring; another is The Relative Strength of Nurture and Nature, by Ethel M. Elderton. The laboratory also publishes memoirs which deal with the subjects at greater length.

There is also the English Eugenics Educa-



tion Society with its quarterly *Review*, which everyone interested in the science of the human race should read; their address is No. 6 York Building, Adelphi, London, W. C.

There is for this country the eugenics section of the American Breeders' Association; this is, so far as I know, the only American society devoted to this most important subject.

It now being an established fact that the feeble-minded, the delinquent, the idiot, the hereditary criminal, and the hereditary pauper can be prevented from being born, why do we not prevent?

Every year we in this country increase enormously our appropriations for the care of the insane, the feeble-minded, the idiot, the criminal, and the pauper; this is made necessary because every year there is an enormous increase in these classes. But why do we not get at the root of the matter and prevent the breeding of these people?

Every lying-in hospital is full of delinquent women bearing children who should never have been conceived; if every feeble-minded person were sterilized early in life, within one generation an enormous decrease in this class would result; if every feeble-minded person were segregated during the reproductive period, the same advantage would result.

Instead of decreasing our own unfit classes, we go on adding to them by admitting every year thousands of unfit immigrants. We then commit our unfit to institutions for short terms and often put a premium on the birth of unfit infants, by relieving the mother of her responsibility of the child and setting her at liberty to bear more children.

It is estimated that there are tens of thousands of delinquent aliens, public charges in this country, who might be returned to the lands from which they came; and it is said that we are spending one hundred million dollars a year on the care of those who are public charges. One-tenth of this sum would suffice if practical eugenics were applied, and reforms preventive rather than environmental were enforced.

Come! Why not deport these unfit, and, instead of demanding more funds for the institutions, use them for the segregation of our own delinquents?

Three states have passed laws for the possible sterilizing of these classes; why does not every state do so? It is just as possible to prevent the birth of delinquents, idiots, feeble-minded, hereditary criminals, and hereditary paupers as it is to prevent typhoid and yellow fever; why isn't it done?

Cambridge, Mass.

J. B. PEABODY.

## THE CLOTHING BUREAU

TO THE EDITOR:

When Annie Nathan Meyer suggested in *THE SURVEY* "that some method be devised for handing slightly used clothing over to self-respecting working women who do not care to apply to the usual charitable agencies,"

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, February 24, page 1806.

many readers were perhaps unaware that such an institution already existed in New York. Yet the clothing bureau, with headquarters at 138 East 22d street, recently issued its eleventh annual report. According to the author of this the bureau "is a purely non-sectarian charity, which was started by Julia Lathers in 1901 in order to furnish the much-needed link between superfluity and privation. It began in one room but has expanded to two full floors and to include many departments besides that of cast-off clothing . . . . At a merely nominal price it sells its goods to the worthy poor and individuals and families who are dependable on small incomes. Teachers, students, saleswomen, actors, temporary sufferers from loss of position because of health, struggling workmen of all sorts" are among its customers.

Everyone who buys is required to furnish a reference from some clergyman, priest, or rabbi. From the pages of the report it is evident that a great variety of things find their way through the bureau to grateful purchasers. One invalid, for example, who had frequently waited two hours for her glasses to be picked up off the floor, was enabled by a pair of pick-up scissors bought at the bureau to regain her glasses at once when she dropped them. For an old deaf man, who had but a few days to live, an ear trumpet was bought, "and the family were cheered in being able to make him hear what he so much wished to listen to." W. D. L.

## WORK FOR NEGROES IN BALTIMORE

TO THE EDITOR:

Baltimore is taking an important step in federating its philanthropic activities among colored people. A number of associations and clubs conducted by colored people which are carrying on work among the Negro poor have formed a federation under a director. This autumn, among other activities, there will be a day nursery and a social settlement, the buildings for which have already been secured by the clubs. The federation will work in connection with an advisory board of white people of which Elizabeth Gilman is chairman.

The director chosen for this work is Mrs. Sarah C. Fernandis. M<sup>s</sup>. Fernandis is a Hampton graduate, and has taken the summer course in the New York School of Philanthropy. She has worked for six years in Washington, D. C., at first as a friendly visitor for the Associated Charities under the direction of Charles F. Weller, and later as head worker of a social settlement in a neglected Negro quarter. She made a marked success of her cottage settlement which became the center of a healthy neighborhood life. In 1908, she accepted a position at East Greenwich, R. I., where she has worked with the village Negro; has studied his problems and has helped in their solution. She is a careful student of social conditions, and brings long experience and rare ability to this new and important Baltimore work.

M. W. O.



## THE TREND

The October magazines were all but barren of good poems. September seems to have been a harvest month by comparison. Three September poems, by unfamiliar authors, are good illustrations of a growing tendency to turn for lyrical appeal from purely personal to humanitarian emotions:

### IN THE JUVENILE COURT

DOROTHEA MOORE in the *American Magazine*.

So very like the flower—the weed—  
So very like the flower. Indeed  
I'm wondering what God would say  
If I should throw the weed away.

This hard defiant pallid girl—  
Offensiveness in every curl  
Of her rough hair. O my dull eyes,  
Can you be reason hers are wise?

And when I bend beside the bed  
Where my girl lies so sheltered,  
How may I touch that tender face,  
Forgetting these—who need such grace?

\* \* \*

### THE FACTORIES

MARGARET WIDDEMER in *McClure's Magazine*

I have shut my little sister in from life and light  
(For a rose, for a ribbon, for a wreath across  
my hair),

I have made her restless feet still until the night,  
Locked from sweets of summer and from wild  
spring air:

I who ranged the meadow-lands, free from sun  
to sun,

Free to sing and pull the buds and watch the  
far wings fly,

I have bound my sister till her playing-time is  
done—

Oh, my little sister, was it I?—was it I?

I have robbed my sister of her day of maidenhood  
(For a robe, for a feather, for a trinket's  
restless spark),

Shut from Love till dusk shall fall, how shall  
she know good,

How shall she pass scatheless through the sin-  
nit dark?

I who could be innocent, I who could be gay,  
I who could have love and mirth before the  
light went by,

I have put my sister in her mating-time away—  
Sister, my young sister—was it I?—was it I?

I have robbed my sister of the lips against her  
breast

(For a coin, for the weaving of my children's  
lace and lawn),



Courtesy Frederick Keppel and Co.

### WHISTLER'S AN UNSAFE TENEMENT.

The great etcher caught something deeper than the picturesque in this example of the rural housing problem in France a generation ago.

Feet that pace beside the loom, hands that cannot  
rest:

How can she know motherhood, whose strength  
is gone?

I who took no heed of her, starved and labor-  
worn,

I against whose placid heart my sleepy gold-  
heads lie,

Round my path they cry to me, little souls un-  
born—

God of Life—Creator! It was I! It was I!

\* \* \*

### TO THOSE ASLEEP

FLORENCE CROSS KITCHELT in the *Twentieth Century*

Before I slept it was the last I heard—  
Oh, let me tell you, not the song of bird,  
Nor thin wind playing in its harp of trees,  
Nor hush of folding flowers and nodding leaves.

Before I slept it was the last I heard—  
Oh, not the harmony of raining stirred  
The stillness of the midnight, nor the feet  
Of passing men—the city seemed asleep.

Before I slept it was the last I heard—  
Not sound of man, of rain, of wind, or bird.  
It was the cry of "News," a child's voice clear,  
A little bedless boy called "News, sir, here!"

It was the first in the dusk dawn I heard—  
The sound that brought the city's morn and  
stirred

The gray, volcanic quiet of the street—  
A child's cry, "News." He ran with tired feet.

### L'envoi

The human people came from out the doors;  
In haste they piled up perishable stores,  
And played at games of crossing right with  
wrong.

Oh, look, O God! The city sleeps so long!



## BOOKS

### HEALTH AND MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

By WALTER S. CORNELL, M.D. F. A. Davis Company. 614 pp. \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.20.

### THE DELINQUENT CHILD AND THE HOME

By SOPHONISBA P. BRECKINRIDGE, Ph.D., and EDITH ABBOTT, Ph.D., with introduction by Julia C. Lathrop, chief of the Federal Children's Bureau. Charities Publication Committee for the Russell Sage Foundation. 355 pp. \$2.00 postpaid.

### CHILD LABOR IN CITY STREETS

By EDWARD N. CLOPPER, Ph.D., secretary of National Child Labor Committee for Mississippi Valley. The Macmillan Company. 280 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.

### AMERICAN BAD BOYS IN THE MAKING

By A. H. STEWART, M.D. Herman Lechner. 241 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

### THE BOY AND HIS GANG

By J. ADAMS PUFFER, director of Beacon Vocation Bureau, Boston. Houghton. Mifflin Company. 188 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

### THE COMING GENERATION

By WILLIAM BYRON FORBUSH, Ph.D. D. Appleton & Company. 402 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

Taken together, these six books are significant of the fact that this is indeed "the century of the child." The individual purposes of the books are diverse, but are really alike; namely, to help those who deal with children to understand them better and, in consequence, to furnish better social soil and nurture for growing our priceless human harvest.

Although it has special reference to children of school age, Dr. Cornell's book, *Health and Medical Inspection of School Children*, deals with all the common physical defects and diseases to which children are subject, and is of value to parents as well as to physicians and teachers, for whom it was primarily intended. It should be especially useful to those who, as members of boards of education, civic clubs and committees, are responsible for shaping and carrying out a community program in the interest of the health of children. It is a systematic "survey of medical practice as it relates to children of school age" and not "a review of the work of medical inspection in different localities," this last service having been well done by Gulick and Ayres.

In addition to a discussion of purely physical defects, problems of nutrition, contagious and infectious diseases, etc., there is also an extended chapter on Mental Deficiency. This should be read by all those who are responsible for the care of dependent and delinquent children, as their efforts are often futile because they do not detect cases of feeble-mindedness in their wards.

The book contains many suggestive charts and forms of report to be used by medical inspectors, nurses, teachers and others. The effort to provide abundant illustrations is commendable, and the subjects were evidently well chosen. The pictures, however, as printed are as a rule poor and, in some cases, for example, pages 142 and

384, so indistinct as to be practically meaningless.

Dr. Cornell is director of medical inspection in Philadelphia, and has based his discussion on his own examination of 35,000 children.

\* \* \*

*The Delinquent Child and the Home*, as its name implies, is a study not of the individual primarily, but of his relations to his home and other forms of social environment. It is based upon a study of all the data given in the records of the juvenile court of Chicago relating to the boys and girls brought into the court as delinquents during the ten years from July 1, 1899 (when the court opened), to June 30, 1909; and upon the further intensive study of the history of those boys and girls who were brought into court in 1903 and 1904. In this intensive study parents, teachers, employers, probation officers and other persons were interviewed, so far as they could be reached, to find out all possible supplementary facts about the children who were in court five and six years before. A revelation of the extent to which juvenile delinquency is inextricably bound up with, not to say caused by, home and other forms of social environment is made in this masterly analysis. The titles of chapters three to eleven are of themselves suggestive of the range of the study and of its remarkable social significance:

The Child of the Immigrant: The Problem of Adjustment.

The Poor Child: The Problem of Poverty.

The Orphan and the Homeless Child: The Problem of Misfortune.

The Child from the Degraded Home: The Problem of Degeneracy.

The Child from the Crowded Home: The Problem of Confusion.

The Ignorant Child: The Problem of the School.

The Child without Play: The Problem of Neighborhood Neglect.

The Child from the Comfortable Home: The Problem of the Unmanageable Boy.

The Court and the Delinquent Family: Some Aspects of the Problem of Treatment.

The authors do not use facts to bolster up any ready-made theories; but the facts are so marshalled and presented as to tell their own vivid story. In addition to the summarized information about all the children included in the study, there are also printed "family paragraphs" giving in outline the story of one hundred delinquent boys and fifty delinquent girls.

Never before has a great city had held up to it so clear a mirror of the conditions under which its unfortunate children develop waywardness. In thus presenting the facts in the social environment of the children of the Chicago juvenile



court, the service of the court as a social institution is also thrown into clear relief. The court can help to reveal the conditions that cause delinquency. At its best it can also place some children in new situations and under such new influences, personal, institutional and other, that delinquent tendencies may be checked and social possibilities be developed. But the court can never be anything but a means to an end. What the child needs in body, mind and spirit should be given to him at once. If he is compelled to go through the juvenile court before he can have these hungers of his divine human nature satisfied, the delay is just so much lost time to him.

As Julia C. Lathrop says in the introduction to the volume: "But the great and memorable fact must remain, that all children need for successful rearing the same conditions: homes of physical and moral decency, fresh air, education, recreation, the fond care of wise fathers and mothers. These essentials curtailed at any point, the degree of human wastage grows with the curtailment. No institution, no probation system, no orders of court, can instantly produce from chaos these essentials."

Meanwhile it is the duty of all juvenile court workers to understand the children who come to them who have thus far failed to get the full human chance that belongs to them and, so far as possible, to secure for them their delayed inheritance.

In the appendix Judge Julian W. Mack discusses the Legal Problems Involved in the Establishment of the Juvenile Court, Judge Merritt W. Pinckney contributes detailed testimony as to the history, methods and practice of the Chicago court, and Grace Abbott presents an Abstract of Juvenile Court Laws.

Altogether this is the one book that every efficient juvenile court worker must read and reread.

\* \* \*

Mr. Clopper's book supplements the *Delinquent Child and the Home* admirably. He presents the conditions of labor in the city streets that make not only for juvenile delinquency but for stunted physical development as well. Men and women have rhythms of interest and effort for different causes. Surely it is time that the street trades be given their "innings." Mr. Clopper has presented the leading facts about newsboys, bootblacks, peddlers, market children, messengers, errand and delivery children. He has also discussed the effects of these forms of work upon children, the tendency to develop delinquency, and the struggle for regulation in the United States and in Europe. A valuable bibliography and suggestive samples of badges, blanks, etc., are presented.

\* \* \*

Dr. Stewart approaches his discussion of the problem of the bad boy from a long and sympathetic acquaintance with prison residents, both adult and juvenile, some five hundred of whom he says he traced to their individual homes. His testimony leads in the two directions of better

reformatory, prisons and institutions for both adult and juvenile delinquents and toward such preventive measures as will lessen the volume of delinquency at its source. He says: "The story of delinquency, therefore, is in a great measure the story of indifference and neglect, whether it be in the palace of the rich or the hovel of the poor." The reader will rarely find himself out of harmony with the spirit of this book, but will frequently question the accuracy of the author's sweeping percentage statements.

\* \* \*

In *The Boy and His Gang* Mr. Puffer has made a little book of great value. His facts are stated at first hand in the first five chapters. In the remaining eight chapters he presents a discussion of these facts which is of rare pedagogical significance.

These chapters should be read by as many intelligent parents of boys of the gang age, and by as many teachers who deal with boys of this age, as possible. The secret of the way to harness and direct the gang spirit of a boy is surely of no less importance than the secret of the way to chain the lightning. Each secret seems simple enough when those who know how explain how to do it. The question for us is, in the case of the boy at least, can we do the trick ourselves? It's worth trying.

\* \* \*

It remains for Dr. Forbush to speak especially to parents. Each of the other books has a particular message to some one or more groups of our people. *The Coming Generation* is primarily an appeal to fathers and mothers. If these fathers and mothers are also social workers, teachers, legislators, administrators of business or law, so much the better. But his appeal is to men and women as parents. The whole range of preventive and constructive agencies in behalf of children is passed in review and the reader is made to feel that we can together make a world fit for our children to be born and grow up in.

I know of no finer picture of what a home may be than the author has almost unconsciously drawn in chapter V—*Books and Firelight and Children's Faces*. When the day dawns that finds every child in such a home the doors of the juvenile court may remain closed most of the day and *The Delinquent Child and the Home* may be allowed to gather dust upon the shelf.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

[Staff of the New York School of Philanthropy.]

#### BOOKS RECEIVED IN SEPTEMBER AND OCTOBER

- THE TASK OF SOCIAL HYGIENE.** By Havelock Ellis. Houghton Mifflin Co. 414 pp. Price \$2.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$2.63.
- RACE IMPROVEMENT OR EUGENICS.** By LaReine Helen Baker. Dodd Mead & Co. 137 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.06.
- A MAN'S WORLD.** By Albert Edwards. Macmillan Co. 312 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.36.
- WHY GO TO COLLEGE?** By Clayton Sedgwick Cooper. The Century Co. 212 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.62.



**GEORGE HELM.** By David Graham Phillips. D. Appleton & Co. 303 pp. Price \$1.30; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.42.

**THE FAMILY IN ITS SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS.** By James Q. Dealey. Houghton Mifflin Co. 136 pp. Price \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.81.

**CHARACTER BUILDING IN SCHOOL.** By Jane Brownlee. Houghton Mifflin Co. 268 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

**THE NEW IMMIGRATION.** By Peter Roberts. Macmillan Company. 386 pp. Price \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.74.

**THE MOSQUITO IN ITS RELATION TO DISEASE AND ITS EXTERMINATION.** By Alvah H. Doty. D. Appleton & Co. 78 pp. Price \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.79.

**THE CONSERVATION OF THE CHILD.** By Arthur Holmes. J. B. Lippincott. 342 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

**THE CHILD'S DAY.** By Woods Hutchinson. Houghton Mifflin Co. 184 pp. Price \$.40; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.46.

**THE NEW CITY GOVERNMENT.** By Henry Bruere. D. Appleton & Co. 438 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

**SOCIOLOGY IN ITS PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS.** By Charles A. Ellwood. D. Appleton & Co. 417 pp. Price \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.13.

**PROGRESS AND UNIFORMITY IN CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION.** By Wm. F. Ogburn. Columbia University Studies; Longmans, Green & Co. 210 pp. Price \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.83.

**THE EVEN HAND.** By Quincy Germaine. The Pilgrim Press. 276 pp. Price \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.32.

**YOUTH AND THE RACE.** By Edgar James Swift. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 342 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

**TRAINING THE LITTLE HOME MAKER.** By Mabel Louise Keech. J. B. Lippincott. 81 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.11.

**THE KALLIRAK FAMILY: A STUDY IN THE HEREDITY OF FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS.** By Henry H. Goddard. Macmillan Co. 121 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

**THE MODERN HOUSEHOLD.** By Marlon Talbot and Sophonisba P. Breckinridge. Whitcomb & Barrows 93 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

**THE CONTROL OF TRUSTS.** By John Bates Clark and John Maurice Clark. Rewritten and enlarged edition. Macmillan Co. 202 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

**THE MINISTER AND THE BOY.** By Allen Hoben. University of Chicago Press. 171 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

**EVIL'S OTHER CHILDREN.** Lucile Baldwin Van Slyke. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 275 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.12.

**CHRISTIANITY AND THE LABOR MOVEMENT.** Wm. M. Balch. Sherman French Co. 108 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

**UNSEEN EMPIRE.** By David Starr Jordan. American Unitarian Association. 211 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.32.

**ONE OF THE MULTITUDE.** By George Acorn. Dodd, Mead & Co. 300 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

**THE STATUS OF ALIENS IN CHINA.** By Wellington Koo. Columbia University Studies; Longmans Green & Co. 350 pp. (paper). Price \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.63.

**FIRE PREVENTION.** By Edward F. Croker. Dodd, Mead & Co. 363 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

**SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD.** By William H. Holmes. The Davis Press. 211 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.14.

**THE ETHICS OF THE OLD TESTAMENT.** Hunkley G. Mitchell. University of Chicago Press. 417 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

**THE MAN FARTHEST DOWN.** By Booker T. Washington. Doubleday, Page & Co. 390 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

**THE OLYMPIAN.** By James Oppenheim. Harper & Bros. 417 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.45.

**CIVICS.** By Anna A. Plass. D. C. Heath & Co. 187 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.57.

**SEX EDUCATION.** By Ira S. Wile. Duffield & Company. 150 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.05.

## PERSONALS



*Courtesy The American Hebrew.*

MORRIS LOEB

This is not the time to write calmly and dispassionately of Morris Loeb. The wound caused by his untimely death is still too raw, for those who knew him well, to do other than protest and rebel. In the chaos of conflicting emotions, occasioned by the knowledge of his absence from our councils, it is difficult to find the proper perspective of the things for which he stood and for which he incessantly strove.

Others may tell of his keen, analytic mind, of his scientific ability, of his wonderful grasp of communal problems. To me, the wonder has always been that with all of these distinguishing attributes, he was essentially human. Reared in luxury, every fiber of his make-up was democratic. He knew no distinctions of race, creed or color. Wealth was to him an instrument to use wisely for the benefit of others. Men and women, to him, were men and women—some better circumstanced than others by inheritance or good fortune—but in the last analysis men and women. He believed in the words of Kipling: "For the Colonel's lady and Judy O'Grady are sisters under their skins."

Is there a lesson for social workers in Morris Loeb's life? I think there is. It is told in the story above related—self-effacement. To quote Kipling again, "There was no ego in his cosmos." What he did, and his works are legion, was done under the compulsion of an overmastering sense



of duty. None of it was attempted with any thought of personal gain or advantage. He did not desire office—in fact, dreaded it. And yet his sterling sense of responsibility, his conception of the stewardship imposed upon him by his position and wealth, compelled him to accept many official positions which made deep drafts on his time and thought. I never knew him to wish recognition for himself. Unobtrusively, modestly, at times almost diffidently, he followed the dictates of his democratic ideals, and gave his time, his thought, his wealth and himself to the service of human kind.

Is there a lesson in Morris Loeb's life for the New York community? I think there is. The day will come, and I believe in short order, when the unwisdom of certain of our philanthropic methods will be realized and the methods themselves discarded. Morris Loeb advocated, one might almost say invented, the "federation idea" for charitable institutions and societies, because with his clear, almost prophetic insight, he saw the time ahead when the test of efficiency would be applied to philanthropy as well as to business. To him the "federation idea" meant more than a financial collection agency. He realized years ago that competition in charity meant waste; that the best results could be obtained only through co-operation. In his scheme of "federation" increased revenues were but a minor aim. The larger and the broader purpose was the co-ordination of the philanthropic resources of the community so that all of its pressing charitable and civic needs might be properly and adequately met.

Morris Loeb needs no monument of stone or bronze to perpetuate his memory. If memorial of some kind be desired, what better one could be imagined than the realization of his life's dream—the "federation" of the Jewish Charities of New York. If this be accomplished, those of us who are groping blindly through the shock of his death may begin to understand that perhaps there was some providential purpose in his too early demise.

LEE K. FRANKEL.

\* \* \*

Samuel Macauley Jackson, vice-president of the Charity Organization Society of New York, was born sixty-one years ago in the same city in which he spent so much of his time as a quiet, scholarly, philanthropic and useful worker among his fellow citizens. A graduate of the College of the City of New York and of the Union Theological Seminary, he added to these courses a year or two at Princeton and two years abroad. From 1876 to 1880 he was pastor of a Presbyterian church in Norwood, N. J. Fifteen years later he became professor of church history in New York University, continuing in that position until his death. In the quiet of his study on Waverly Place his busy

pen added valuable articles to various Bible dictionaries and encyclopaedias, as well as to the Universal Cyclopaedia and the religious parts of the new International. He also wrote much on Zwingli and the Huguenots. His work was marked by painstaking and accurate scholarship, for the big conscience which compelled him to devote so much of his time to the betterment of society, though his beloved books called so loudly to him, found equal gratification in giving to the world of scholars trustworthy information about religious themes which lay so near his heart.

As a reformer Dr. Jackson was the still small voice, not the whirlwind. Away back in 1885 he joined the district committee of the Charity Organization Society, serving in various capacities until his death, at which time he had been vice-president for nine years. Impressed with the close relation between crime and poverty he became a director of the Prison Association of New York, where his sane suggestions and helpful work were of great value. Few men realize as he did how necessary it is, if we would secure any real reform in prison work, to educate the public. The Prison Association had within its walls one of the best penological libraries in the country, but it was of little value for reference as no skilled librarian had classified the contents. Largely owing to his initiative and to his generous financial support, the books are now available for students, who use them constantly.

But the interests of Dr. Jackson were not confined to his own country. He was also the president of the board of trustees of a Christian college in Canton, China, and the work of missionaries throughout the world appealed to him. His studies took him abroad frequently and his quiet enjoyment of European experiences was an always welcome story to his friends. There, as everywhere, he was the gentle scholar.

The words used by Dr. Jackson on the death of his friend, Mr. Barrows, may well be applied to this faithful man: "He pleaded the cause of the prisoner because he was a lover of man and counted those members of the human family who had broken the social contract as still worthy of human treatment and of every effort to regain them to society, to win them back to the path of duty. . . . He overflowed with sympathy and appreciation. His presence was always cheery. There was in him a mighty tide of joy and peace because he lived an unselfish life, and only those who live for others get the best out of life."

The various societies and clubs to which Dr. Jackson belonged have paid him tributes of respect and affection, none simpler or truer than that of the Central Council of the Charity Organization Society: "Quiet and unassuming but forceful in his faithful performance of every duty, he endeared himself to all with whom he came in contact and leaves a multitude of friends to mourn his loss."

ISABEL C. BARROWS.

October 26, 1912.





SEA BREEZE TWENTY YEARS AGO



MRS. ESSIE CLARK

It was in November, 1887, that Mrs. Essie Clark became a visitor for the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor so that her death this fall has cut off what was practically a quarter century of service. She was reception agent for the association throughout the greater part

of this period, and to her desk hundreds of those in need came each week, so that her fellow workers feel that it is not an over statement to say that she had come in contact with more sufferers from poverty and sickness than any other social worker in the country.

Although she had been a woman of unusual vigor, her strength began to fail two years ago after a serious illness; and yet, in spite of much suffering, she clung to her task and each day found her at her post. To quote an associate, "She loved her work, she loved the men, women and children who came to her for help and counsel, and she brought to her work unusual power of discernment, keen understanding of human na-

ture, warm sympathy and a strong sense of justice. Her searching glance gave discomfort to any who tried to deceive her, but those in real distress knew that they could rely on her quick sympathy and sound advice."

Her fellow workers all looked to Mrs. Clark constantly for help and encouragement, so much so that someone aptly called her "the staff mother."

At the close of the Spanish war, she served for two years as almoner of the Seventy-first New York Regiment, but perhaps the most distinctive feature of her long service was the part she took in organizing the earliest fresh air work of the association, for several years conducting the parties to the original Sea Breeze of twenty years ago.

R. FULTON CUTTING.

\* \* \*

Two years of excellent social service in a city department is the record of Raymond V. Fosdick, formerly commissioner of accounts in New York. In that brief period he moulded an office created primarily to make a detailed examination of money received and expended by the various city departments, into a great social agency. Some of the investigations made may not have been within the anticipated scope of the law, but, as Fosdick says in his curt, business-like way "the work had to be done, and we did it."

Under Fosdick the commissioner of accounts has performed the kind of work that the Bureau



of Municipal Research was organized to do. With enlarged powers, a capable force, and a head like Fosdick, the commissioners of accounts, popularly known as the "mayor's eye" would be still more valuable watch-dogs for the city government. Here are some of the highways into which Commissioner Fosdick carried his investigations in two years of administration:

- Billboard advertising.
- Sanitary condition of bakeries.
- Methods and practices of the Board of Elections.
- Moving-picture shows.
- Loan sharks.
- Penal and correctional institutions.
- Bail bonds.

Fosdick is only thirty years old. His social vision was not fully awakened until he met Lillian D. Wald of the New York Nurses' Settlement six years ago. Born in Buffalo of a family of school teachers, he looked forward to teaching himself. After attending Colgate University for two years, he completed his course at Princeton. Fosdick then made plans to attend Heidelberg. Instead, he met Miss Wald. She interested him in her work at the Henry Street Settlement. He went there to live and did club work while studying law.

Through a Princeton acquaintance he met George B. McClellan, then mayor of New York and also a Princeton graduate. Mayor McClellan offered him a position in the office of the commissioner of accounts. John Purroy Mitchell, a young lawyer just out of college, tall, lanky, keen and ambitious, was then rapidly building a reputation through his direction of this long dormant municipal agency of investigation. They "pulled together" well and Fosdick became Mitchell's chief aide.

With the coming in of the Gaynor administration Mitchell became president of the board of aldermen. Fosdick was urged for secretary of the Board of Estimate. The mayor instead appointed him commissioner of accounts, gave him a free hand and encouraged him to extend the field of action of the office, so as to make it a social engine. Recently a tighter rein has been drawn. This, Fosdick's friends believe, is in part responsible for his resignation.

Though he has given up public life to become vice-president of an automobile company in Detroit, he still longs for social and public service. In six months he expects to establish a New York office for the company and will then actively interest himself in his "hobby," the running of the government of this great city from a social point of view.

"It is the business of government," says Fosdick, "to do what needs to be done for the people. It is a great social engine. We now spend over \$30,000,000 of the city's money each year for the moral and physical welfare of the people in ways which, a few years ago, would have been considered paternalistic."

Although he has seen the worst side of men in public office and has delved to the bottom of many scandals, he believes that politics is constantly growing better and that the type of man



RAYMOND V. FOSDICK

in public office, from the highest to the lowest, is improving. Social vision is needed in politics. That there is a place for the social worker in city machinery is proved by Fosdick's stewardship of the office of commissioner of accounts.

LOUIS H. PINK.

\* \* \*

The new head of the Executive Department of the Cleveland Board of Education, Frank G. Hogen, has made one change which will be watched by educators everywhere. He has combined medical inspection and the department of physical education under one head.

Mr. Hogen selected for this position, E. A. Peterson, M.D., for two years head resident of Goodrich House, Cleveland, and well known to social workers throughout the United States, especially to workers in playgrounds and university athletics.

A Cleveland paper, referring to the appointment, said: "Dr. Peterson is a teacher, athlete, playground expert, physical training instructor, physician, social settlement worker, and now guardian of the health of 70,000 public school children." Dr. Peterson has shown an appreciation of the importance of his work which he describes as the co-ordination of "all other educational departments with the work of medical inspection, so as to turn out boys and girls from the public schools who know how to take care of themselves in the most hygienic way."

The work will be carried on under the general head of the Department of School Health and Development, but the director's aids will be assigned work in the specific departments of medical inspection, school nursing, instruction in hygiene and physiology, physical training, recreation and play and school sanitation.

To perfect the work Dr. Peterson has had assigned to him twelve men and eighteen women experienced in physical education, one tuberculosis expert, one alienist, one oculist, one expert in the Binet test, twelve doctors and eighteen nurses.





DR. E. A. PETERSON

Since Boston is the only other city caring for the health of its children in this comprehensive way, the public at large will watch this newer experiment with interest.

\* \* \*

Charles F. Weller, first secretary of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities, has accepted the position of associate secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America. Mr. Weller was one of the group of men and women who organized the national movement in 1906 and has always been particularly interested in the leisure time problem. While secretary of the Washington Associated Charities, Mr. Weller organized neighborhood recreation work in that city and was instrumental in bringing the first recreation supervisor to Washington.

A number of additions to the staff of the Playground and Recreation Association of America have been made within the last two years. Rowland Haynes, who is field secretary for the central district, has held teaching positions at Columbia University, University of Chicago and University of Minnesota. Francis R. North, field secretary for New England, has had a wide experience in Y. M. C. A. work and also in educational fields. L. H. Weir, field secretary for the Pacific Coast, has served as assistant secretary of the Associated Charities of Cincinnati, and was for five years chief probation officer of the juvenile court of Hamilton County, Cincinnati. Julia Schoenfeld, formerly associated with Mrs. Charles H. Israels in the study of dance halls in New York, is doing field work in Canada. J. C. Boyers, formerly with the Brooklyn Children's Aid Society, is now assistant secretary of the association. James Edward Rogers, a graduate of the University of California, who has been in educational work, is assistant field secretary for the Pacific Coast. Bertha Freeman, formerly with the Boston Associated Charities, is engaged in field work in rural communities. The additions include also Grace Cary, formerly with the Maine

Children's Home Society and later with the Maine State School for Girls; Abbie Condit, formerly with the Boston Children's Aid Society; Alla A. Libbey, formerly a neighborhood worker in Lewiston, Maine.

For the past two years under the leadership of Joseph Lee the association has been concentrating its energy on field work, helping cities to secure recreation secretaries, assisting in finding men and women for these positions, and trying to help organize public opinion in the various communities so that the work of the recreation secretaries is properly supported. During the last year New York, Milwaukee, Grand Rapids, Louisville, Worcester, New Orleans, Youngstown, and other cities have secured recreation secretaries. So small a place as Bennington, Vt., with a population of 8,698, has found it wise economy to secure such a secretary.

\* \* \*

Genevieve Beavers, who for four years has been with the New York Bureau of Municipal Research and the Robert L. Stevens Fund for municipal research in Hoboken, has become the executive secretary of the National League for the Civic Education of Women. Miss Beavers plans to make her organization a center to which women's clubs throughout the city can turn for suggestions and advice in civic work.

\* \* \*

Abbot Augustus Low, a brother of Seth Low, the second mayor of Greater New York, died September 25. Mr. Low was prominent in charity work in the Borough of Brooklyn, and was for years president of the Brooklyn Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, a trustee of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences and of the Church Charity Foundation.

\* \* \*

E. S. Kavanagh, recently with the advertising department of Colgate & Co., New York, has been appointed financial secretary of the Cleveland Associated Charities. This position was made vacant by the resignation of Harry G. Hoak, who came into the field of social work seven years ago, also from a business occupation. For several months previous to his work with Colgate & Co. Mr. Kavanagh was employed by the New York State Charities Aid Association as a demonstrator of a tuberculosis exhibit that was sent to villages and towns in Jefferson and Niagara counties.

#### A QUESTION

ALICE SIMKINS IN THE BOSTON COMMON

You give of your name, your time, your *poet*,  
To ease your brother's woe;  
But what do you give of your own self,  
To pay the debt you owe?

You open a home for helpless ones,  
And shut them in with care;  
Of light and of love that your life knows,  
What think you is their share?

You talk, and you write; you organize;  
All this we know is true;  
But how do you spread the spark divine,  
The deep-down soul of you?



## CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

### NOVEMBER CONFERENCES

- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, Iowa State Conference of Cedar Rapids, Nov. 17-19. Gen'l. Sec'y.-Treas., J. L. Gillin, Iowa City.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, New York State Conference of Syracuse, Nov. 19-21. Sec'y., Wm. J. Doherty, 105 E. 22d St., New York.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, South Carolina State Conference of Greenville, Nov. 12-14. President, Rev. A. T. Jamison, Greenwood.
- CIVIC ASSOCIATION**, American, Baltimore, Nov. 19-22. Sec'y., Richard B. Watrous, Union Trust Building Washington, D. C.
- IMMIGRATION, LAND AND LABOR OFFICIALS**, Second National Conference of Chicago, November 14-15. Exec.-Sec'y., James Mullenbach, 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.
- MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENTS**, American Society of, Dallas, Texas, Nov. 12-16. Sec'y., A. Prescott Folwell, 50 Union Square, New York.
- PRISON ASSOCIATION**, American, Baltimore, Md., Nov. 9-14. Sec'y., Joseph Byers, 13 Central Ave., Newark.
- PROBATION OFFICERS**, Fifth New York State Conference of Syracuse, Nov. 19-20. Sec'y., Arthur W. Towne, State Probation Commission, Albany.

### LATER MEETINGS INTERNATIONAL

- BLIND**, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the, London, England, 1914; probably July 20. Sec'y., Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.
- CHILDREN'S WELFARE**, International Congress for, Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstraat 106, Amsterdam.
- PRISON CONGRESS**, Quinquennial, London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.
- RELIEF**, Committee on Public and Private, London, Eng.
- SCHOOL HYGIENE**, Fourth International Congress on, Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y.-Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.
- UNEMPLOYMENT**, International Association for Fight Against, Ghent, Belgium, 1913. American Corres. Officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

### NATIONAL

- COSMOPOLITAN CLUBS**, Association of, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, December, 1912. Sec'y., Louis P. Lochner, 612 S. Brearly St., Madison, Wis.
- FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA**, Second Quadrennial of Chicago, Dec. 4-10. Sec'y., Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave., New York.
- HOUSING**, Second National Conference on, Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 4-6. Sec'y., Lawrence Veiller, 105 E. 22d St., New York.
- INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION**, National Society for Promotion of, Philadelphia, Dec. 5-7. Sec'y., C. A. Prosser, 105 E. 22nd St., New York.
- LABOR LEGISLATION**, American Association for, Sixth Annual Meeting of, Boston, December, 1912. Sec'y., John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.
- RED CROSS**, The American, Washington, D. C., December. Sec'y., Charles L. Magee, Washington, D. C.
- YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION** of the United States of America, 4th Biennial Convention of, Richmond, Va., Apr. 9-15, 1913. Gen. Sec'y., Mabel Gratty, 600 Lexington Ave., New York.

### STATE AND LOCAL

- BAPTIST CONVENTION**, NORTHERN, Detroit, Mich., May, 1913. Cor.-Sec'y., Rev. W. C. Bitting, St. Louis, Mo.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, Maryland State Conference of, Baltimore, Dec. 8-5. Gen. Sec'y., H. Wirt Steele, 15 E. Pleasant St., Baltimore, Md.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, Ohio State Conference of, Akron, O., Oct. 1913. Sec'y., H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

*"In the hope that we may come to see more clearly the right values among us, and that, seeing them, we may come to use them better."*

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A CHARITY Organization Society in a city of 80,000, fourteen miles from New York, desires a trained worker to assist with case work. Further information will be given upon inquiry. Address, giving experience and references, N. L. S., C/o THE SURVEY.

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A DOMESTIC science graduate with practical experience in hospitals and institutions, desires position as dietitian or matron. Address Miss M. M. J. c/o Mrs. L. F. Ford, 105 East 22nd St.

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### PUBLICATIONS

"Religion and Social Reform." A Unitarian pamphlet sent free on application to the First Church in Boston, 64 Marlborough St., Boston, Mass.

### PHILANTHROPY AND PUBLIC OPINION.

The annual reports of Charities Publication Committee, Nos. 1 and 2, dated December, 1907, and September, 1908, are needed to complete the file in the public library of the New York School of Philanthropy. Copies from subscribers who have no further use for them will be gratefully received. 105 East 22d Street, New York city.



# THE SURVEY

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November 2, 1912



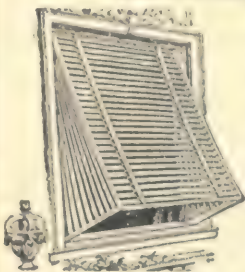
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# THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

VOLUME XXIX, No. 5

NOVEMBER 2, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

**WAR! WAR! WAR! WAR!**  
**BULGAR AND SERB AND GREEK!**

The minute men of a new epoch are mobilizing among us.

Through the streets of New York patriots of three Balkan nations are marching to the front, well nigh 30,000 strong. Some are already in their regimentals, the khaki they will wear in the field, but most of them are still in clothes which bear the stains of factory, mine or smelter. All but a small percentage of them are industrial workers.

From the centers of these industries of the unskilled foreign worker comes the report that more than one shop has been half crippled by the dropping out of its labor force. No wonder, for one party of Bulgarians alone from Gary, Ind., numbered almost 200; from the smelters of Butte, Mont., came a band of 200 Serbs; from the mines and furnaces of Bisbey and Globe, Ariz., a body of 200 more, and from San Francisco another Serb group of 150. From the nearer port of Providence 1,500 Greeks, most of them from New England textile towns, are said to have sailed. Many other workers have sailed from Boston, Philadelphia and Baltimore. From East and West bands are still on the way, and unrecorded numbers have gone singly.

One Greek line alone has already carried, partly in chartered boats, 9,000 souls, against a record of 1,800 in the same two weeks last year. Greeks, who have settled in the United States in the greatest numbers, make up about two-thirds of these emigrants. Perhaps 10,000 are Bulgarians and Serbs (Montenegrins and Servians)

in about equal numbers. A substantial minority are volunteers, but the majority are reservists, the Balkan countries having a system of conscription which puts a man on the reserve list until he is thirty-five. Thus these are men in the prime of life who, since their national papers published the call for reserves in the middle of October, have been on the march away from industrialism to medievalism; from modern America to such a war with the Turks as western Europe knew in the days of the crusades.

What are these men leaving in America? Large numbers are leaving nothing more substantial than a wire cot in boarding boss's establishment. They are foot loose of ties in this country, while from the Balkans comes the call of both home and patriotism. Leaders among them claim that the Balkan coalition against Turkey alone among European wars is no "great illusion" to the working people who bear its brunt. Their folk are oppressed by Turkey, and have something to gain, and not simply everything to lose, by war.

Of the three groups of reservists the Bulgarians appear to have least to hold them here and most to draw them home. They are very recent immigrants and almost none have families in America; most of them appear to be men in the thirties who have wives and children at home. But these men are not bound for home. They are going to Sofia, thence to the front, and thence?—they shrug their shoulders. They are the class of men, preeminently, who came to America only to earn and save for the family at home. Yet out of their savings each is pay-





*H. J. Mayer in New York Times.*

GONE ARE THE GREEK SLAVES TO SEEK THEIR LIBERTY

ing his way back, and many are giving a contribution to the Red Cross.

Next come the Serbs. A very liberal estimate gives 10 per cent of the Servian emigrants as having families in America. A large proportion appear to be young men, unmarried, but a rough estimate gives about half as men with families in the Balkans. These men, too, together with others of their race who cannot accompany them, have been, judged by their poverty, recklessly generous to the Red Cross war chest. The 200 Serbs from Bisbey and Globe brought with them \$9,000 collected in their mining settlements; the California group brought more than \$1,000, and every band has provided for itself and more. Of the 10 per cent who have families in America, a handful are taking the risk of taking their young children with them. The rest are leaving wives and children to the care of neighbors of the same race in American mining camp, steel or textile town—a trust, this, larger than the gifts to the war chest and one which may mean tragedy and misery and lonesomeness unutterable.

The same is true of many of the Greeks. They have been longest in America and though the majority are probably wage-earners, many have small businesses of their own—confectionery or candy shops, fruit or bootblack stands—which have had to be sold out or cared for. In some cases, these are to be looked after, at least for the present, by the Panhellenic Union. This is a philanthropic and social organization, reputed to have a membership of 60,000 in America alone, whose patriotism, harking back

to the "glory that was Greece" is probably more intense and arrogant than that of any other nation in the world. Unlike the Bulgarians and Serbs, there are a considerable number of rich Greeks in America, and their contributions to the funds of the union are being spent to supplement the traveling expenses of those who have least and to care for the families of such young married men as to go to the front; the rest goes to the Red Cross.

A curious and interesting side-light on the Greeks in America is the fact that no small proportion of the married men are married to American women, and some of these are among the hundred women who have gone with their husbands to the seat of war to serve as nurses.

#### INDUSTRIAL AMERICA: A TOUR OF THE TRADES

From Arnold Bennett to Pierre Loti, America has been the stamping ground for a group of distinguished foreigners in recent months. But there has been one among them "whose United States" has been different from that of all the rest—as different from the ordinary tour of the European traveler among us as our brand new cities are different from the cathedral towns of the Rhine. His has been a tour of the great border land between work and health, of a frontier as full of hazards to life and limb as any the continental visitor of a century ago found on our western borders.

This visitor was Sir Thomas Oliver, M. D., the leading authority among English speaking peoples on occupational diseases—president of

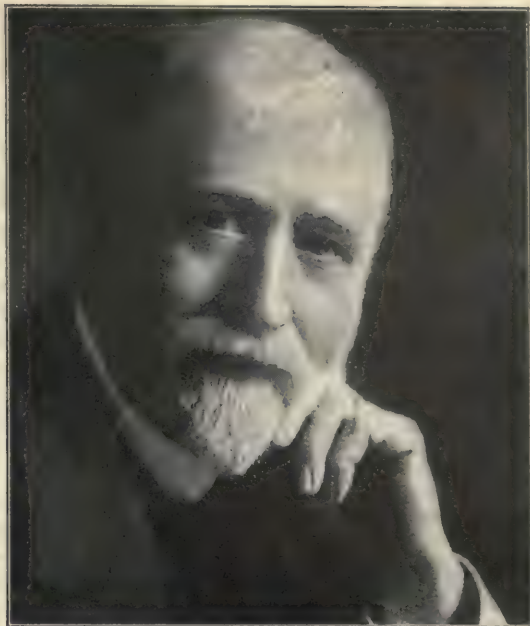


the British Association for Labor Legislation, and author of the book *Dangerous Trades*, which has done more than any other volume in English type to revolutionize shop practice and court decrees. In one of the labor cases before the United States Supreme Court, which wrenched loose some of the most rigid inhibitions of the federal constitution with respect to the police power, *Dangerous Trades* was quoted not less than thirteen times in the brief for the people.

Dr. Oliver was one of the principal speakers at the recent Congress of Hygiene and Demography which met in Washington, and was prominent in the discussions in the section on industrial hygiene, reviewed on p. 152 by Dr. Hamilton. But even more interest attaches to the tour which he made while here among the mines and industrial plants of the United States.

The itinerary was mapped out by Frederick Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance Company of America, who proved a Baedeker, Cook, courier of the nth power. Probably no man in the country has as wide or intimate knowledge of industrial conditions from the standpoint of health as Mr. Hoffman. This has grown out of his years of study of morbidity in the different trades as a basis for the elaborate system of ratings which the Prudential Company has developed in writing industrial insurance: that is, insurance taken out on small, frequent payments by the workers themselves. Mr. Hoffman knows the sanitary problems of great belts of the plantation country of the South as no one else does but the physicians who live and work there all their lives. It is told of him that on his way across the continent, he may drop off at some small Iowa town and spend a day, learning from village storekeepers and the country doctor and from the look in the people's faces, things which, with his experienced eye, give meaning to the columns of figures in his statistical laboratory. But it is in the industrial field that his work has been perhaps most intensive. Weeks at a stretch are sometimes spent in one line of trade, so that every occupation, its hazards, the heat, the tension, strain, poisons, dust—the whole physical environment of every important post of the crew is known to him, and duly entered in his weighted tables. And out of it has grown his impelling aim to help lift the burden of disease and accident from American workers—an aim not merely for the sake of cutting down insurance costs, but one which has its roots in the scientific and humanitarian outlook which industrial Germany has given to a generation of leaders in production.

Months were spent by Mr. Hoffman in outlining the itinerary and in getting permission from heads of great corporations for this visitor from foreign shores. Not that the American manu-



SIR THOMAS OLIVER

facturer is afraid of a visitor from foreign shores; it is the expert from the foreign manufacturing plant that he is suspicious of, the tapping of inventions and methods which may give the American producer a foothold in the world markets. It was a case, however, where the spirit of science and humanitarianism triumphed over trade habits. Dr. Oliver visited plants where the newest fields of industry are forging outward—from breakfast foods to electricity; he went through the great works of the steel district and of the Niagara Falls area, where carborundum and all manner of things are made by dint of the great voltage of falling waters. But it is not merely in these new fields that occupational diseases are being recognized by scientist and engineer. Soup, paint, pottery, oils, watches, brass, lead, copper, hats, pearl buttons, cutlery—the manufacturing of every one of these has a problem of trade disease, when that delicate container of water and vital energy which we call the human body, is introduced as a factor in the team play of chemicals and machines and horsepower.

Dr. Oliver also visited some of the hospitals and universities where we in America are beginning to study these problems. Among the plants, mines and institutions visited were the following:

Waterside plant of the Edison Electric Co., New York.  
American Museum of Safety, New York.  
Rockefeller Institute of Medical Research, New York.  
St. Luke's Hospital, New York.  
The Campbell Soup Co.'s plant, Camden.  
Pennsylvania Hospital, Philadelphia.  
Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore.  
Sherwin-Williams Co.'s paint factory, Newark.  
The Prudential Insurance Co. of America, Newark.  
Edison Storage Battery Co., West Orange.  
The Trenton Potteries, Trenton.  
New Jersey State Prison, Trenton.



Naval Academy, Annapolis.  
 Experiment Station of the Bureau of Mines, Pittsburg.  
 Plant of the National Lead and Oil Co., New Kensington, Pa.  
 Several mines of the Pittsburgh Coal Co., near Pittsburgh.  
 Several plants of the U. S. Steel Corporation, near Pittsburgh.  
 The Carborundum Co., Niagara Falls.  
 The Shredded Wheat Co., Niagara Falls.  
 Niagara Electro Chemical Co., and other plants, at Niagara Falls.  
 A prison farm near Toronto.  
 The Waltham Watch Co.'s factory, Waltham.  
 The Wood Mill of the American Woolen Co., Lawrence.  
 Plant of the Underwood Typewriter Co., Hartford.  
 The plants of the Bridgeport Brass Co., Bridgeport.  
 The plants of the National Lead Co., Perth Amboy.  
 The Electrolitic Copper Refinery of the Anaconda Copper Co., Perth Amboy.  
 The Dunlap Hat factory, Brooklyn.  
 Tonk's Pearl Button factory, Newark.  
 The New England Button Co.'s Ivory button factory, Newark.  
 The cutlery factory of J. Wiss & Sons, Newark.  
 The Tungsten lamp works of the Westinghouse Co., Bloomfield.  
 The plant of the American Bronze Powder Co., Verona, N. J.

A complimentary welcome dinner was tendered to the visitor by the American Museum of Safety, Arthur Williams, president, at the Union League Club. Dr. Oliver participated in the dinner of the Life Underwriters' Association of Buffalo, where he delivered an address on the British Insurance Act and workmen's compensation legislation. He also gave a lecture on Industrial Hygiene and Labor Legislation at Yale University. At Boston he was entertained at a dinner, arranged by John Koren, at the St. Botolph's Club, and a few days before sailing for home he was the guest of honor at a farewell dinner provided by the American Association for Labor Legislation, at the University Club, New York, Henry W. Farnam in the chair.

#### BENCH, DOCKET AND NURSERY

A rest room for women has been located in the City Hall, Chicago, adjoining the Court of Domestic Relations. In this bit of announcement there is a deal of human significance. It is a response to the cries of little children and the silent woes of motherhood.

It will be remembered that the Court of Domestic Relations was created so as to lift from the coarse ruck of minor court cases those which concern family troubles. The suggestion came from quick-hearted women that these be heard and decided in one court of domestic relations, and the men constituting the stern front of bench and bailiff fell in with the idea.

It followed that so many heart-rending scenes were thus brought together within the new court that within little more than a year they wore away the health and spirits of the first presiding judge. To their help and his, however, he brought into the service of the court a woman adviser, who now sees the people involved in every case before it comes to trial, and settles many a one out of court.

It was found that not a few of the women brought with them their children, because there was no one to look after them at home. There was no adequate waiting room, and the mothers were obliged to do the best they could with the little ones out in the corridors of the city hall. Their plight was observed by a committee of women and immediate steps were taken to relieve it. Last week a nursery and rest room was opened across the corridor from the courtroom with its judge on the bench, its jury in the box, its bailiff at the door—a real homelike nursery with a table full of toys, little cots, and tiny chairs, a living room for mothers and children, with the court's own nurse in charge, as real a court officer as the bailiff across the hall. The children are furnished with milk, and a light lunch if they are detained through the noon hour.

The courtroom was crowded by sympathetic folk the day of the opening, a crowd representing almost every class, in one way or another, in the city of Chicago. Some of its richest and some of its poorest sat side by side; humble workers among the poor and strong leaders of great causes; private citizens and public officials; Roman Catholic priests, Jewish Rabbis, Protestant ministers, were there. They recognized that here was something new in the ordinary course of law and order, and that the hand of women had given it its impulse, where neither the law books, nor the precedents, nor the imagination of men had seen the way. It was the first justice of the Municipal Court of Chicago who predicted a time when a woman would be the judge of the Court of Domestic Relations, and wished that he might some day so address Mrs. Bowen, president of the Chicago Juvenile Protective Association.

This step registers an advance in the treatment of the unfortunate, the neglected and the incompetent who come for redress to the Court of Domestic Relations. Looking for the next things to be added to the court equipment, one after another, the speakers, as by common consent, demanded not only the addition of such an expert psychopathic adviser, but also the creation of some country wide agency to pursue and return deserting husbands and fathers, an employment bureau in co-operation with the court, a reformatory farm where the prisoner can work for his family's support as well as his own while serving sentence. It is also planned in time to have in connection with the court a medical man and psychologist so that it may become, in the very best sense of the word, a laboratory where men and women will be kindly treated and scientifically studied, not for the purpose of punishment but to insure the prevention of crime and to promote vital welfare.



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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### MURDER IN THE FIRST DEGREE

EDWARD T. DEVINE

The law no longer presumes that Charles Becker, late lieutenant of police in the city of New York, is innocent of murder. His confessed agents and accomplices and his agents and accomplices who have not confessed but are about to be tried on the same charge are still presumed to be innocent; but, in his own case, the midnight which separated Thursday the twenty-fourth from Friday the twenty-fifth of October, marked the end of the pretense of suspended judgment and the passing of the slowly ripening opinion of the community into the solemn verdict of a court of justice.

The evidence had been heard and sifted; all legal rights and fictions had been carefully observed; furious efforts had been made to impeach the damning evidence of guilt; the judge, although obviously convinced himself of the prisoner's guilt, had scrupulously charged the jury on the one point on which there was any hope of acquittal, that the testimony of accomplices could not of itself convict, that there must be some independent corroboration, and that he was himself in doubt as to whether the particular witness on whom the state mainly relied for this corroboration was or was not an accomplice, although he must be assumed not to be; the lawyers for the defense had prudently exercised their acknowledged right to keep the prisoner himself mute in court so that he could not be questioned by the prosecuting attorney; for a long fortnight the game had been played out under the watchful eye of a stern and upright umpire; the game in which the life of a man and the good name of a police system were at stake; the game in which the verdict of the twelve good men and true—that Lieutenant Becker is guilty of murder in the first degree—only reflects a larger verdict of an aroused and convinced public opinion that the system of which he was a part, the system widely ramifying inside and outside the police department, the system which the Board of Aldermen is even now investigating, is guilty of crimes so sordid that dirty grafting is a phrase too nice for them, crimes so foul that ordinary murder in the first degree seems comparatively respectable.

It is altogether appropriate that this trial should have attracted world-wide attention; that dignity and scrupulous observance of judicial forms and traditions should have characterized it; that able counsel should have been at the

disposal of the accused man; and that the public should have remained as long as possible incredulous at the possibility of such a crime. For this was no ordinary murder. That was the charge in the indictment, but if we pierce beneath the overt act of which he was charged to the substance of his offense we discern that the accusation was not that an act of violence had been committed against an individual. The crime was in effect that of treason. The betrayal of a public trust in such a way as to undermine the very foundations of social order—this is what happens when an officer of high rank in the uniformed police, sworn to enforce the law, commissioned to prevent crime and to detect law-breakers, becomes himself a law-breaker, associates intimately with criminals not to restrain or reform them but to encourage and even to direct their crimes, shares in their stealings, and, when snared at last and in danger of exposure, deliberately hires assassins to kill the would-be informer in the brilliantly lighted streets of the very city which it was his sworn duty to protect, not neglecting to see to it that policemen do not arrest the murderers, his agents, on the spot, or interfere with their escape.

We are sorry that Herman Rosenthal was killed. Perhaps the information which he was trying to get to the district attorney would have laid bare the actual situation as clearly as do these public trials for murder; and, if so, two lives already spent, and others already apparently forfeit, might have been spared. It is a gruesome thing to take the lives even of gamblers, gunmen, murderers, and traitors. But for the taking of the life of Rosenthal there is at least this compensation, that it reveals in all its nakedness the sordid criminality of that alliance between corrupt policemen and professional crooks of which we have had far more suspicion than positive evidence.

It is as well that Becker should not have stopped, as other police officials are believed to stop, with protecting gamblers and pocketing a substantial part of their gains. It is as well that one man among the men who betray their trust should have waived all scruples, should have had the nerve and consistency to stop at nothing, not even at murder. For this murder was not a separate crime in itself, with an independent motive. It was but an incident in a consistent and consistently criminal career. The underlying motive was not hatred or revenge, but greed. The defect of character which led to it was not sudden passionate impulse but a hunger for unearned wealth. Putting out of the way a gambler who had become dangerous may be the untoward incident which will send him to the electric chair, but it scarcely adds perceptibly to the measure of his guilt. Others who are false to



their oath of office, false to their obligation to protect society, proprietors of gambling dens and disorderly houses, patrons and partners of crooks, one and all stand in his predicament; and if when put to the test they shrink from murder, as he did not, this may be not because they have more conscience, but because they have less courage.

The Becker trial brings home to us the whole ghastly connection between police grafting and payment for privilege, whether privilege to do wrong, as in this case, or as in many others merely to cover up some discreditable incident or to escape petty inconvenience. Under our criminal procedure the jury was very properly prevented from knowing anything about the prisoner's relation to this system of police protection for privileged criminals except what bore upon the specific charge. In the perspective of the larger case now before the jury of public opinion the murder of Rosenthal takes a minor place as one incident among many. Possibly the dismissal of Lieutenant Stanton from the Police Department after he had given testimony reflecting unfavorably upon the present administration may prove to be quite as important. The city must put its house in order and the work must be done from the foundation.

## WANTED: A NEW KIND OF SOCIAL WORKER

SIMON N. PATTEN

In a recent conversation a woman said:

"I wish there was some social work I could do. Mother will not let me go into a settlement," and besides, she added with a sigh, "I am more of a poet than a worker."

"If so," I replied, "you are the person I am looking for. One poet is worth a dozen social workers."

"What would you have a poet do?" she asked.

"Write a hymn."

"A hymn?" she repeated in evident astonishment. "There are lots of good ones. Why do you want more?"

"I do not want more of the kind we have," I replied. "They express the feelings of men in another age. Our emotions need expression and some poet must help us out."

I doubt if the young lady has the enthusiasm needed for the task. She is looking back, not ahead, for inspiration. But a social poet is wanted all the same. If those with a poetic temperament realized the opportunity now open, some one could hit a chord arousing a national response. When, however, I say this to friends, I find they are surprised rather than pleased. The thought of a social poet makes them smile;

hymns remind them of the revival methods they have long since discarded. And yet this step in social movements is just ahead. The present political campaign will be memorable for its telling phrases. Words that have been heard only in the classroom or in settlement conferences have suddenly become a part of the English language. Social thought and enthusiasm are now on the street.

A story is told of a man at a recent convention who turned to his neighbor and asked: What is this social justice they are talking about? The person addressed took time to tell what the phrase denoted. Before the convention closed he made a telling speech on social justice.

This was told as a joke illustrating how readily political converts are made. I do not see it in this light. Like thousands of others, the man had in his experience the data on which social justice depends. They had never been blended into unity so as to become effective. The new phrase converted isolated experience into emotional enthusiasm. He was thus enabled to use his oratorical power and become a leader instead of having to undergo a long apprenticeship.

The epoch of phrases does not carry social movements to their goal. Song is more effective than words. Conventions have this year risen in enthusiasm to the point where they broke forth in song, but the songs used were not effective for the end in view. There is dearth of social hymns. In the recent revision of a church hymnal, its authors looked far and wide to find material for such hymns. With all their good will the result is disappointing. Social hymns are yet to be written. I hope, however, social poets are already at hand, waiting merely for material and opportunity.

I write this, wondering if I am really alone in the feeling that poets as well as workers are needed in the cause of social justice. Are we to rely on argument and statistics or can we make an emotional appeal that will arouse as well as convince? I for one believe that poets are not born but are made by the events that inspire them. A recognized goal is as much an element in their success as with other workers. Every one has poetic feelings. Some have the power to put these feelings into appropriate words. What they need is direction and encouragement.

Do others share in this belief? If so, perhaps THE SURVEY would permit itself to become the medium through which a few kindred spirits might come in touch with each other. My thought is that some theme be set to see what responses come in.

What theme, fellow worker, would you suggest? Is your Utopia less plainly outlined and the road to it less clearly pictured than was the goal visualized by the prophets of old?





## II PULLMAN

PULLMAN. The very word seems like a pivot around which swings the range of our industrialism. For those who early hailed the town as providing that alchemy by which the labor problem was to be transmuted into Utopian paternalism, the mention of the name brings memories as of an Arabian Night's dream which vanished under the impact of reality. For "practical" men it signifies the futility of social betterment schemes and marks the battleground where law and order triumphed over anarchy—in the struggle of 1894 which, before it ended, embraced the transportation service of the country and saw the rise and fall of the American Railway Union under Eugene V. Debs. But for the host of warm-hearted, sane believers in the better day that is coming, it stands for a great human tragedy, yet a necessary one in so far as it made of paternalism a "lost cause."

In the perspective of the years we can understand the point of view and the disappointment of the strong man whose hopes and plans for a model industrial community were shattered even in the hour of his victory over his own men.'

'See A Modern Lear, by Jane Adams, p. 131.

And we can sympathize with the men who, having grievances at least in some degree just, went through the hard struggle to bitter defeat, yet in that hour knew not that their fight had sealed the fate of paternalism and left open but one road—the road toward industrial democracy.

Our concern in the Pullman of today is to find out what heritage—industrial, civic and social—the past has turned over to the present and the future. The Story of Pullman distributed at the Pullman exhibit at the World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago, 1893, declared that "At an early date the beautiful town of Pullman . . . will be as a bright and radiant little island in the midst of the great tumultuous sea of Chicago's population; a restful oasis in the wearying brick-and-mortar waste of an enormous city."

Today, twenty years later, it would seem worth while to make a voyage of re-discovery of this little "island" and see what it means in the sea of Chicago's life—in health, recreation, housing, and community spirit. Has Chicago been led to better dwellings by the model town? What of the provisions for wholesome play under paternalism and under public auspices? What of the



ENTRANCE TO NEW PULLMAN SCHOOL





#### A PRIVATELY CONTROLLED CITY

Arcade Park and the "Green Stone Church" as they appeared in the old days.

people themselves who live in Pullman? Does the industry continue to supply the old houses with dwellers? Have strange people come in who know nothing of the ancient glories of their habitation? What of work conditions to-day as compared with those of twenty years ago? You and I ride in steel instead of wooden cars; how does this affect the workmen who fashion them? Does our greater safety and comfort mean greater or less skill on their part? Did they find themselves, at the change, with useless trades on their hands? What significance is there in the fact that the only Socialist who ever sat as alderman in Chicago's city council came from the ward of which Pullman is a part, came indeed from a work bench in the Pullman car shops?

The old Pullman was the subject of countless radiant descriptions. The whole country watched the dream of its founder take form. In 1880 open prairie stretched westward from Lake Calumet, broken only by the small farming community of Roseland. Five years later, when the chiefs and commissioners of the various state labor bureaus visited the new town, they found the great car works surrounded by nearly 9000 dwellers in 1520 houses having 6,485 rooms. Every house and tenement was supplied with water and gas. The streets were wide, well built and clean, lined with beautiful lawns and trees, all cared for by the company. A complete system of drainage had been installed before the population came.

From the railroad station, fourteen miles from downtown Chicago, a broad boulevard, now 111th street, led eastward to Lake Calumet.

North of this boulevard were the great shops, a park and artificial lake forming an attractive landscape between them and the railway station. South of the boulevard and visible from the station were the hotel, the Arcade—containing stores, bank, theater and library—a park with gardens and a bandstand, and beyond it the Greenstone Church, the whole making a "civic center" which would do credit even to our modern town planning. A block south of the Arcade was the school building. Beyond this grouping of the more imposing buildings were a dozen city blocks of dwellings with a conveniently located market building. The nearer blocks contained the better houses, in solid rows, yet with some diversity of architecture, while the further blocks were given over to the cheaper tenement buildings which presented a monotonous similarity of exteriors and of interior arrangement. More blocks of dwellings occupied the tract immediately north of the shops. At the Lake Calumet terminus of the boulevard was a small island. Here the recreation field was laid out, and games of all sorts were encouraged. Crack cricket matches and the most famous rowing regattas of the middle west shared with baseball and bicycle races in bringing renown to the place as an athletic center.

But beneath this attractive picture of the "model town" was the spirit and substance of paternalism. A cardinal point in the policy of the president of the Pullman company was the retention of the ownership of land and houses. Maintenance of utilities, care of houses and lawns, repair and cleaning of streets, manage-



ment of hotel, theatre and other community activities—all were controlled by the company. Thus was established that autocratic power, which scarcely was challenged until 1885, when Professor Richard T. Ely assailed it as feudalistic. It is easy to criticize an autocrat, but even the social worker, who sometimes turns his imagination to the things he would do if he were mayor or president of a great industrial concern, little knows how subtly his own conviction as to "what is good for people" might estrange him from them when they failed to share the conviction. It is not hard to understand the jealous guidance Mr. Pullman sought to exercise over the activities of the town he so fondly created. The evident sincerity of his benevolent intentions blinded most of the early observers to the real significance of such enormous power over private affairs of life, and their descriptions consisted of unmixed praise.

In characterizing the president of the Pullman company as "the modern King Lear," Miss Addams, in her paper written just after the strike, shows how the honest desire to give his employes the best surroundings developed into a sense of pride and power in his own benevolence, how "he cultivated the great and noble impulses



JUST ARRIVED

His one response to inquiries in English was "Slovensk."

of the benefactor until the power of attaining a simple human relationship with his employes was gone from him." The story of Pullman, so far as its significance for today is concerned, centers largely in the developments whereby the feudalistic power was dislodged and shifted to the shoulders of the community. The annexation of Pullman to Chicago in 1889 was the beginning. The vigor with which the company opposed this step indicated a realizing sense that it foreshadowed the end of company control of the town.

The great strike was the next important factor in the disintegration of that control. The trouble centered in a situation involving fixed rents and sliding wage scales, both controlled by the company. The latter suffered in the general business depression following the World's

Fair. It claims to have accepted contracts at a loss in order to continue to afford work. But it cut its wage scales 22 per cent and reduced its schedules of working time. The men struck.

In the midst of the struggle a sympathetic strike was ordered by the new American Railway Union whose members crippled the railway service of the country by their refusal to handle Pullman cars. The action of President Cleve-



INSIDE THE WORKS

The advent of the steel car has almost revolutionized the industry.



land in sending federal troops to Chicago started a bitter controversy in which the governor of Illinois and local officials claimed that their control of the situation was adequate and that the President's action was unwarranted. The imprisonment of Eugene V. Debs, president of the American Railway Union, gave added sting to the defeat of the organization by the railway managers and undoubtedly helped to give Debs his leadership of the Socialist Party. The sympathetic strike and its attendant violence was widely condemned—the railroad brotherhoods, for example, refusing to take part in it. But the original and more orderly strike of the Pullman employes was based upon grievances in some measure just, in the estimation of nearly every investigator, from the government commission, headed by Carroll D. Wright, to an attorney for one of the railroads later involved, who is now identified with one of our largest industrial corporations. It was this strike that demonstrated how unsatisfactory the domination of community interests by the industrial authority could be if the form was kept up without the loyalty of both parties.

The third great event in the waning of this domination was the Illinois Supreme Court decision in 1898 to the effect that the charter of the Pullman company did not permit it to hold real estate beyond the necessities of its manufacturing business. Five years were allowed for disposing of these holdings, and at the end of that period an extension of five years was granted. By 1908, therefore, the possessions of the Pullman company were reduced to little more than the car shops. However, the remaining vacant land was retained by much the same interests. The Pullman Land Association was the agent by which this was accomplished, and of the 4,000 acres originally purchased, approximately 2,900 are still owned by this association. The shops occupy about 500 acres, and some 600 acres were sold. Hotel, market building, school, church—all passed out of the company's hands. To retain some remnant of the cherished project of her husband, Mrs. Pullman purchased the Arcade, which she still owns.

The change from company ownership and management to that of individuals and the public has meant a distinct gain in many respects, especially in provision of schools and recreation facilities and healthier community relationships. But nevertheless it has left the old town with a forlorn air of faded glory. The city of Chicago does not maintain the streets so well, and out of sheer regard for the immediate surroundings of the shops, the company still assumes the maintenance of 111th street—the boulevard—and the thoroughfare along the western front. The old lawns which made each street beautiful in the old days are kept up or

not as the present owners happen to care, and often adjoining premises show a glaring contrast. Hard, bare ground in front of the tenement blocks permits their ugly monotony to stand out today in all its nakedness, a monotony previously softened by the flanking greensward and hedges. These block houses, unsuitable for sale to the occupants of their tenements, were bought by Mr. Pullman's daughter, Mrs. Frank O. Lowden. Her agent rents them under the supervision of the same caretaker, or "house boss" as he is called, who has been employed since the beginning.

Except for these block houses and some of the cheaper rows of dwellings north of the shops, which are held by the Pullman Land Association, the houses of the town were offered to the occupants at prices averaging one hundred times the monthly rental. Easy terms of payment were arranged, on installments scarcely larger than rent, and some purchasers are still paying off the few remaining installments. The



"BLOCK HOUSES"

These cheaper tenements are today inhabited almost exclusively by Poles, Hungarians, Italians and Greeks.

number of employes who thus became owners of the houses which they and their families had come to call homes was gratifying to those whose hearts clung to the high hope in which the town was founded. Individual effort due to pride in home ownership has brightened the Pullman of today with an after-glow reflecting the earlier beauty. A Saturday afternoon stroll shows many a householder working to improve his own dwelling.

The substantial original construction of brick and the architectural scheme still give the houses of Pullman a distinct stamp in contrast with the stretches of dingy, frame houses characteristic of Chicago's poorer sections. They appear like a transplanted fragment of one of our eastern cities. Chicago's housing seems not to have been influenced in the slightest degree by the "model" on its outskirts. While Chicago has only recently come up to tenement light and air standards set by Pullman thirty years ago, that progress seems due to the country-wide advance in standards.



The block houses which contain the bulk of the cheapest tenements show the lowest conditions of living in the town of Pullman. Seven of these houses south of the shops contain 246 apartments: 36 of two rooms, 88 of three rooms, 98 of four rooms and 24 of five rooms. The rents vary from \$5 a month for two rooms to \$8 for four rooms, while some of the five-room tenements are \$10. While rents in general have risen, those at Pullman show very little actual change from the rates of thirty years ago. Then Pullman rents were considerably higher than tenement rents in Chicago, or in Massachusetts manufacturing towns, as the report of the labor commissioners showed. The accommodations were much superior, however. Now, for accommodations of even poorer grade in Chicago a rate of at least a third more must be paid.



THESE ARE BETTER

Though holding in general one family to a house, the monotony which gives the block houses the appearance of a penitentiary is not altogether lacking.

Sanitary conditions are not as bad as one usually finds in the cheaper of Chicago tenements. Each room has one or more windows giving adequate light and air. Practically none opens on a narrow court. A bath tub is a rarity, which seems strange in a "model town," but it must be remembered that the standards of 1880 were not those of today. Spasmodic overhauls of plumbing and sanitary conveniences in the block houses have kept them in a fair state of repair, though there is considerable complaint concerning dilapidation of sinks and odors from them, and renovation of walls might be more frequent. The scrubbing of hall floors is arranged for by the rather unusual method of apportioning the space equally among the families whose tenements are entered through the hall.

Crowding is doubtless more serious than formerly, though statistics on this score for the earlier days are difficult to find. The "house boss" of the block houses estimates that about 1,600 people now live in the 848 rooms of the 246 tenements above mentioned. This is an average of about six to a tenement and nearly two to a room. But a relief visitor considered

even this estimate of crowding as conservative, because of the secretiveness of the families as to the number of boarders they have. One case, for example, was cited of a husband and wife, eight children and two boarders—all in a tenement of two rooms. Not infrequently a large group of single men, usually Greeks, inhabits a tenement. That the problem of the boarder, however, is not a new one is indicated by a description of the town written in 1893 by the wife of an official. At that time it appeared that no fewer than 900 families in Pullman had one or more boarders or roomers, and that from 2,500 to 3,000 "bachelors" worked at Pullman. The work force at that time numbered fewer than 7,000.

This crowding cannot fail to be a menace, especially since the tenements in the block houses have little privacy with respect to toilet arrangements. The three tenements on each floor of an entry-way have their closets grouped at one end of the common hall.

To accommodate more people in a given space, some of the smaller houses seem to have gone through an evolution from single to two-family dwellings. For example, a whole block of exactly similar houses north of the shops, each formerly containing five rooms and renting for \$12, is now divided, so that each contains a two-room tenement down stairs, and a three-room tenement up stairs, each renting for about \$6.50. The appearance of the houses from the street remains unchanged, but the only entrance to the up-stairs tenements is through the rear alley and thence up a flight of wooden stairs from the back yard.

South European immigration displacing earlier comers from the North is responsible in some measure for the crowding and for many other changed conditions in the town. The influx of new nationalities is shown most strikingly by a comparison of tables giving the nativity of wage-earners in different years. In 1892 there were among the 6,324 wage-earners:

American born	1796	or about	28	per cent
Scandinavian	1422	"	22	"
German	824	"	13	"
British	796	"	12.5	"
Dutch	753	"	12	"
Irish	402	"	6	"
Polish	116	"	2	"
Italian	99	"	1.5	"
Bohemian	26	"	.4	"
Russian	12	"	.2	"
Hungarians and Austrians	77	"	1.2	"
Lithuanians	none			

There was but one Greek. The extent of the change which has come about in twenty years is vividly shown by the fact that within one week after the opening of the hostilities between Turkey and the Balkan states, no fewer than 200 out of an estimated 500 Greeks in the vicinity of Pullman started back to join the army





THE FRONT

Though monotonous in appearance, these houses seem to be one family dwellings, but from—



THE REAR

—the rear, each house is seen to have two tenements, the second story tenement being reached only through the rear alley.

of their fatherland. In 1912 out of 10,000 employees in the Pullman shops there were:

American and English born.	3151	or about	31.5	per cent.
Scandinavian .....	1628	"	16.	"
Hungarian .....	1412	"	14.	"
Italian .....	868	"	9.	"
German .....	707	"	7.	"
Polish .....	695	"	7.	"
Russian .....	508	"	5.	"
Hollanders .....	503	"	5.	"
Lithuanian .....	281	"	3.	"
Greek .....	229	"	2.	"
Bohemian .....	80	"	.4	"

The flood of foreigners from southern Europe to America has been coincident with many changes in industrial processes lessening the premium upon skill. Pullman affords spectacular proof of this. The advent of the steel car threw wood carving, cabinet making and many other skilled crafts on the scrap heap and substituted metal work demanding distinctly shorter training. Steel sleepers were first made about 1907. This year not a single one of wood is being manufactured. Of the ordinary coaches built on contract for railroads, about 75 per cent are steel body and wooden interior finish, 15 per cent are all steel, and only 10 per cent are of wood. More would probably be made entirely of steel but for the difficulty experienced in heating them.

The works, employing now 10,000 men, consist of three principal divisions: the passenger car construction shops with about 6,800, the repair shops with about 1,000, and the freight car shops with about 2,200. In 1885 Professor Ely found that the great majority were skilled artisans and that the unskilled constituted about one-quarter of the force. Today the force may be classified into: 5,000 or 50 per cent skilled, 2,600 or 26 per cent semi-skilled, and 2,400 or 24 per cent unskilled. The proportion of unskilled and semi-skilled would be still greater were it not for the introduction of many labor-saving devices.

When the steel construction began all the older and skilled employes were encouraged to learn the newer trades and officials say that many of the cabinet makers readily adapted themselves

to the changed conditions, utilizing much of their old skill in the steel cabinet work. But they frankly admit that the great amount of semi-skilled work such as the assembling, erecting and riveting of steel cars has borne hard on the older employes who cannot "stand the racket." Slavs, who "don't seem to have any nerves," take these jobs. What this means for the older employes was vividly pointed out by a Dutch tradesman in Roseland who said that when the steel car work came in about two hundred members of the Dutch church he attended left, saying that the change of trades was too much for them and that anyway "no white man would now want to work in some departments of the shops."

Nevertheless, the company officials are able to show a proud record as to the average length of service of their employes. Those who have served less than two years are for the greater part unskilled "floaters." The remainder—between two-thirds and three-fourths of the whole—have served over two years and make up the permanent force with an average service of no less than twelve years. In 1906 the number who had served twenty years or more was 641. Today it is estimated at over one thousand. A considerable number of employes started as young men of twenty to thirty when the shops were built in 1880, and are therefore men of fifty to sixty now. While the experience of these men includes the great strike of 1894, and company officials claim that most of the strikers came back, the other side of the picture is shown by a "broken and discouraged man" representing a superior type of the English working class—one of the strike leaders—who stood before Miss Addams three years afterward. "Although he had been out of work most of the time since the strike," she says in Twenty Years at Hull House, "he had been undisturbed for six months in the repair shops of a street car company, under an assumed name, but had then been discovered and



dismissed," believing that he was so blacklisted that his skill could never be used again.

The average wage is nearly 30 cents an hour. The lowest rate paid is 20 cents an hour, to unskilled day labor. The average for semi-skilled labor is 24 to 26 cents an hour for work by the day, but much more than this for piece work in the erecting and riveting departments. Mechanics earn generally over 40 cents an hour. It will be noted that the rate for unskilled labor compares favorably with the 17½ cents an hour paid by the steel corporation at South Chicago and Gary. There is a 54 hour week in all departments—9¾ hours a day, except Saturday when the shops close the year round at 12:15, as against the ten and twelve hour days, and until recently the seven-day week, of the steel workers.

Wage rates signify little, however, unless yearly earnings are computed from the time books. The company claims that work is steady, that in general fluctuations are not matters of weeks and days, but that at various times the orders of railroads for cars drop seriously, as they did in 1910. The only periodic slack season is one of six weeks each summer in the repair shops, the surplus workers being used in the construction shops. But the freight car shops, using mainly semi-skilled and unskilled labor are most often affected by intermittency of employment. Tested by different years the industry would seem to have rather serious ups and downs. In 1905, for instance, the number of employes went nearly as low as 1,100; in early 1910 it was almost up to 15,000; while at present it is about 10,000, which may perhaps be considered normal.

What becomes of the "casuals"? Many of them are wandering workmen who rarely stay long in one place, even with steady work, but are off the some spot of real or fancied advantage. Others are immigrants. But many, doubtless, native and foreign alike, "stay put"—especially if they own their homes—and worry along over periods of unemployment, or seek other work

in the vicinity to fill in. "Very irregular" work is given by the Chicago United Charities as one of the causes of poverty among Pullman work people. A man of good habits can usually get credit to tide him over the periods of unemployment. "It takes, however, a large part of the wages of the regular season to pay up these bills, so a decent standard of living is often impossible." Typical applicants for relief are:

1. Young man, support of old parents, laid off for three months. Bills accumulating and assistance asked.
2. Italian with wife and five children. Only irregular employment. Grocer had cut off credit, landlord pressing for rent. School principal reports children in need of shoes.
3. Dutch family. Father had been employed in shops twenty years, laid off for three months. Wife and six children.

Diversity of employment is probably a buffer against idleness when the main industry runs slack. The report of the state labor commissioners in 1884 shows that even at this early date Mr. Pullman was seeking to assure greater industrial stability to his town by encouraging other manufacturing concerns to locate near. Today, plants of the Sherwin-Williams Paint Company, the Chicago Drop Forge and Foundry Company, the Griffin Car Wheel Company, and other concerns are grouped just south of Pullman; the Illinois Central railroad shops are just to the north; the West Pullman factory district includes a plant of the International Harvester Company; and street or interurban cars reach many other large plants in the general region.

The labor policy of the Pullman company is conservative. While many of its employes are trade union members, the organizations are in no way recognized, but an "open shop" practice prevails. There is little indication of any more liberal attitude toward collective bargaining than that indicated in the reply of Vice-President Wickes nearly twenty years ago when President Cleveland's commission to investigate the Pullman strike asked if it was not inevitable that with the company's great power its representatives were always far superior in bargaining ability to the individual workman. "Yes, that's



SAME ALLEY ON CLOSER VIEW

This is a closer view of the alley through which the tenements shown at top of preceding page are reached.



ON CALUMET LAKE SHORE

The federal census enumerator had to use a boat in 1910 to make his count. Some of the shanties are blind pigs.





#### THE WORKS TODAY

The picture shows also the grade crossing of the Illinois Central and Michigan Central tracks, half a block from the main entrance to the Pullman works. Across the tracks, in Roseland, Kensington and other neighborhoods, live the majority of Pullman employees. Counting the Interurbans, from 200 to 300 trains rush over this crossing every day. Two through trains pass at top speed within a few moments of 5:30, quitting time for 9,000 men. The coroner's records for a recent period of 22 months show 41 deaths on railroad crossings in Pullman and vicinity. A showing up of the situation by a local newspaper, coupled with vigorous activities on the part of the South End Business Men's Association and various improvement associations, stirred the whole community. A committee of fifty citizens recently induced the Chicago City Council to pass an ordinance requiring the elevation of the tracks before December 31, 1916.

his misfortune," said he. Yet the question whether the 54-hour week should be divided into six days of nine hours each or into five of 9¾ hours, leaving Saturday as a 5¼ hour day was submitted to a vote of the men, who chose the latter arrangement. But one wonders how far the company would go in submitting questions which mean more to it than the alternative between six or half a dozen. The company's conservatism is indicated by its electing not to come under the provisions of the Illinois Workmen's Compensation law. Yet its policy in payment of damages to injured workmen is said to be increasing in liberality. Attention is also being directed to welfare work and as the readers of *THE SURVEY* know, the activity of one stockholder roused the company to an effort in preventing occupational diseases.<sup>1</sup>

It had been needlessly killing men by lead poisoning in the paint shops and by dangerous acids, fumes and dust-laden air in other departments. The success of the preventive efforts is shown by the fact that in July, 1911, there were 77 cases of lead poisoning out of 450 men employed in the paint department, while in August, 1912, not a single case was reported among 470 employed. Five doctors now care for injuries

as compared with one formerly. Thus far no nurse has been employed though her services, especially among the single men living in lodgings, would go far to prevent infections due to the improper care of minor wounds.

Civic conditions and agencies show interesting comparisons between the old paternalistic regime and the present company control. Decent housing was not the only way in which the company sought at the beginning to provide wholesome home surroundings. Exclusion of demoralizing influences was also part of the effort. With the exception of the bar in the Florence Hotel, no saloons were allowed in the town. Liquor interests seized upon the nearest available spot and thirty grog shops soon clustered at Kensington just across the railroad tracks and south of Pullman. This place quickly merited the name of "Bumtown" which still clings to it. Even until recently the last suburban train each night from the city down to Kensington and return was known as "the Bumtown turn-around."

With the changes in population and the property sale which did away with the early restrictions, saloons seem strangely slow in invading the old town. Aside from the hotel bar mentioned only five saloons have started up, one of them in a corner of the market house. And in the part of the town north of the shops but ten have come in. In fact few things are more striking to the observer who watches the swarms of men at the main gate during the noon hour than the absence of beer cans and the prevalence of milk bottles. From two milk wagons as many as 200 to 500 bottles of milk are sold each noon, and the number in very warm weather rises still higher. "Bumtown," however, lives up to its old reputation and boasts of fifty-two saloons, twenty-five of which are on the single block nearest to Pullman. The southern part of "Bumtown" is dubbed "Snarl town"—due, it is said, to its quarrelsome dogs—and is notoriously tough. Several prohibition districts, however, are stoutly maintained in Roseland and vicinity under the local option law.



#### PULLMAN'S NOON BEVERAGE

A typical roadside after lunch time. The two milk peddlers at the main gate—only one of seven entrances—have a combined sale of 200 to 500 bottles each noon, and as many as 600 in the warmest weather. One of the surprising things to the stranger is the almost entire absence of beer can "rushing."

<sup>1</sup>See What One Stockholder Did, *THE SURVEY*, June 1, 1912. P. 387.



The police administration of the district has not the highest respect of the better citizens. Indeed a scandal which came to the attention of all Chicago developed in an indecent entertainment to celebrate the presentation of a diamond star to the police lieutenant by a group of citizens of the sort usually interested more in the non-enforcement than in the enforcement of law. With such officials of law and order it is fortunate that the region seems to need their attention but little. An officer of the Juvenile Protective Association declares that although there are some "blind pigs" in the doubtful shacks along Lake Calumet and a few dance halls in "Bumtown," the neighborhood is the cleanest she has ever worked in. She finds evidence, particularly in Burnside, however, of loose relations in houses where a group of Slavic men have one woman as housekeeper.

The company management of the town sought to provide various wholesome substitutes for the demoralizing influences which were barred. Through the generosity of Mrs. Pullman the library, already mentioned, is still maintained, and its present circulation of books, greater now than formerly, is noteworthy in the face of the incoming Slavic, Greek and Italian population and the fact that it has no books in these languages. It is used mainly by children. The theater is now little used. Its location up one flight of stairs conflicts with Chicago's building requirements. And the people of Roseland, which has outstripped Pullman in size, prefer to patronize their own three motion picture and vaudeville theaters.

Recreation facilities show one of the most significant developments in the change from old to new. The island athletic field was a notably serviceable provision, but its glory is eclipsed by the splendid recreation center, Palmer Park, which the South Park Commissioners admirably placed so as to serve Pullman on the east, Kensington on the south and Roseland on the west. Its forty acres provide football and baseball fields, tennis courts, swimming pool, children's playground and wading pool, outdoor and indoor gymnasiums for both sexes, club rooms and an assembly hall for social gatherings and entertainments. The fine civic service of these Chicago recreation centers has often been described in *THE SURVEY*<sup>1</sup>. Suffice it here to say that the director of Palmer Park is intelligently alert to promote its neighborhood utility, and the "Pleasant Sunday Afternoons" he arranges through the fine assembly hall. It is worth noting that Palmer Park, serves as a frequent meeting place for the district representatives of the Juvenile Protective Association, the United Charities and the Visiting Nurses' Association and that in all the efforts for neigh-

borhood welfare which center at the park the school principals are enthusiastic co-operators. It is a pity that the same cannot be said of all the clergy. Although the churches are probably larger and better attended than in the average city neighborhood, they have in general taken little share in movements for community betterment.

Schools no less than recreation facilities serve to give assurance that public authority can go paternalism one better in meeting community needs. It is not fair, of course, to contrast the fine new George M. Pullman grade school which the Chicago Board of Education has built, with the discarded and forlorn building across the street, which marks the remains of a glory now dim. But the school built by the company is declared by school authorities to have been not up to the highest standards of its time. And it is particularly pointed out that its location where it would be a part of the showy front of



THE PULLMAN CLUB

Organized and still maintained by company officials and foremen and other leading residents of the town.

the town as seen from the railroad was not the best from the standpoint of its efficiency as a school. When Pullman became a part of Chicago the Board of Education might have bought the building, but the company would not sell. When the property was disposed of in accordance with the court order the board refused to buy, but continued to rent until it built the new school. Three other schools, including a high school, serve the vicinity of Pullman, and three of the principals have twenty years or more of service to their credit.

The community is now looking forward to the Pullman Free Manual Training School for which Mr. Pullman's will in 1897 provided \$1,200,000. This has now increased to well over \$2,000,000. While it has been contended that delay was necessary in order that the sum should become large enough to carry out the project most effectively, the trustees have been taken to

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY* for July 2, 1910.



task by a local newspaper, which also sought to show by the estimate of an accountant that the fund should by this time have reached nearly \$3,000,000. A head for the school has been chosen, Prof. L. G. Weld, formerly of Iowa State University, and it is expected that early in 1913 ground will be broken on the site of forty acres facing Palmer Park on the north.

The health conditions of Pullman and its vicinity seem to be fully up to and perhaps better than those of the average city neighborhood, though among the children of the poor in the block houses and other cheap tenements the work of an infant welfare nurse from the Chicago Department of Health finds plenty of scope. The most pressing immediate needs are for sewage disposal and hospital service. The sewerage system empties, through the Calumet river, into Lake Michigan which supplies the city's water. Accordingly plans are under way to provide a canal which will connect with the main Chicago sanitary canal and thus divert all sewage to the Mississippi. The problem of hospital service is one which affects the whole southern portion of Chicago.

Mr. Pullman, for some unknown reason, failed to include a hospital in his elaborate scheme of buildings. There are private hospitals at the Illinois Steel Works in South Chicago and at the Illinois Central Railroad shops at Burnside. Public-spirited citizens organized a small hospital in Pullman, which receives patients from the car shops as well as from the town in general. But the charity patient, whether for a clinic or the county hospital, must make the long journey into the central part of the big city. A fifteen mile journey—by Kensington police ambulance to the Illinois Central suburban train, thence in the baggage car to downtown Chicago, and then by another police ambulance to the county hospital—is certainly not conducive to a sick man's improvement. Instances are not lacking of deaths en route. But the situation will be remedied when a branch of the county hospital, for which land has already been bought at Burnside just north of Pullman, is built.

The growth of the neighborhoods west of Pullman directs attention to the matter of city planning. While the number of people living in the old town of Pullman is nearly the same as it was twenty-five years ago, Roseland, Kensington, West Pullman and Gano have all developed from rural communities until now, according to the 1910 census, the population table shows:

Roseland .....	20,901
Pullman .....	7,931
Kensington .....	6,328
West Pullman .....	6,025
Gano .....	4,660

The history of these towns is interesting. Roseland was settled by a group of Hollanders who left the old country in 1849 because of religious difficulties. Preaching services in Dutch are still held in three churches. Gano, just west of Kensington, and south of Roseland, contains many French Canadians, who are said to have come originally about 1885 to act as strike breakers during a strike at the brick yards. The Catholic church they founded has French preaching services on alternate Sundays.

The development of the section seems to have been along natural lines of traffic. From the standpoint of the Chicago City Plan no peculiar problems are apparent either in this newly built-up region or in the old arrangement of Pullman. The general district is following the usual course of an outlying portion of the city. Real estate operators are developing it by subdivisions. This means more or less haphazard growth, with attention focused on the profits to be gotten out of given plots rather than upon the development of the whole area in accordance with modern scientific town planning.

Interest in city planning seems to be absorbed in industrial, and particularly harbor, development rather than in residential growth. The utilization of Lake Calumet for harbor purposes was part of the original Pullman scheme. But in these later days the enterprise interests not only the industries of the Pullman vicinity but the whole of Chicago. With a direct channel leading from the Calumet river to Lake Calumet,



WHERE COMMUNITY PLANNING EXCELS  
The new George M. Pullman School recently built by the Chicago Board of Education.



WHERE PRIVATE INITIATIVE SHOWS  
A contrast often afforded today by adjoining houses. The yard of one made attractive with flowers, vines and trees and the other showing only hard, trampled soil.





#### IN PALMER PARK

This swimming pool exemplifies modern community provision for recreation.

the dredging of the latter, and the construction in it of huge docks, the metropolitan harbor facilities would be greatly increased in a way to relieve congestion nearer the city center. A map indicating one of the tentative schemes is shown on another page. This scheme includes not only the harbor development, but a much needed diagonal avenue from Pullman and vicinity to South Chicago, another boulevard connecting with the Chicago boulevard system, and a park to be made possible by a filling in of the northern part of Lake Calumet. The location of the latter feature is criticized because of proximity to docks which would shut it off from the Lake Calumet water front. A park along the wooded banks of the Calumet river to the south is also proposed. Both lake and river shores are suggested park areas in the Chicago City Plan.

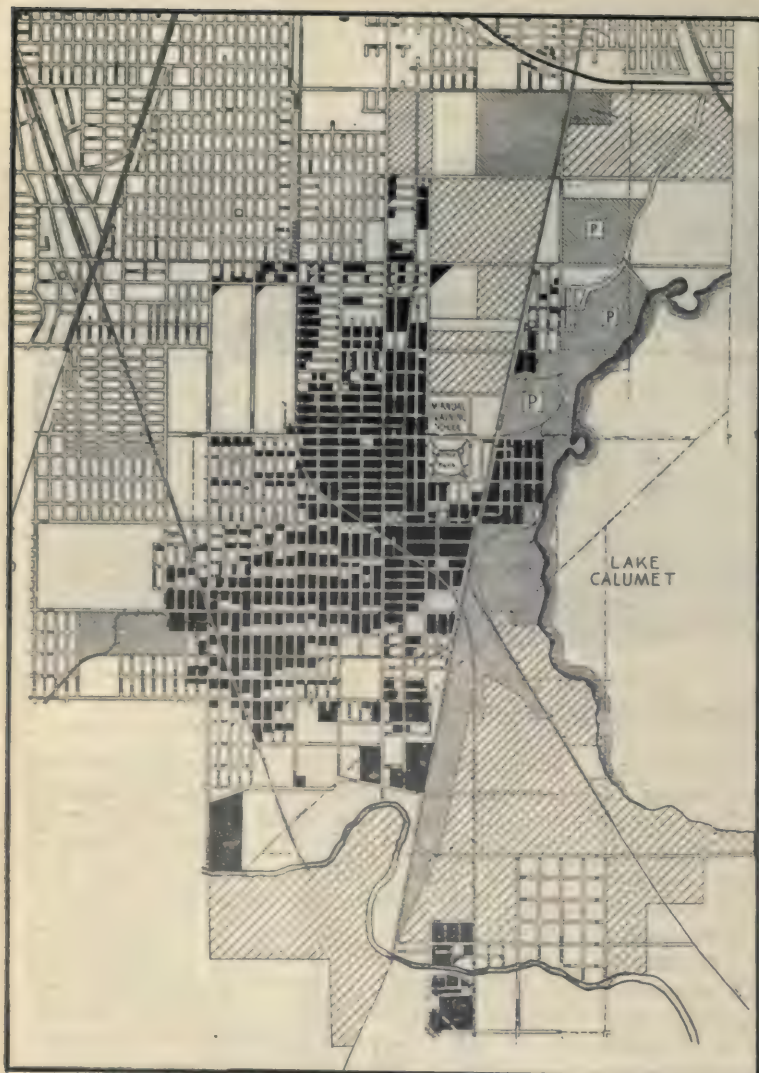
The civic spirit of the people shows strongly the influence of their experiences with industrial authority. Even in 1885 Professor Ely found difficulty in getting real opinions on living and working conditions from the dwellers in the town who feared "spotters" and dire consequences if they criticized the company. "To beat the company" was already considered praiseworthy. But the bitterness generated by the strike is of course the central fact which illumines prior and subsequent feeling.

While the company declares that the men were free to live where they chose, it is scarcely disputed that it felt compelled to give preference in work opportunities to company tenants. In ante-

bellum days the sturdy Dutchmen who had founded the neighboring village of Roseland made it one of the important stations of the "underground railroad" from the Ohio river to Canada. Lively stories are told of how Constable Kuyper played the genial host to the man-hunters who were searching for runaway slaves stowed in his own chimney. A similar spirit of independence was shown by not a few Pullman employes who chose to live in the freer air of Roseland rather than be sure of a job under the wings of paternalism. And when the Pullman company finally relinquished its ownership of Pullman the trend to Roseland continued.

In little ways the old suspicion and smoldering bitterness continues to crop out. It is related that soon after Professor Weld became the head of the projected manual training school he fell into conversation with a Pullman workman who did not know with whom he was talking. The professor sought to test out the enthusiasm of the workers for the new technical opportunities which would soon be available. But he is said to have been discomfited by a reply to the effect that "we have sweated our years away in those shops and if possible we'll keep our boys from slaving their lives out in them too." Whatever there may have been in the incident is not so important in itself as in its expression of some measure of sentiment, however unrepresentative of the whole. The prevalence of a similar feeling among the boys themselves with reference to working in the shops is vouched





### A VALUABLE LAND HOLDING

Growth of population and civic development are daily enhancing the value of the 2,900 acres of vacant land still held by the Pullman Land Association as part of the original tract of 4,000, regardless of any effort the Pullman Land Association may put forth. This is probably the largest single holding of vacant land in Chicago.

As pointed out in the first article of this series, the booklet distributed at the Pullman Company's exhibit at the World's Columbian Exposition in 1893 contains the statement that "the day is not only coming, but is near at hand, when the thirty-million dollar present capital stock of the Pullman Company will be covered by the value of the 3,500 acres of land on which is built the town of Pullman."

The price paid in 1880 is said to have averaged about \$200 an acre. A real estate man estimates it to be worth now at least \$1,500 an acre.

The association is selling portions from time to time for development as residential subdivisions.

### HOW THE REGION AROUND PULLMAN IS BUILDING UP

Map showing the location of schools, the territory used for manufacturing, railroad yards and other industrial purposes, and the approximately 2,900 acres of vacant land still held by the Pullman Land Association—the remainder of the original tract of 4,000 acres bought in 1880. The town of Pullman lies between Lake Calumet and the nearest railroad west. The recreation center—Palmer Park—and the forty acre site for the Pullman Free Manual Training School are also shown.

Solid Black



Indicates territory built up.



Indicates territory used for manufacturing, railroad yards, and other industrial purposes. That marked with a large P is occupied by the Pullman car shops.

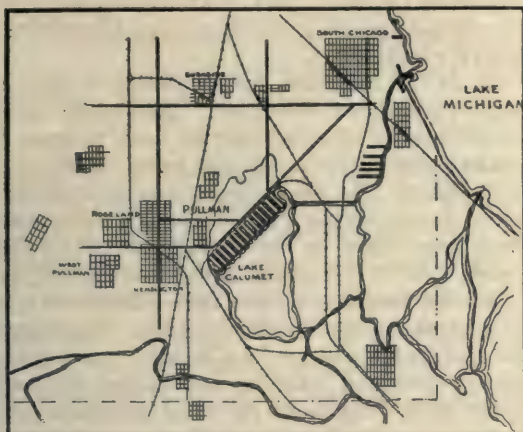


Indicates the vacant land still owned by the Pullman Land Association.



Indicates schools.





#### A SATELLITE IN THE MIDST OF SATELLITES.

Pullman in its relation to surrounding towns—Roseland, the old settlement of Holland Dutch; West Pullman, a more recent manufacturing town which boasts one of the plants of the International Harvester Company; Kensington, known as "Bumtown"; Burnside, where the Illinois Central Railroad repair shops are; and South Chicago, with the plant of the Illinois Steel Company.

One of the schemes for the development of Lake Calumet as a great harbor to serve Chicago is indicated. The system of locks is to be reached through a channel cut through from the Calumet river. A plan for the much needed diagonal thoroughfare from Pullman to South Chicago is shown with its connecting boulevard north to join the Chicago boulevard system. This plan also suggests the filling in and development of the north end of Lake Calumet as a park. Other plans suggest parks along the wooded banks of the Calumet river to the south.

for by a man whose position brings him into intimate contact with them. And the temper of the community is indicated in some degree by the fact that a fair minded and influential citizen was quite willing to believe the report—which may have been utterly false—that after a well paid old German had become expert in giving steel car fittings a "graining" to resemble mahogany the company put some young fellows alongside to learn the secret of his skill and then discharged him.

But the politics of the community afford perhaps the most significant side lights on civic spirit and the feeling toward the Pullman company. One of the struggles of the early days is related by the late William T. Stead in his book *If Christ Came to Chicago*. John P. Hopkins, as a young man, held a good position with the company but showed both his independence and usefulness to such an extent that although he was discharged for insubordination the company later re-employed him. Then, although Mr. Pullman was a pronounced Republican, Hopkins proceeded to carry the town for the Democratic ticket, his popularity among the voters being due, it is said, to admiration for his standing unabashed and victorious before the company. This was too much and he was discharged without ceremony. By the turn of political fortune he was Chicago's mayor at the time of the Pullman strike.

The extent to which the company has sought to dominate the politics of the community is a matter on which opinions vary, though probably any efforts of this sort were much more in evidence formerly than now.

At the time of Professor Ely's study, the village of Hyde Park—of which Pullman was then a part—had as town clerk and as treasurer officers of the Pullman company. With one exception every member of the local board of education was an officer of the Pullman company or its allied concerns. But no resident of Pullman, who was not an officer of the company, had any public office.

Today, one of the aldermen from the ward of which Pullman is a part, declares that an officer of the Pullman bank has frankly told him that he thought the company ought to have representation and influence in local politics especially with reference to police administration. But as a matter of fact the suspicion that any aldermanic candidate is "in" with the company is enough to make his defeat certain. This has actually happened twice—upon one occasion a



"BUMTOWN"

This was the name given to Kensington, across the tracks from Pullman, which provided the saloons and toughness not allowed in the town. It still lives up to its tradition, and the block shown in the picture has twenty-five saloons today.



former Pullman shop manager going down to disaster. A study of the election returns from the various precincts during a period of years shows a greater anti-company strength among men of independent mind who moved over to Roseland than among the more docile dwellers in Pullman.

The ward is known as a "banner ward" among the Socialists who normally poll from 12 to 18 per cent of the vote. Neither Socialists or their opponents say that this strength of their party is due directly to the strike of 1894, or to personal loyalty to the leader of the sympathetic strike, Eugene V. Debs. But there can be no doubt that the events of that tragic summer did much to give many men the frame of mind which made them easy converts to the Socialist Party, and the Socialist handbills pasted on the inside walls of the car shops indicate Socialist strength and zeal among the Pullman employees.

It seems reasonably clear, however, contrary to the conclusion to which the average man would naturally jump, that the election in this ward of the only Socialist alderman who ever sat in the Chicago City Council had little relation to any feeling generated by the strike a few years before. The Democratic candidate was manifestly unfit and the Municipal Voters' League endorsed the Republican. But a few days before the election the league learned of his suspicious past and issued a special bulletin advocating the election of the Socialist. Although the ward is normally Republican, its voters showed remarkable independence by electing the Socialist, who was a workman in the Pullman shops. He turned out to be a hopelessly incompetent, though entirely honest and sincere, alderman. It is interesting to speculate, however, what might have happened in Chicago's later politics if he had been a man of the vigorous ability of Victor L. Berger.

The independent voting thus shown is characteristic of the ward, and later when two Republican aldermen seemed to become less efficient and devoted in their public service, it promptly elected two Democrats who are now rendering efficient service, according to the estimate of the Municipal Voters' League. Both of the repudiated aldermen had voted for doubtful franchises. Even one of the better of these granted twenty-year rights to a street car company whose rights had still nine years to run. Under the terms of the new franchise there is a continuance of the old ten cent fare for the ride from Pullman into Chicago's downtown section. During these same tenures of office, moreover, a so-called "bargain" was made whereby the Pullman company agreed that if the city of Chicago would collect the garbage and refuse from Pullman it might dump

the same in Lake Calumet along the company's riparian rights. Thus considerable land was "made"—illegally, according to an Illinois legislative commission.

A better alderman who followed fought not only against this so-called "grab," but against the filling in of more land in Lake Calumet by manufacturing concerns just south of the Pullman shops. He furthermore stopped these concerns from building a fence across a street which had been open to the public for thirty-eight years. So it has come about that thirty years from the founding of this feudal industrial town a citizenship has developed which can scarcely be matched elsewhere in Chicago for vigorous independence in standing out against encroachment upon community rights by industrial interests.

The development of Pullman shows the constructive foresight of a pioneer mind. Mr. Pullman early recognized the advantages of the removal of industry to the suburbs and saw the strategic possibilities of a Calumet harbor. He secured much land while yet it was cheap, and realized the economics of wholesale town and house building. And he provided recreation and tenements far in advance of the times, setting standards which Chicago failed to follow until years later.

But, as we have seen, the break-up of the model scheme came through failure to reckon with the human element. The collective land values and other advantages of collective ownership were originally sought for the benefit of the company and not for the community. The company ownership of housing was not flexible. Nor would individual home ownership probably have been under the stress of industrial changes which have so affected the make up of the working force. There was no effort to devise a newer or more flexible plan. We have seen this neglect of the human side illustrated again in the failure to provide a hospital and adequate protection against industrial diseases.

Throughout the twenty years following the early clash between paternalist and striker, Pullman has had a new equilibrium. Inside the plant, the company has been in control. Like monopoly prices, kept down by potential competition, its power over the work day is limited only by the potential bargaining ability of the workers and not by their actual collective voice. But this autocracy which remains in control of the newer field of industry could not extend to the community life where citizenship is reinforced by the long traditions of Anglo-Saxon democracy. The experience at Pullman has shown that while the men have not been able to dictate to the company as to work, the company has not been able to dictate to the men as to life.

One thus returns with mingled impressions



from a voyage to rediscover Pullman. The melancholy reminders of a past, which had much that was worthy but which was swept away with the inrush of a newer spirit, cannot fail to appeal to the emotions. But the big feeling is one of faith in the movement of American democracy, which found at Pullman a turning point significant in ways we may yet only dimly appreciate. William T. Stead lamented over the fact that Marshall Field, Philip D. Armour and George M. Pullman—Chicago's big business triumvirate of that day, "each supremely successful in his own respective lines, each superbly generous and liberal in the matter of private benefaction"—failed

to utilize their remarkable talents in promoting the efficiency and service of Chicago as a municipality. But today, as one sees at Pullman the people providing for their own needs—splendidly as in the case of the schools and recreation center, imperfectly as in such administrative matters as street maintenance, gropingly as in the one-sided efforts toward city planning—and sees the instinctive righteousness and good judgment of the "plain folks" as revealed in political action, one finds a firmer assurance that not alone through the genius of great men but rather of America's common life the way lies toward the better civilization.



PULLMAN PRIOR TO THE STRIKE OF 1894.



## A MODERN LEAR

JANE ADDAMS



*[This was written in 1894, just after the Pullman strike and read before the Chicago Woman's Club and the Twentieth Century Club of Boston. It was not published at the time because of its personal nature. By chance it was written in a tense "as if it were already long past." Its present publication, however, has more than grammatical appropriateness; there is a message for today in its powerful analysis of the human equation in industry.—Ed.]*

THOSE of us who lived in Chicago during the summer of 1894 were confronted by a drama which epitomized and, at the same time, challenged the code of social ethics under which we live, for a quick series of unusual events had dispelled the good nature which

in happier times envelops the ugliness of the industrial situation. It sometimes seems as if the shocking experiences of that summer, the barbaric instinct to kill, roused on both sides, the sharp division into class lines, with the resultant distrust and bitterness, can only be endured if



we learn from it all a great ethical lesson. To endure is all we can hope for. It is impossible to justify such a course of rage and riot in a civilized community to whom the methods of conciliation and control were open. Every public-spirited citizen in Chicago during that summer felt the stress and perplexity of the situation and asked himself, "How far am I responsible for this social disorder? What can be done to prevent such outrageous manifestations of ill-will?"

If the responsibility of tolerance lies with those of the widest vision, it behooves us to consider this great social disaster, not alone in its legal aspect nor in its sociological bearings, but from those deep human motives, which, after all, determine events.

During the discussions which followed the Pullman strike, the defenders of the situation were broadly divided between the people pleading for individual benevolence and those insisting upon social righteousness; between those who held that the philanthropy of the president of the Pullman company had been most ungratefully received and those who maintained that the situation was the inevitable outcome of the social consciousness developing among working people.

In the midst of these discussions the writer found her mind dwelling upon a comparison which modified and softened all her judgments. Her attention was caught by the similarity of ingratitude suffered by an indulgent employer and an indulgent parent. King Lear came often to her mind. We have all shared the family relationship and our code of ethics concerning it is somewhat settled. We also bear a part in the industrial relationship, but our ethics concerning that are still uncertain. A comparative study of these two relationships presents an advantage, in that it enables us to consider the situation from the known experience toward the unknown. The minds of all of us reach back to our early struggles, as we emerged from the state of self-willed childhood to a recognition of the family claim.

We have all had glimpses of what it might be to blaspheme against family ties; to ignore the elemental claim they make upon us, but on the whole we have recognized them, and it does not occur to us to throw them over. The industrial claim is so difficult; the ties are so intangible that we are constantly ignoring them and shirking the duties which they impose. It will probably be easier to treat of the tragedy of the Pullman strike as if it were already long past when we compare it to the family tragedy of Lear which has already become historic to our

minds and which we discuss without personal feeling.

Historically considered, the relation of Lear to his children was archaic and barbaric, holding in it merely the beginnings of a family life, since developed. We may in later years learn to look back upon the industrial relationships in which we are now placed as quite as incomprehensible and selfish, quite as barbaric and undeveloped, as was the family relationship between Lear and his daughters. We may then take the relationship of this unusually generous employer at Pullman to his own townful of employes as at least a fair one, because so exceptionally liberal in many of its aspects. King Lear doubtless held the same notion of a father's duty that was held by the other fathers of his time; but he alone was a king and had kingdoms to bestow upon his children. He was unique, therefore, in the magnitude of his indulgence, and in the magnitude of the disaster which followed it. The sense of duty held by the president of the Pullman company doubtless represents the ideal in the minds of the best of the present employers as to their obligations toward their employes, but he projected this ideal more magnificently than the others. He alone gave his men so model a town, such perfect surroundings. The magnitude of his indulgence and failure corresponded and we are forced to challenge the ideal itself: the same deal which, more or less clearly defined, is floating in the minds of all philanthropic employers.

This older tragedy implied mal-adjustment between individuals; the forces of the tragedy were personal and passionate. This modern tragedy in its inception is a mal-adjustment between two large bodies of men, an employing company and a mass of employes. It deals not with personal relationships, but with industrial relationships.

Owing, however, to the unusual part played in it by the will of one man, we find that it closely approaches Lear in motif. The relation of the British King to his family is very like the relation of the president of the Pullman company to his town; the denouement of a daughter's break with her father suggests the break of the employes with their benefactor. If we call one an example of the domestic tragedy, the other of the industrial tragedy, it is possible to make them illuminate each other.

It is easy to discover striking points of similarity in the tragedies of the royal father and the philanthropic president of the Pullman company. The like quality of ingratitude they both suffered is at once apparent. It may be said that the ingratitude which Lear received was poignant and bitter to him in proportion as he recalled the extraordinary benefits he had heaped upon his daughters, and that he found his fate harder to bear because he had so far exceeded



the measure of a father's duty, as he himself says. What, then, would be the bitterness of a man who had heaped extraordinary benefits upon those toward whom he had no duty recognized by common consent; who had not only exceeded the righteousness of the employer, but who had worked out original and striking methods for lavishing goodness and generosity? More than that, the president had been almost persecuted for this goodness by the more utilitarian members of his company and had at one time imperilled his business reputation for the sake of the benefactions to his town, and he had thus reached the height of sacrifice for it. This model town embodied not only his hopes and ambitions, but stood for the peculiar effort which a man makes for that which is misunderstood.<sup>1</sup>

It is easy to see that although the heart of Lear was cut by ingratitude and by misfortune, it was cut deepest of all by the public pity of his people, in that they should remember him no longer as a king and benefactor, but as a defeated man who had blundered through oversoftness. So the heart of the Chicago man was cut by the unparalleled publicity which brought him to the minds of thousands as a type of oppression and injustice, and to many others as an example of the evil of an irregular sympathy for the "lower classes." He who had been dined and feted throughout Europe as the creator of a model town, as the friend and benefactor of workmen, was now execrated by workmen throughout the entire country. He had not only been good to those who were now basely ungrateful to him, but he felt himself deserted by the admiration of his people.

In shops such as those at Pullman, indeed, in all manufacturing affairs since the industrial revolution, industry is organized into a vast social operation. The shops are managed, however, not for the development of the workman thus socialized, but for the interests of the company owning the capital. The divergence between the social form and the individual aim becomes greater as the employes are more highly socialized and dependent, just as the clash in a family is more vital in proportion to the development and closeness of the family tie. The president of the Pullman company went further than the usual employer does. He socialized not only the factory but the form in which his workmen were living. He built and, in a great measure, regulated an entire town. This again might have worked out into a successful associated effort, if he had had in view the sole good of the inhabitants thus socialized, if he had called upon them for self-expression and had made the town a growth and manifestation of their wants and

needs. But, unfortunately, the end to be obtained became ultimately commercial and not social, having in view the payment to the company of at least 4 per cent on the money invested, so that with this rigid requirement there could be no adaptation of rent to wages, much less to needs. The rents became statical and the wages competitive, shifting inevitably with the demands of trade. The president assumed that he himself knew the needs of his men, and so far from wishing them to express their needs he denied to them the simple rights of trade organization, which would have been, of course, the merest preliminary to an attempt at associated expression. If we may take the dictatorial relation of Lear to Cordelia as a typical and most dramatic example of the distinctively family tragedy, one will asserting its authority through all the entanglement of wounded affection, and insisting upon its selfish ends at all costs, may we not consider the absolute authority of this employer over his town as a typical and dramatic example of the industrial tragedy? One will directing the energies of many others, without regard to their desires, and having in view in the last analysis only commercial results?

It shocks our ideal of family life that a man should fail to know his daughter's heart because she awkwardly expressed her love, that he should refuse to comfort and advise her through all difference of opinion and clashing of will. That a man should be so absorbed in his own indignation as to fail to apprehend his child's thought; that he should lose his affection in his anger, is really no more unnatural than that the man who spent a million of dollars on a swamp to make it sanitary for his employes, should refuse to speak to them for ten minutes, whether they were in the right or wrong; or that a man who had given them his time and thought for twenty years should withdraw from them his guidance when he believed them misled by ill-advisers and wandering in a mental fog; or that he should grow hard and angry when they needed tenderness and help.

Lear ignored the common ancestry of Cordelia and himself. He forgot her royal inheritance of magnanimity, and also the power of obstinacy which he shared with her. So long had he thought of himself as the noble and indulgent father that he had lost the faculty by which he might perceive himself in the wrong. Even when his spirit was broken by the storm he declared himself more sinned against than sinning. He could believe any amount of kindness and goodness of himself, but could imagine no fidelity on the part of Cordelia unless she gave him the sign he demanded.

The president of the Pullman company doubtless began to build his town from an honest de-

<sup>1</sup> While the town of Pullman was in process of construction the Pullman stock was sometimes called out on the New York Exchange: "How much for flower-beds and fountains?" To which the company naturally objected.



sire to give his employes the best surroundings. As it developed it became a source of pride and an exponent of power, that he cared most for when it gave him a glow of benevolence. Gradually, what the outside world thought of it became of importance to him and he ceased to measure its usefulness by the standard of the men's needs. The theater was complete in equipment and beautiful in design, but too costly for a troupe who depended upon the patronage of mechanics, as the church was too expensive to be rented continuously. We can imagine the founder of the town slowly darkening his glints of memory and forgetting the common stock of experience which he held with his men. He cultivated the great and noble impulses of the benefactor, until the power of attaining a simple human relationship with his employes, that of frank equality with them, was gone from him. He, too, lost the faculty of affectionate interpretation, and demanded a sign. He and his employes had no mutual interest in a common cause.

Was not the grotesque situation of the royal father and the philanthropic employer to perform so many good deeds that they lost the power of recognizing good in beneficiaries? Were not both so absorbed in carrying out a personal plan of improvement that they failed to catch the great moral lesson which their times offered them? This is the crucial point of the tragedies and may be further elucidated.

Lear had doubtless swung a bauble before Cordelia's baby eyes that he might have the pleasure of seeing the little pink and tender hands stretched for it. A few years later he had given jewels to the young princess, and felt an exquisite pleasure when she stood before him, delighted with her gaud and grateful to her father. He demanded the same kind of response for his gift of the kingdom, but the gratitude must be larger and more carefully expressed, as befitted such a gift. At the opening of the drama he sat upon his throne ready for this enjoyment, but instead of delight and gratitude he found the first dawn of character. His daughter made the awkward attempt of an untrained soul to be honest, to be scrupulous in the expressions of its feelings. It was new to him that his child should be moved by a principle outside of himself, which even his imagination could not follow; that she had caught the notion of an existence so vast that her relationship as a daughter was but part of it.

Perhaps her suitors, the King of France or the Duke of Burgundy, had first hinted to the young Cordelia that there was a fuller life beyond the seas. Certain it is that someone had shaken her from the quiet measure of her insular existence and that she had at last felt the thrill of the world's life. She was transformed by a dignity which recast her speech and made it self-contained, as is becoming a citizen of the world.

She found herself in the sweep of a notion of justice so large that the immediate loss of a kingdom seemed of little consequence to her. Even an act which might be construed as disrespect to her father was justified in her eyes because she was vainly striving to fill out this larger conception of duty.

The test which comes sooner or later to many parents had come to Lear, to maintain the tenderness of the relation between father and child, after that relation had become one between adults; to be contented with the responses which this adult made to the family claim, while, at the same time, she felt the tug upon her emotions and faculties of the larger life, the life which surrounds and completes the individual and family life, and which shares and widens her attention. He was not sufficiently wise to see that only that child can fulfill the family claim in its sweetness and strength who also fulfills the larger claim, that the adjustment of the lesser and larger implies no conflict. The mind of Lear was not big enough for this test. He failed to see anything but the personal slight involved; the ingratitude alone reached him. It was impossible for him to calmly watch his child developing beyond the strength of his own mind and sympathy.

Without pressing the analogy too hard may we not compare the indulgent relation of this employer to his town to the relation which existed between Lear and Cordelia? He fostered his employes for many years, gave them sanitary houses and beautiful parks, but in their extreme need, when they were struggling with the most difficult question which the times could present to them, when, if ever, they required the assistance of a trained mind and a comprehensive outlook, he lost his touch and had nothing wherewith to help them. He did not see the situation. He had been ignorant of their gropings toward justice. His conception of goodness for them had been cleanliness, decency of living, and above all, thrift and temperance. He had provided them means for all this; had gone further, and given them opportunities for enjoyment and comradeship. But he suddenly found his town in the sweep of a world-wide moral impulse. A movement had been going on about him and through the souls of his workingmen of which he had been unconscious. He had only heard of this movement by rumor. The men who consorted with him at his club and in his business had spoken but little of it, and when they had discussed it had contemptuously called it the "Labor Movement," headed by deadbeats and agitators. Of the force and power of this movement, of all the vitality within it, of that conception of duty which induces men to go without food and to see their wives and children suffer for the sake of securing better wages for fellow-



workmen whom they have never seen, this president had dreamed absolutely nothing. But his town had at last become swept into this larger movement, so that the giving up of comfortable homes, of beautiful surroundings, seemed as naught to the men within its grasp.

Outside the ken of this philanthropist, the proletariat had learned to say in many languages that "the injury of one is the concern of all." Their watchwords were brotherhood, sacrifice, the subordination of individual and trade interests to the good of the working class; and their persistent strivings were toward the ultimate freedom of that class from the conditions under which they now labor.

Compared to these watchwords the old ones which the philanthropic employer had given his town were negative and inadequate.

When this movement finally swept in his own town, or, to speak more fairly, when in their distress and perplexity his own employees appealed to the organized manifestation of this movement, they were quite sure that simply because they were workmen in distress they would not be deserted by it. This loyalty on the part of a widely ramified and well organized union toward the workmen in a "scab shop," who had contributed nothing to its cause, was certainly a manifestation of moral power.

That the movement was ill-directed, that it was ill-timed and disastrous in results, that it stirred up and became confused in the minds of the public with the elements of riot and bloodshed, can never touch the fact that it started from an unselfish impulse.

In none of his utterances or correspondence did the president of the company for an instant recognize this touch of nobility, although one would imagine that he would gladly point out this bit of virtue, in what he must have considered the moral ruin about him. He stood throughout pleading for the individual virtues, those which had distinguished the model workman of his youth, those which had enabled him and so many of his contemporaries to rise in life, when "rising in life" was urged upon every promising boy as the goal of his efforts. Of the new code of ethics he had caught absolutely nothing. The morals he had taught his men did not fail them in their hour of confusion. They were self-controlled and destroyed no property.<sup>1</sup> They were sober and exhibited no drunkenness, even though obliged to hold their meetings in the saloon hall of a neighboring town. They repaid their employer in kind, but he had given them no rule for the higher fellowship and life of association into which they were plunged.

The virtues of one generation are not sufficient for the next, any more than the accumula-

tions of knowledge possessed by one age are adequate to the needs of another.

Of the virtues received from our fathers we can afford to lose none. We accept as a precious trust those principles and precepts which the race has worked out for its highest safeguard and protection. But merely to preserve those is not enough. A task is laid upon each generation to enlarge their application, to ennoble their conception, and, above all, to apply and adapt them to the peculiar problems presented to it for solution.

The president of this company desired that his employees should possess the individual and family virtues, but did nothing to cherish in them those social virtues which his own age demanded. He rather substituted for that sense of responsibility to the community, a feeling of gratitude to himself, who had provided them with public buildings, and had laid out for them a simulacrum of public life.

Is it strange that when the genuine feeling of the age struck his town this belated and almost feudal virtue of personal gratitude fell before it?

Day after day during that horrible suspense, when the wires constantly reported the same message, "The president of the company holds that there is nothing to arbitrate," one longed to find out what was in the mind of this man, to unfold his ultimate motive. One concludes that he must have been sustained by the consciousness of being in the right. Only that could have held him against the great desire for fair play which swept over the country. Only the training which an arbitrary will receives by years of consulting first its own personal and commercial ends could have made it strong enough to withstand the demands for social adjustment. He felt himself right from the *commercial* standpoint, and could not see the situation from the *social* standpoint. For years he had gradually accustomed himself to the thought that his motive was beyond reproach; that his attitude to his town was always righteous and philanthropic. Habit held him persistent in this view of the case through all the changing conditions.

The diffused and subtle notion of dignity held by the modern philanthropist bears a curious analogy to the personal barbaric notion of dignity held by Lear. The man who persistently paced the seashore, while the interior of his country was racked with a strife which he alone might have arbitrated, lived out within himself the tragedy of King Lear. The shock of disaster upon egotism is apt to produce self-pity. It is possible that his self-pity and loneliness may have been so great and absorbing as to completely shut out from his mind a compunction of derelict duty. He may have been unconscious that men were charging him with a shirking of the issue.

<sup>1</sup>The bill presented to the city of Chicago by the Pullman company for damages received during the strike was \$26—the result only of petty accidents.



Lack of perception is the besetting danger of the egoist, from whatever cause his egoism arises and envelopes him. But, doubtless, philanthropists are more exposed to this danger than any other class of people within the community. Partly because their efforts are overestimated, as no standard of attainment has yet been established, and partly because they are the exponents of a large amount of altruistic feeling with which the community has become equipped and which has not yet found adequate expression, they are therefore easily idealized.

Long ago Hawthorne called our attention to the fact that "philanthropy ruins, or is fearfully apt to ruin, the heart, the rich juices of which God never meant should be pressed violently out, and distilled into alcoholic liquor by an unnatural process; but it should render life sweet, bland and gently beneficent."

One might add to this observation that the muscles of this same heart may be stretched and strained until they lose the rhythm of the common heart-beat of the rest of the world.

Modern philanthropists need to remind themselves of the old definition of greatness: that it consists in the possession of the largest share of the common human qualities and experiences, not in the acquirements of peculiarities and excessive virtues. Popular opinion calls him the greatest of Americans who gathered to himself the largest amount of American experience, and who never forgot when he was in Washington how the "crackers" in Kentucky and the pioneers of Illinois thought and felt, striving to retain their thoughts and feelings, and to embody only the mighty will of the "common people." The danger of professionally attaining to the power of the righteous man, of yielding to the ambition "for doing good," compared to which the ambitions for political position, learning, or wealth are vulgar and commonplace, ramifies throughout our modern life, and is a constant and settled danger in philanthropy.

In so far as philanthropists are cut off from the influence of the *Zeit-Geist*, from the code of ethics which rule the body of men, from the great moral life springing from our common experiences, so long as they are "good to people," rather than "with them," they are bound to accomplish a large amount of harm. They are outside of the influence of that great faith which perennially springs up in the hearts of the people, and re-creates the world.

In spite of the danger of overloading the tragedies with moral reflections, a point ought to be made on the other side. It is the weakness in the relation of the employees to the employer, the fatal lack of generosity in the attitude of workmen toward the company under whose exactions they feel themselves wronged.

In reading the tragedy of King Lear, Cordelia does not escape our censure. Her first words are cold, and we are shocked by her lack of tenderness. Why should she ignore her father's need for indulgence, and be so unwilling to give him what he so obviously craved? We see in the old king "the overmastering desire of being beloved, which is selfish, and yet characteristic of the selfishness of a loving and kindly nature alone." His eagerness produces in us a strange pity for him, and we are impatient that his youngest and best-beloved child cannot feel this, even in the midst of her search for truth and her newly acquired sense of a higher duty. It seems to us a narrow conception that would break thus abruptly with the past, and would assume that her father had no part in her new life. We want to remind her that "pity, memory and faithfulness are natural ties," and surely as much to be prized as is the development of her own soul. We do not admire the Cordelia "who loves according to her bond" as we later admire the same Cordelia who comes back from France that she may include in her happiness and freer life the father whom she had deserted through her self-absorption. She is aroused to her affection through her pity, but when the flood-gates are once open she acknowledges all. It sometimes seems as if only hardship and sorrow could arouse our tenderness, whether in our personal or social relations; that the king, the prosperous man, was the last to receive the justice which can come only through affectionate interpretation. We feel less pity for Lear on his throne than in the storm, although he is the same man, bound up in the same self-righteousness, and exhibiting the same lack of self-control.

As the vision of the life of Europe caught the sight and quickened the pulses of Cordelia, so a vision of the wider life has caught the sight of workingmen. After the vision has once been seen it is impossible to do aught but to press toward its fulfillment. We have all seen it. We are all practically agreed that the social passion of the age is directed toward the emancipation of the wage-worker; that a great accumulation of moral force is overmastering men and making for this emancipation as in another time it has made for the emancipation of the slave; that nothing will satisfy the aroused conscience of men short of the complete participation of the working classes in the spiritual, intellectual and material inheritance of the human race. But just as Cordelia failed to include her father in the scope of her salvation and selfishly took it for herself alone, so workingmen in the dawn of the vision are inclined to claim it for themselves, putting out of their thoughts the old relationships; and just as surely as Cordelia's conscience developed in the new life and later drove her back to her father,



where she perished, drawn into the cruelty and wrath which had now become objective and tragic, so the emancipation of working people will have to be inclusive of the employer from the first or it will encounter many failures, cruelties and reactions. It will result not in the position of the repentant Cordelia but in that of King Lear's two older daughters.

If the workingmen's narrow conception of emancipation was fully acted upon, they would hold much the same relationship to their expropriated employer that the two elder daughters held to their abdicated father. When the kingdom was given to them they received it as altogether their own, and were dominated by a sense of possession; "it is ours not yours" was never absent from their consciousness. When Lear ruled the kingdom he had never been without this sense of possession, although he expressed it in indulgence and condescending kindness. His older daughters expressed it in cruelty, but the motive of father and children was not unlike. They did not wish to be reminded by the state and retinue of the old King that he had been the former possessor. Finally, his mere presence alone reminded them too much of that and they banished him from the palace. That a newly acquired sense of possession should result in the barbaric, the incredible scenes of bitterness and murder, which were King Lear's portion, is not without a reminder of the barbaric scenes in our political and industrial relationships, when the sense of possession, to obtain and to hold, is aroused on both sides. The scenes in Paris during the political revolution or the more familiar scenes at the mouths of the mines and the terminals of railways occur to all of us.

The doctrine of emancipation preached to the wage-workers alone runs an awful risk of being accepted for what it offers them, for the sake of the fleshpots, rather than for the human affection and social justice which it involves. This doctrine must be strong enough in its fusing power to touch those who think they lose, as well as those who think they gain. Only thus can it become the doctrine of a universal movement.

The new claim on the part of the toiling multitude, the new sense of responsibility on the part of the well-to-do, arise in reality from the same source. They are in fact the same "social compunction," and, in spite of their widely varying manifestations, logically converge into the same movement. Mazzini once preached, "the consent of men and your own conscience are two wings given you whereby you may rise to God." It is so easy for the good and powerful to think that they can rise by following the dictates of conscience by pursuing their own ideals, leaving those ideals unconnected with the consent of their fellow-men. The president of the Pullman

company thought out within his own mind a beautiful town. He had power with which to build this town, but he did not appeal to nor obtain the consent of the men who were living in it. The most unambitious reform, recognizing the necessity for this consent, makes for slow but sane and strenuous progress, while the most ambitious of social plans and experiments, ignoring this, is prone to the failure of the model town of Pullman.

The man who insists upon consent, who moves with the people, is bound to consult the feasible right as well as the absolute right. He is often obliged to attain only Mr. Lincoln's "best possible," and often have the sickening sense of compromising with his best convictions. He has to move along with those whom he rules toward a goal that neither he nor they see very clearly till they come to it. He has to discover what people really want, and then "provide the channels in which the growing moral force of their lives shall flow." What he does attain, however, is not the result of his individual striving, as a solitary mountain climber beyond the sight of the valley multitude, but it is underpinned and upheld by the sentiments and aspirations of many others. Progress has been slower perpendicularly, but incomparably greater because lateral.

He has not taught his contemporaries to climb mountains, but he has persuaded the villagers to move up a few feet higher. It is doubtful if personal ambition, whatever may have been its commercial results, has ever been of any value as a motive power in social reform. But whatever it may have done in the past, it is certainly too archaic to accomplish anything now. Our thoughts, at least for this generation, cannot be too much directed from mutual relationships and responsibilities. They will be warped, unless we look all men in the face, as if a community of interests lay between, unless we hold the mind open, to take strength and cheer from a hundred connections.

To touch to vibrating response the noble fibre in each man, to pull these many fibres, fragile, impalpable and constantly breaking, as they are, into one impulse, to develop that mere impulse through its feeble and tentative stages into action, is no easy task, but lateral progress is impossible without it.

If only a few families of the English speaking race had profited by the dramatic failure of Lear, much heart-breaking and domestic friction might have been spared. Is it too much to hope that some of us will carefully consider this modern tragedy, if perchance it may contain a warning for the troublous times in which we live? By considering the dramatic failure of the liberal employer's plans for his employes we may possibly be spared useless industrial tragedies in the uncertain future which lies ahead of us.



# THE GAME OF LAW

MORRIS J. WESSELL

THE courts of the ancient Greeks met in utter darkness lest something in the accused's appearance should prejudice the judges either for or against him. Twentieth century American courts are sometimes so negligent of the real merits of a case that, according to an ex-president of the American Bar Association, they occasionally place "the definite article 'the' in sanctity above the honor of our wives and daughters."

The lawyer who made this statement had in mind the case of a man convicted in a western state of a dastardly crime to whom the supreme court of that state granted a new trial, solely on the ground that the indictment read "against the peace and dignity of state" instead of "against the peace and dignity of *the* state." The defense in its appeal had brought forth no new evidence, nor had it attacked the justice of the verdict. It did not even suggest that the inclusion of the sacred "the" would have affected the jury's opinion. But the court appears to have regarded the omission of a word of three letters from a stock phrase that adds little, if any, meaning to the indictment as more important than the plain merits of the case.

Some of our courts, it is true, do not allow the etiquette of the law to conceal the real issues in a case. The higher courts of Wisconsin usually, and those of California frequently, take a common-sense point of view, and the supreme court of Oklahoma has recently shown that it will at least start its career aright. An appeal was taken in this case—a criminal cause—because the phrase, "in the name of and by the authority of the state of Oklahoma," was omitted from the indictment. The court's decision, pronounced by the chief justice, left no doubt of its attitude. It said in part:

"When the record clearly shows that the purposes of the constitution have been accomplished, this court will hold that is enough. The supreme purpose of this court is to give the people of this state a just and harmonious system of criminal jurisprudence, founded on justice, supported by reason, and free from the mysteries of arbitrary technicalities . . . We will give full consideration to all such authorities which are supported by the constitution of Oklahoma. But we must confess to want of respect for precedents which were found in the rubbish of Noah's Ark and which have outlived their usefulness,

if they ever had any . . . If this be revolution, then we are and will continue to be revolutionary."

Such an attitude, unfortunately, is far from the general one. Technicalities bulk so large in the minds of many of our state jurists as to justify the remark of a teacher in a prominent law school that our legal system seems to be governed by the "sporting theory of justice . . . every time a litigant forgets a rule he is set back so many courts." Instances taken from many parts of the country make it seem that the law, instead of being a business-like arrangement for attaining justice, is an esoteric game, incomprehensible to all but lawyers and judges, in which hair-splitting distinctions and luck in following the mazes of complicated and, frequently, meaningless rules determine the victory.

The old cases of *Williams vs. The D. L. & W. R. R.* (81 A. D. 444, Affirmed. 177 N. Y. 564), which was tried seven times before it was settled and which lasted twenty-two years, and of the *Connecticut Mutual Life Insurance Co. vs. Hillmen* (145 U. S. Supreme Ct. 285), which after being taken to the federal supreme court on an appeal that enumerated one hundred and eight errors, was reversed by that court twenty-three years, after the original trial, make the fictitious story of *Jarndyce vs. Jarndyce* in *Bleak House* an American reality.

Nor are these two cases at all exceptional. The situation is so grave and widespread as to draw from President Taft the following statement:

"There is no subject upon which I feel so deeply as upon the necessity for reform in the administration of both civil and criminal law. It is not too much to say that the administration of the criminal law in this country is a disgrace to our civilization."

Actual cases confirm this opinion:

1. The supreme court of Florida reversed a conviction for grand larceny because the indictment charged the man with stealing a cow, whereas the evidence showed that the animal taken was a steer.

2. The South Carolina court, not to be outdone by its sister tribunal, set aside a similar conviction because the article actually stolen was not a piano, as the indictment specified, but a pianola.

3. In Alabama, a man named West was charged with stealing hides. Upon regular trial he was convicted. Upon an appeal to the su-



preme court the verdict was set aside on the ground that the indictment failed to specify whether the hides in question were the skins of sheep, or goats, or cows.

4. The Texas supreme court does not seem to have been markedly influenced by the sensible attitude of the neighboring Oklahoma tribunal, as the surprising case of a man named Cranthan exemplifies. Cranthan was found lurking suspiciously near a house that had been robbed a short time previously. The local authorities began to examine the man's record and habits, and finally arrested him. He was indicted by the grand jury in due time, and came before a jury for trial. The jury found him guilty of the crime, the specific charge being burglarizing a house of a certain description and containing six persons. The supreme court overruled the judgment of the lower court on the ground that the evidence showed that only five persons, instead of six, were present in the house at the time of the robbery.

5. The Ohio supreme court made a significant contribution, too, to legal metaphysics on June 28, 1910, when it gave its decision in the case of *Goodlove vs. State* (82 Ohio State Reports 365). Goodlove was charged with killing a man in a drunken brawl and was convicted and sentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment. In examining the record, upon appeal of the defendant's counsel, the supreme court found that the evidence did not make clear whether the victim's real name was Peter Stuckey or Frank McCormick. There was no question of what the man known as Goodlove had done, nor that someone had lost his life because of his drunken fury. In view of this fact, the mere circumstance that the victim—not Goodlove—boasted of two names, rather than the ordinary one, would not seem to be, to the ordinary intelligence, of much importance. The Ohio court, however, not only regarded it as important, but actually discharged the prisoner because of it.

*In not one of these illustrative cases, which can be readily duplicated in practically every state of the country, did the evidence leave any doubt of the accused's guilt. In not one did the defendant's counsel appeal on the ground that the accused was innocent of the crime charged against him. Every one of the appeals and every one of the reversals—each of which meant to the particular state concerned the cost of a new trial or the cost of having a criminal at large, and each of which established precedents for similar decisions in the future—was made on points which had absolutely no bearing on the real merits of the case.*

#### *What Is the Result?*

One of the indispensable foundations of a successful democracy is, of course, complete public confidence in the law and the courts of the land. And a legal system that magnifies the importance of such punctilioes of procedure as those which influence the decisions of so many of our courts

cannot fail to alienate public respect and trust.

Moreover, a judicial system that in general inclines to a reverence for technicalities which the Oklahoma court likens to "the rubbish of Noah's Ark" must find it difficult to arrive either at just or prompt conclusions. Such a system must clog its own operation and defeat the purpose for which it was constituted. A leading legal scholar, for example, finds that 35 per cent of the opinions of appellate courts deals with points of procedure. It is little wonder, therefore, that the supreme court of Colorado—surely far from the busiest state of the Union—was last May four and one-half years behind its program and had 2,800 untried cases before it. And it is no exaggeration to say that the young Pittsburgh lawyer who threw away his bar certificate because the few cases he obtained in his first year of practice would not reach the court calendar for another two years was not in an unusual predicament. Expedition is apparently not in the vocabulary of American litigation.

It is not at all surprising that, to President Taft, litigants seem to exist for the benefit of courts and lawyers and "not lawyers and courts for the benefit of the people and litigants." What would we think of a hospital that felt that patients existed for it, not that it was established to cure the sick?

Legal casuistry, furthermore, means criminal audacity. The Alabama courts, which have frequently inclined towards the opinion that legal embroidery is more important than legal principles, received considerable adverse criticism at the 1910 meeting of the bar association of that state, on the ground that criminality had markedly increased with the judges' insistence on strict adherence to petty technicalities. It was brought out that of seventy-five convictions for murder from which appeals were taken, "more than half were reversed and not a single one on any matter that could have influenced the jury," and that there were more homicides in 1910 in Jefferson County, Ala., than in all England, Scotland and Wales!

Throughout the country the growth of crime, competent observers say, is quite disproportionate to our population. The number of offenders serving terms in state prisons and penitentiaries per million of population was in 1880, 861; and in 1904, in spite of the increasing adoption of such lenient measures as parole and indeterminate sentence, 729. The number of homicides per million of population was in 1880, 32.2; in 1906, 108.9, an increase of over 200 per cent. No other prominent nation reveals a corresponding situation. Great Britain, of all European countries the one that resembles the United States the most, recorded 6 homicides per million in 1910; during the same year we registered 116 per million. The city of London was harassed in that



year with 19; the city of New York with 185.

It would be manifestly unfair and inaccurate to attribute this unfortunate situation entirely to the meticulous cavilling of our courts. Immigration brings in some European criminals in spite of the vigilance of our inspectors. And the industrial unrest, and the misunderstanding inevitably resulting from the contact of peoples of totally different standards and points of view produce others. But the fact is not gainsaid thereby that foreign criminals would not be so anxious to come here and that malefactors who develop out of unsettled social conditions would be more likely to restrain themselves if our administration of criminal law were unusually clearly efficient instead of almost notoriously inefficient. A federal judge of considerable experience says: "We have long since passed the time when it is possible to convict an innocent man; the problem which now confronts us is whether we can convict a guilty man." No less impartial and unsensational an observer than President Taft unhesitatingly says: "The prevalence of crime and fraud—which here is greatly in excess of that in European countries—is due largely to the failure of the law and its administration to bring the criminal to justice." And the judicial procedure of England, a country which clearly suffers less from criminality than we, is exceptionally free from the technicality fetish.

### *The English System*

It is not strange that light on American legal problems should come from England; for American jurisprudence—its defects as well as its virtues—is essentially English. Improbable as it may seem, the fact is that the policy of exalting the importance of technicalities, which now operates for the perversion of justice, originated in an effort to prevent injustice. Mediæval England oppressed the poorer classes not only in that it gave them no political privileges. It also strove to make them subscribe to a standard of conduct inhuman in its severity. Wholly trivial offenses received rigorous punishment. The historian Trail records, for example, that six men were imprisoned in the Tower—one of them died from the maltreatment accorded them there—because, while cleaning the rubbish from off the top of a shed, they had accidentally hit a courtier who was passing by. Relief from such a penal code apparently could be had in only one way—by calling the court's attention to petty errors in the prosecutor's case and by insisting that those errors be regarded as damaging to his case. And judges, perhaps sympathizing with petty offenders and realizing the difficulty of amending the penal code, seem to have adopted the point of view urged by criminal lawyers.

Unfortunately, this attempt to humanize the operation of the law was not an unmixed good.

The practice continued long after the sharp need for it had gone. If court procedure is to fulfil its function—provide the machinery for a certain phase of the administrative side of a legal system—it must be constantly revised to meet new conditions; at least it would seem that revisions in court procedure and in fundamental principles of a system of laws should reveal some correspondence—that the fact that a given form of procedure might produce radically different results under two different systems of laws would be recognized. But apparently no such development of opinion took place. The gradual infusion of more enlightened ideas of justice into the statutes of the land, which accompanied the slow transference of political power from the English sovereign to the people, did not materially change court procedure. The substantive law—that part of the law dealing with the rights of the individual—finally assumed a fairly satisfactory form. But the adjective law—that part of the law dealing with pleading and practice—underwent practically no change. As a consequence, that practice which had originally constituted the one safeguard of the individual from the oppression of the king and his associates and a barbarous penal code, now became the means whereby the criminal could safely prey upon organized society, and the unscrupulous citizen get the upper hand of his honest fellow. The practice of insisting upon conformity to relatively trivial formalities of procedure had gradually developed an overvaluation of the importance of the etiquette of the law, with the result that a technical error in a case against an indicted criminal not infrequently quashed the proceeding against him.

There was no real change in English procedure from the statute of Westminster to the reign of Cromwell, a stretch of four hundred years. Attention was called to the matter at intervals; but with characteristic British conservatism little effort was made at reform. The first real impulse in the right direction came from Jeremy Bentham, the author of several brilliant works on political and philosophical matters, who, in his *Morals and Legislation*, presented the need for reform in so vigorous a manner as to create an agitation that terminated in the English Judicature Act of 1826. Now that the British sense of thoroughness and love of fair-dealing was aroused, the glaring shortcomings of the law received increasing notice. However, there remained much to be done in addition to the improvements resulting from Bentham's efforts, as the frequent references in Dickens and other nineteenth century novelists to the law and the courts indicate. In fact, not until 1875 was the English system even as efficient as our own, the adjustments and changes made in the process of adapting English jurisprudence and court procedure to the needs of the new country appar-



ently giving our system an advantage which lasted for about a hundred years. But the reforms that were inaugurated in England in 1875 and those that were effected in two subsequent revisions have had such far-reaching influence that the American system, as compared with the English, may be said to be in the horse-car stage of development.

Perhaps the most striking feature of present-day English jurisprudence is that only the fundamental principles of the old common law are represented in it; the detailed specifications and the laborious procedure have been practically eliminated. Whatever *principles* of the old common law seemed suitable to modern conditions were retained in the latest code; but the procedure of the common law—its meaningless phrases, its bombastic rhetoric, its apotheosis of technicalities—was critically examined in the light of modern requirements.

In this country twenty states are still entirely common-law states—twenty states use a court procedure formulated generations ago. Railroads, mechanical contrivances, household comforts are all of the modern sort; but the legal forms used in the process of securing justice between man and man hark back to the days when the railroad was an undreamed dream, save for the slight changes that were made at the time our courts were established and for the desultory modifications in minor points that may have been made subsequently. The other states, it is true, have codes, but codes which, on the whole, mark little real improvement. Compromises with admirers of the old common-law systems were necessary when the codes were formulated. And after their adoption, lawyers and judges trained in the old school interpreted them, with the result that the codes of most states are now so encrusted with modifying interpretations that the situation is complicated rather than simplified. The code procedure, instead of supplanting the common-law procedure, is dependent upon it. The marked advance made by the English bench and bar in this respect is suggested in comparing the remark of a lecturer in the English inns that, "The English lawyer today has no more need of a knowledge of the extinct common law procedure than he has of the judicial procedure of the Assyrians," with the citation already referred to from one of the Oklahoma supreme court's decisions. The English lecturer and the Oklahoma court, evidently, entertain the same opinion of mediæval procedure—the one associating it with the procedure of the Assyrians; the other with the rubbish of Noah's Ark. But the Oklahoma court's attitude was so unusual in this country that it felt compelled to add, "If this be revolution, then we are and will continue to be revolutionary!"

The practical superiority of the English system over the American system, which results from the general point of difference just mentioned—the retention in England of but the principles of the common law—is shown in the simple regulation of appeals in English and in the common-sense form of such legal documents as the indictment in vogue in England.

Of the following legal forms, the first is from Rhode Island; the others are from England. Their comparative length and simplicity is interesting, to say the least:

Date and place, etc.

"A. B. being then sole and unmarried, in consideration that the plaintiff (then also sole and unmarried) at the special insistence and request of the said defendant had then and there promised the said defendant that she would marry and take to husband the said defendant when thereunto requested; her the said defendant then and there forthwith promised the said plaintiff that he would marry and take her to wife when thereunto requested; and although the said plaintiff, confiding in the aforesaid promise of the said defendant, hath always from thence hitherto refused to marry or contract matrimony with any other man whatsoever, and still remains sole and unmarried; and always from the time of making said promise was ready and willing and offered to marry and take to husband the said defendant; viz, on—, at the said—, yet the said defendant not regarding his said promise but contriving to deceive and defraud the said plaintiff in these particulars and totally to hinder her from the preferment and good fortune she would have met with by such marriage hath not taken her, the said plaintiff to wife, though the said defendant afterwards, to wit on the —, and often before and after that time, hath been thereto requested by the said plaintiff. But the said defendant hath always hitherto refused so to do. To the damage of the plaintiff \$50,000 as laid in her writ of —. Wherefore she sues."

Date, place, names of parties.

"December 27, 1906, defendant verbally promised to marry plaintiff. August 3, 1907, he married another woman. Plaintiff claims £1000 damages."

Date, place, names of parties.

"Plaintiff claims £500 for injuries sustained by him on May 5, 1906, while traveling on defendant's railroad, as a passenger from London to Bristol, such injuries being caused by the defendant's negligence."

Date, place, names of parties.

"Plaintiff, as executor of C. D., deceased, sues for the benefit of Elizabeth, widow, and William, Margaret, and Mary, children of the deceased C. D., who suffered damage from the defendant's negligence in carrying C. D. in its omnibus, whereby he was killed on January 10, 1907. Plaintiff claims £5000 damages."



Date, place, names of parties.

"The jurors of our Lord the King present that J. F. on the — day of —, one thousand nine hundred and —, at the city of — murdered, F. M."

Is it any wonder that the American lawyer or district attorney omits a "the" or a "said" or a "wherefore"? Which is the more sensible, the business-like, clear English form, or the stilted, antiquated, — yes, nonsensical — style of the breach-of-promise declaration from Rhode Island, with its "from whence hitherto," "hath always hitherto refused so to do," and its general redundancy?

### *English System of Appeals*

The difference between the machinery for disposing of appeals in the two countries is correspondingly great. In the United States a criminal has a general right of appeal. No matter how unequivocal the evidence and the jury's verdict may have been, the convicted man always can stay sentence by taking an appeal, which must be filed and considered as a matter of course. The man convicted of a crime in England has no such right. He can appeal only if he can show that new evidence has been found or that a principle of law is involved. Errors of spelling, omissions of words or phrases from any of the numerous legal papers used in a case, non-compliance with some of "the rules of the game" never constitute grounds for an appeal. The finding of a trial court is regarded as accurate unless the convicted man can show that its judgment was not in accord with the real merits of the case. The indicted man, having been convicted, must bear the burden of proof in asking for an appeal; the court is not presumed to have possibly been mistaken; he must show, with a fair degree of certainty, that substantial injustice was committed in the trial court's conclusion. In this country a significant percentage of appeals are granted on errors that could not possibly have affected the jury's attitude.

An appeal, having been once granted in this country, frequently becomes the starting-point of endless litigation. There are three or four higher courts whose attention can be successively invoked to hear an appeal if a criminal wishes to delay the execution of sentence. And even when each of these state courts has decided against him, the American criminal has one further recourse. He may, alleging that a federal question is concerned, petition the United States supreme court for a writ of error, which, even though no federal question is involved, may delay the carrying out of justice still more.

In England, on the other hand, there is practically only one tribunal for hearing criminal appeals. When it is clear that the trial court's judgment is questionable, the Court of Criminal

Appeals reviews the case. The Quarter Sessions Court does have a certain sort of appellate jurisdiction; but in general the one court disposes of all the criminal appeals arising in the operation of a judicial system which governs 32,000,000 people, and disposes of them with far greater promptness than do our numerous appellate courts. In the vast majority of cases, too—and surely this fact is some explanation of England's comparative freedom from criminality—the Court of Criminal Appeals grants no retrials. In 1907 only nine re-trials were granted. If the trial court's decision seems incorrect, the appellate tribunal enters final judgment immediately, and, it is interesting to note, only 20 per cent of the appeals taken result usually in reversals.

The trial court evidently is the keystone of the English system. In it the judge, not the prosecutor, is the commanding figure. He does not, like his American brother, merely umpire a contest between the public prosecutor and the defendant's counsel, but he actually conducts the trial. The English prosecutor has none of the aggressiveness of our district-attorneys; his duty is to investigate the case and to bring to light evidence, rather than to prosecute in the American sense of the term; and he is not even permitted to sum up before the jury except to explain errors. The English jury, too, has a simpler task than ours has. The judge lightens the work of both prosecutor and jury. He not only restricts the questions of the prosecutor and the counsel for the defense to relevant matters himself—not waiting for an objection to be made by one side or the other—but also calls his own witnesses, whom he may excuse from being examined by either or both of the attorneys. Nor may the prosecutor of his own accord decide either to drop a case for seeming lack of evidence or to ignore some of the counts of an indictment which makes several separate charges; the approval of the trial judge is necessary before either of these courses may be taken. The nature of the judge's address to the jury indicates most clearly, perhaps, his authority. He does not give merely general suggestions, but actual directions. He may order the jury to consider only certain counts of the indictment and to ignore the others, even though the public prosecutor feels that enough evidence is on hand to produce a conviction on all the counts. He summarizes and weighs the evidence, pointing out to the jury the real issues in the case, indicating which testimony is important, and which is irrelevant, commenting on the relative credibility of the witnesses, and endeavoring to eliminate the coloring introduced by the prosecutor and the defendant's counsel. And if the evidence at any time seems to him to point conclusively either to the guilt or to the innocence of the accused, he may stop the trial and



order the jury to return an appropriate verdict. In a recent instance the foreman of a jury refused to comply with the judge's direction, whereupon the judge declared that he would set aside any verdict other than the one he had ordered.

The theory behind this unusual distribution, or, rather, concentration, of power apparently is that justice is a matter of communal concern, and that the judge, being the impartial representative of the state, is the proper official to have real charge of a trial that presumably aims to attain justice. He is more likely to be zealous for the attainment of justice than any one else; he has no reputation to make as a successful prosecutor. That such a curtailment of the prosecutor's power would be satisfactory to all peoples is obviously questionable. It certainly smacks of paternalism to the American. But the day has gone by when any reform can be denied consideration because of the opprobrious name that can be attached to it. And it is interesting to note that President Taft and other prominent publicists have frequently advocated enlarging the powers of the trial judge. At any rate, there cannot be much question about the superiority of the results achieved by the English system.

#### *The Tucker and Crippen Cases*

We are indebted for our knowledge of the workings and the results of the English system to Professors Lawson and Keedy, teachers of law in western law schools, who constituted a committee sent out by the American Institute on Criminal Law and Criminology to investigate the English situation. To give their investigations point, their report includes a comparison of certain prominent criminal cases in England and in this country and a detailed account of the time consumed in the various steps in the process of trying an accused in England. It may be of interest to add to this discussion a summary of one of the comparisons this scientific report includes and to tabulate the results obtained.

The Tucker case, it may be remembered, was concerned with the trial of a man named Tucker, who was charged with having murdered Mabel Page at Weston, Mass., on March 31, 1904. Tucker was arrested on April 4—a decidedly unusual speed for American police. He was arraigned before the grand jury and indicted on June 9. The prosecution opened its case against him on January 2, 1905, nine months after his apprehension. The trial lasted twenty days, at the end of which time the jury rendered a verdict of guilty in the first degree. The case from this time on illustrates the idea of the lawyer who, upon seeing his client burst into tears upon announcement by the foreman of the jury of a conviction, said, "Tush! Tush! There's noth-

ing to worry over; the case has just begun." Tucker's counsel drew up and filed a bill of twenty-six exceptions, which reposed quietly on the court docket for over a year. In January, 1906, it came up for consideration, and on the twenty-second of that month it was denied. Sentence was pronounced on the twenty-seventh, one and three-quarter years after his arrest. But his cards even now were not all gone; technicalities had not yet been exhausted. A writ of error was sued out in his behalf, and the governor of Massachusetts was petitioned for a pardon. That official let the matter rest until the Massachusetts supreme court could give him clear instructions as to his powers, and, having received formal word from the court on May 29, he refused to interfere. Tucker was then executed, in June, 1906, two years and three months after his arrest.

Now, let us turn to the case of Dr. Crippen, which was so unusual in character as to attract attention from American papers—almost as great notice, in fact, as though the crime had been committed here. Dr. Crippen was arrested on June 21, on the charge of having murdered his wife. He was arraigned on August 29. The trial began on October 17,\* the jury being impanelled in eight minutes! Conviction was secured in four days. The appeal, which his counsel took, was not a means of securing him liberty for a year, as was the effect of the Tucker appeal, but was considered immediately. And Dr. Crippen paid the penalty of his crime on November 23, four months after his arrest.

The following table compares succinctly the two trials:

	TUCKER.	CRIPPEN.
Arraigned after arrest	3 mos. 5 days	3 mos. 8 days.
Trial began after arrest	9 mos.	4 mos.
Appeal lingered	1 yr.	Less than 2 weeks.
Sentenced, after arrest	21 mos.	
Executed, after arrest	2 yrs. 3 days.	4 mos.

And the table on the following page computed from the descriptions given by Professors Lawson and Keedy of the trials they witnessed, shows that the Crippen case received no unusual attention.

#### *What Can Be Done?*

It might be held that judges and lawyers are largely responsible for the inadequacies of our judicial system; and such an attitude might not be entirely unfair. One might hold that the average lawyer is so attracted by the powder and smoke of battle as to forget all about the general principles involved, and that many jurists are so enamored of their "jealous mistress," take so keen a delight in unravelling her hair-splitting problems, as to forget the real ends of the law and courts at times.

But such an attitude is far from unobjection-



CRIME CHARGED.	FROM COMMISSION OF CRIME TO ARREST.	FROM ARREST TO TRIAL.	DURATION OF TRIAL.	VERDICT.
Rape	5 da.	30 da.	2½ hrs.	Gulity.
Attempted Murder	1 "	19 "	2 "	Gulity but insane.
Attempted Murder	1 "	30 "	4 "	Gulity.
Rape	1 "	1 mo. 8 da.	2 "	Not Gulity.
Murder	1 mo. 4 da.	1 " 27 "	2 "	Gulity but insane.
Murder	1 da.	1 " 1 "	2 "	Gulity but insane.
Wounding with Intent to kill	8 "	1 " 2 "	1½ "	Gulity.
Arson	2 "	28 "	4 "	"
Rape	1 mo. 17 da.	11 "	4 "	"
Sacrilege	1 da.	4 "	1½ "	"
Attempted Murder	1 da.	3 "	2 "	Not Gulity.
Murder	2 da.	2 "	2 "	Gulity but insane.

able. Accuracy and precision are commendable qualities and are valuable ideals. Inasmuch as our legal system prescribes certain definite rules and forms, the judge can partly defend himself by declaring that he is but empowered to enforce the law as he finds it. Moreover, such an attitude is quite unpromising of real improvement. The lawyer makes neither the law nor legal forms. His function in society is to secure for his client the latter's full measure of legal rights. And, since legal forms have for all practical purposes become integral parts of the law, it is a bit unreasonable—and probably quite futile—to urge an attorney to neglect an opponent's technical error for the sake of the common weal when he knows full well that the opponent will make use of every loophole he leaves. The point of attack should be, not the administrators of procedure, but the instruments of procedure. Improvement will only be had when the rules of procedure and the legal forms that harbor technicalities are eliminated or modified. The destruction of the breeding places of such sacred pests as "against the peace and dignity of the state" and "in the name of and by the authority of the state," and their like, would seem a surer guarantee of common-sense decisions than sentimental appeals to duty. Nothing is so conducive to virtue as the thorough removal of temptation. The English have acted on this principle with decided profit.

#### *Efforts at Reform*

The American Bar Association has worked zealously for several years now to remedy the situation. After careful consideration for over four years, the committee in charge of the matter formulated a bill which was unanimously approved practically in its entirety at the annual meeting of the association at Seattle in August, 1908. The Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives of the Sixtieth Congress, after making a few slight suggestions, reported it back to the Bar Association committee. At the next meeting of the association the amended form of the bill was adopted with but one dissenting vote. This bill proposed:

"That no judgment shall be set aside or reversed or new trial granted by any court of the

United States in any case, civil or criminal, on the ground of misdirection of the jury or the improper admission or rejection of evidence, or for error as to any matter of pleading or procedure, unless, in the opinion of the court to which application is made, after an examination of the entire cause, it shall appear that the error complained of has injuriously affected the substantial rights of the parties. The trial judge may in any case submit to the jury the issues of fact arising upon the pleadings, reserving any question of law arising in the case for subsequent argument and decision, and he and any court to which the case shall thereafter be taken on writ of error shall have the power to direct judgment to be entered either upon the verdict or upon the point reserved, if conclusive, as its judgment upon such point may require."

The bill was in charge of Representative R. W. Parker of New Jersey, the chairman of the Committee on Judiciary, who vigorously advocated its adoption. Yet it failed of passage, even with the tremendous influence of the American Bar Association behind it. In 1911 Judge Moon of Pennsylvania brought it to the attention of the House. This time the effort was somewhat more successful. It was not only referred to the Judiciary Committee and ordered to be printed, but it was placed on the House calendar too. And on February 6 it was passed by the House. The next day the Senate's attention was directed to it. The upper house gave it two readings, referred it to the proper committee, from whose hands it never emerged.

Representative Moon re-introduced the bill last year—some time in December. But the attention of the House was concentrated on so many important matters that little time seems to have been found for this rather unsensational but immeasurably important bill. Adjournment was finally reached without any revision having been achieved.

But even if Congress should pass the Moon, or a similar, bill, only the federal courts would be improved; the situation in the state courts, in which the most numerous instances of technicality worship occur, would not be affected in the least. Just how this crucial phase of the situation is to be remedied it is insuperably difficult to say. Much depends on the attitude and



the energy of the state bar associations; and much upon the character of the press of the various states. Oklahoma and Wisconsin—the one evidently determined to build a new and sensible system of political institutions; the other transforming itself into a political laboratory for the nation—have splendid records. New York, Texas, Ohio and Missouri (in which state the situation, according to Frank N. Judson, a veteran member of the American Bar Association, grows worse and worse), to name but a few, have need to look to their laurels. They have far from clean bills of health. The American

Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, which publishes the *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, is doing excellent work in arousing public opinion, in urging its members—leading lawyers, judges, psychologists, sociologists, and students of political science—to meet the problem, and in tabulating the tendencies of the courts in the different states. Perhaps it will succeed in supplying the intelligent direction that is needed to guide the rapidly awakening, but as yet undirected, public conscience to a realization of the importance of this old, yet apparently new, problem.

## NORAH

HELEN R. GUTMANN

One crowded tenement-lined block was Moira's theatre. A play never ending, never dull, was acted out below her as she sat in her second-story window. When, because of a curved spine and a withered leg, one cannot go out to meet Life, it is a wonderful thing to have her come so close. The angels of Life and of Death had never come so many times in a year to the entire parish at home, as into this crowded block in a single week. And besides, there was the moving van, the patrol wagon, and the ambulance, with the shrill and raucous street sounds for the orchestra.

Like a never-ending, ever-beautiful tapestry woven of human threads, life unfolded beneath the watchful, wondering eyes of the little lame girl, sitting at the window with her endless crocheting, crooning old Irish songs of life and love as her fingers flew and her eyes sought the street below.

She made no friends and rarely saw her neighbors except the one who came to take her finished crocheting. But she had no need of friends for she had Norah—Norah who met life and was woven into it, a brilliant thread in its sordid woof.

Those were happy days while Norah was at school, and Jim, the father, brought home a meager sum from his wage—earned chiefly by the sale of his vote. If, at times, Norah's speech sounded odd to Moira's old-world ears, it was but the change to the President's from the King's English, she thought, and herself tried to learn the Bowery argot.

But Norah saw life from another side, as an actor sees the bare stage, and the spinner the reverse of the gay web. Life, tenement life, was stripped of all illusions. She loved to hear of Irish villages, of churches guarding, like a shepherd, their flocks of graves, of leafy, green walks and of places where one roof, leaking though it be, sheltered but one family. Often she sat listening in the dusk while Moira sang of village life and love: songs as colorless to Moira as the endless thread that passed through her fingers, as pregnant with life to Norah as the motley cosmopolitan crowd that passed outside. For the womanhood that poor, lame Moira could never know, was stirring in pretty Norah. The dark, dirty walls of her two-roomed home oppressed and crushed her. Love time was drawing near, and her street-sharpened eyes read admiration in the eyes of men as they passed her. Vaguely, without understanding, she sought a freer, cleaner place away from the sights and sounds and odors of a hundred homes. And seeking, found only dimly-lighted hallways, street corners and, not least of all, the darkened moving picture shows.

That is why Moira looks alone from her window at Life, no longer a fair and amusing tapestry or play, but a thing terrible and beautiful, as a tiger is terrible and beautiful as it springs at its prey. And Moira waits, as she endlessly crochets, for the day that must surely come when Life, tired of her play, will throw back her broken toy.



# HEALTH AND THE NATIONS

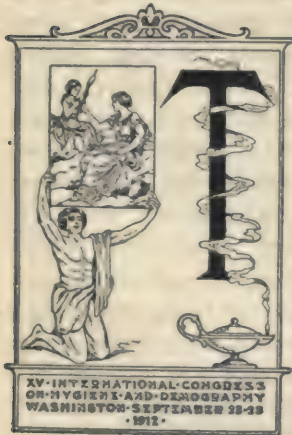
THE HYGIENE CONGRESS AT WASHINGTON AND ITS MESSAGES TO THE PARTICIPATING GOVERNMENTS

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NEW YORK

*[The true history of such a world-wide gathering of experts as the Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography cannot now be written; a decade may go by before its effects on science, public knowledge and practical reform can be rightly gauged. The Survey is therefore attempting in this issue to draw only some of the more obvious lessons to be learned from its discussions, to give wider publicity to features of lay interest.]*

*Dr. Wile calls attention to medical and sanitary discoveries which affect everyday life, while Dr. Hamilton points to the hazards to health from smoke, dust, labor of mothers and other accompaniments of our industrial system. In Mr. Harrison's description and photographs of the exhibit there are valuable suggestions, both for those interested in the subjects illustrated and for any who may plan similar exhibits in the future.—Ed.]*



THROUGH nine miniature congresses, constantly in session and covering various phases of hygiene from the most technical micro-biology to the popular aspects of the hygiene of infancy, veritably there was international and inter-scientific activity at Washington the last week in September.

The immensity of the hygienic field traversed is but suggested by the fact that over 600 papers were presented before the various sections of this, the Fifteenth International Congress on Hygiene and Demography.

It is interesting to note that America had abundant opportunity to put a best foot forward. Of the 620 papers scheduled on the official program 170, or 27 per cent, were accredited to non-Americans. In the 450 papers by Americans there was excellent opportunity for presentation of the studies, researches, observations, and results of the hygiene experimentalists and demographers in this country. While perchance this congress will not present as startling immediate results as some previous congresses, the meeting attested the fact that our native hygiene is not stagnant. The principal facts that were presented as new discoveries which are to lead to

the further protection of the race were reported by American observers.

The distribution of their activities by foreigners indicates the difference in the advance of social development of American and European countries. For example, while in the section on micro-biology only 21 per cent of the papers were scheduled to be given by foreigners, the section on the control of infectious diseases showed 52 per cent of the papers to be by non-Americans. Similarly it is noteworthy that 49 per cent of the papers on military, naval and tropical hygiene, 42 per cent on dietetics and physiology, and 40 per cent on the hygiene of occupations were given by the foreign contingent. This suffices to indicate the fields of hygiene in which the foreign delegates took the maximum interest, but it was in just these fields in which they gave the best evidence of their greater progress over America.

Education and research, research and education represent the two messages of this congress. There must result a great stimulus to America to delve deeper into the domains of physical, economic, and social hygiene. From all sections there was a general demand for increased educational activity, medical social and statistical, to develop national hygiene so that it might be of greater social value to the community. As President Taft stated in his speech of welcome:

"If the government is to be more or less popular, the people themselves must be educated, they must understand the mass of hygiene restrictions, to accept them and to impose on themselves the burden of taxation, which is essential in order that progress shall be made at all."



It will be in the stimulation of a wider interest in hygiene, in increased educational opportunities, and in a widespread conservative legislation that we may look for a crystallization into action of the hygienic precepts that were accepted by the fifteenth international congress. There was special effort to take steps to standardize statistically our present knowledge as a basis for both scientific advance and public action.

### *Social Diseases and Cures*

The program was so overcrowded that it was difficult for any individual to masticate thoroughly more than one-ninth of the total available scientific pabulum, and the processes of digestion will needs be continued for some time before assimilation is complete. The most valuable section from the standpoint of the future of the race was also the most technical. The section on micro-biology and parasitology presented the most far-reaching results, leading to the protection of society from those diseases which are now so devastating and crippling. In this field particularly the American scientists presented most valuable observations. In the discussions regarding disinfection, the statement by Drs. Anderson and Goldberger that measles is not distributed by the scales from the skin was of the utmost importance. Their observation that measles is spread principally through sneezing lays stress upon the necessity of prophylactic care during the early stages of the disease rather than upon the fumigation following recovery from it. The importance of this observation is readily understood in connection with the medical inspection of school children and the prevention of epidemics in institutions of various kinds. Their further reports that they have been successful in inoculating monkeys with measles gives rise to much conjecture as to the possible developments in new methods of treatment which may shorten the course of the disease or lessen the number of its unpleasant complications. The same two representatives of the United States Public Health Service reported their interesting discovery that typhus fever may be spread through the medium of the pediculus or body louse. This serves to account for the presence of typhus in an endemic state in many of our large cities and draws attention to the necessity of the protection of clothing in institutions as well as in homes.

With the entrance of bubonic plague into this country it is important that some attack be made upon the real spreading factor of this condition. Dr. Novy of the University of Michigan announced the discovery of a micro-organism that is fatal to rats, which, with their parasites, are the principal disseminators of the plague.

Dr. Wollstein presented an able discussion regarding the production of a serum that had

been successful in curing influenzal meningitis in monkeys. Inasmuch as this condition is exceedingly fatal in man, it is to be hoped that further investigation will find the serum successful in curing humans.

The discussions focusing about the bacteriological examination of water for the presence of intestinal bacilli was participated in by Dr. Jordan of Chicago, Professor Gaertner of Jena, Dr. Smith of Lister Institute, England, Dr. Welsh of Johns Hopkins and Doctors Weber and For-net of Germany. Inasmuch as the Americans apparently deemed a bacteriological examination to be sufficient for the determination of typhoid bacilli, while the foreigners did not place the same confidence in this procedure or in the involved nomenclature of American bacteriologists, an attempt was made to standardize all tests. In view of the necessity of thorough standards of investigation and report to effectually wipe out typhoid fever from polluted water supplies, the action of the fifteenth congress should do much to hasten this desired day.

### *Control of Infantile Paralysis*

Probably the most important meeting of this section or of the entire congress had to do with poliomyelitis or infantile paralysis, as it is popularly known. Following the excellent discussions by Professor Pettersson of Sweden, Dr. Flexner of New York and Dr. Landsteiner of Austria, came the epochal announcement by Dr. M. J. Rosenau of Harvard, that the stable fly is an active transmitter of this disease. Dr. Rosenau has been successful in infecting monkeys through the agency of the bite of the stable fly. This undoubtedly represents the most important announcement of the entire congress. The attacks now made upon the mosquito and the common house fly will be carried on against the stable fly and its breeding places. For the first time a rational plan for the elimination of infantile paralysis has been suggested and the control of the disease comes within the range of probability. This does not mean, however, that there are no other factors in the spread of infantile paralysis. Further research is required to determine whether it may not be carried by many other insects.

In the line of preventive medicine was the plan for vaccinating against tuberculosis urged by Dr. Vaughn of the University of Michigan and also Professor Volpino's suggestion for the inoculation of pellagrins. We are fairly alive to the significant proportions of tuberculosis in the United States, but we have not yet awakened to the fact that pellagra is gradually appearing over a wider area within our borders. Study and research into the cause and control of pellagra is a distinct problem. Apparently it is becoming more complex. There have been particularly extensive investigations of pellagra in the United



States and there is much to be learned from foreign sources.

The section on dietetic hygiene was noteworthy by virtue of the excellent variety of its program, though there were very few striking advances announced.

Dr. John Long of Chicago precipitated interesting and vigorous discussion by his paper on substances used in the preservation of food. As a result of his experience with a "poison squad," he took issue with Dr. Wiley as to the harmfulness of benzoate of soda. The reopening of this chemical question simply indicates that wide, authoritative, and co-operative investigation must be made of the various preservatives, in order that legislation relating to this important branch of dietetic hygiene may be based upon uniform and uncontrovertible experiences and experiments.

Dr. Henderson of New Haven expressed the new view regarding ventilation, which was further dwelt upon in another section by Dr. Winslow of New York, that temperature and moisture of the atmosphere are the most important factors. His contention that inspired air is of less consequence than the air's action upon the skin appeared to meet with favor despite the fact that Dr. Rosenau showed the harmfulness of the organic matter in expired air. The whole problem of ventilation is apparently undergoing a marked change, due to careful scientific investigation, and the present attitude towards closed and open systems of ventilation should not be dogmatic until further investigation has been made. This is of the utmost importance in view of the present demand for revised methods of ventilation in schools, offices and factories.

Dr. Brieger made a direct appeal for the extension of public baths, on the grounds that they are as essential to health as public parks or comfort stations.

### *State and City Hygiene*

The section on state and municipal hygiene presented general arguments in favor of the establishment of a national health bureau. Dr. Theodore Thompson of London and Dr. Weber of Germany both dwelt upon the immense advantage to be derived from a centralized health system as opposed to the present decentralized methods in vogue in this country. It was brought out that health administration has been better developed by a single authority and by departmental systems with an executive head over each division of hygiene and sanitation. In view of our lax methods, America has much to learn from the experiences of England, Germany, Austria, and France.

Much of value was to be gleaned from the discussion by Drs. Rideal and Houston of London, who disagreed as to the storage of water for

drinking supplies. Dr. Houston felt that this procedure is proper for all water supplies later to be filtered and tends to prevent an emergency in case the filtration plant gives way at any time. Dr. Rideal felt that the effect of storage upon water is undesirable in that it does not really sterilize the water. He particularly advocated the use of ozone or chlorine for the chemical disinfection of drinking supplies. The crux of the situation was pointed out by Dr. Sedgwick of Boston, who demanded the sanitary control of watersheds where cities make use of an unfiltered water supply. This appears to be the most rational solution of the problem, in that it offers protection of the water supply in a sanitary manner so as to make less necessary sterilization or filtration, valuable adjuncts though they be.

In connection with the water supply naturally arises the problem of sewage disposal. The present status of sewage disposal seems to be problematic. Dr. Kern of Paris brought out the fact that there is a wide difference of opinion as to the value of sewage purification by means of the septic tank and various oxidation methods; Professor Gaertner of Berlin doubted the value of the methods of sewage purification so eagerly recommended by Messrs. Watson and Fowler of Birmingham and Manchester, England. The gist of the remarks of Dr. Hering, president of the American Public Health Association, called for an analysis of different classes of refuse with reference to their potential liability to cause disease or create a nuisance. He recommended that all types of refuse with the exception of ashes and rubbish should be buried or plowed under, although incineration appealed to him as a still more satisfactory method of dealing with all wastes.

The discussions on housing presented very little that is new save that popular education is the main factor in securing housing reforms, as was pointed out by Mr. de Forest of New York. Sir George Mac Crae dwelt upon the importance of city planning with reference to housing conditions, instead of spending all the effort upon the consideration of the city beautiful. Without deprecating the aesthetic side of city planning, he regarded the regulation of housing construction as of greater importance to the public health. Land was to be utilized for the purpose of home building, and he felt that cities should increase their holdings of land so as to lessen the possibility of land speculation. This advice appears to be most necessary in this country, and if municipalities would avail themselves of their opportunities, land values would not mount so steadily and housing conditions would be bettered.

Dr. Neff of Foxborough, Mass., again called attention to the fact that many appear to forget that but a small proportion of the users of alcohol are confirmed inebriates. His plea for cus-



todial care involved also greater attention to curative measures. A valuable contribution to hygienic procedure was suggested by Dr. Barnard of Indianapolis, who pointed out that a defect in all plans for sanitary food production consists in the fact that the handlers of the food receive no inspection. In order to remedy this defect and to prevent the spread of contagious diseases through food supplies, he advocated general regulations whereby all handlers of food from its raw state until its delivery to the customer should be under sanitary inspection.

The suggestion of Dr. Barnard received reinforcement in the section on the control of infectious diseases when Dr. Norris of New York asked for a clean bill of health from all employes at hospitals and summer resorts in order to eliminate disease carriers of all kinds. The fact that typhoid fever is readily spread by bacilli-carrying cooks makes this particularly important.

Dr. Doty of New York pointed out that clothing and infected rooms are less powerful sources of infection than the individual who is sick, while Dr. Chapin of Providence declared that air itself was scarcely to be regarded as a medium for the spread of infectious diseases. While neither of these views were received without mental reservation, it became evident that statistical research is essential in order to determine whether or not there is an immense wastage of public funds in fumigating plants.

#### *Oysters*

The oyster as a carrier of infectious diseases was partially defended by Dr. Pease, who declared that raw oysters are not as a rule dangerous from the middle of November to the middle of April. Inasmuch as the government has no control over oyster beds, he advocated strict attention by the various states to the waterways in which oysters are grown and especial care to prevent the pollution of such places.

The harmfulness of the common house-fly, which is at the basis of all fly-swatting campaigns, was reasserted in no uncertain terms by Dr. Howard of Washington and Professor Nuttall of Cambridge, England.

The problem of the bacillus carrier was shown to be somewhat complicated, inasmuch as it is difficult to control the movement of such persons. Dr. Loeffler of Germany regarded it possible for the government to regulate their wanderings. While the American representatives appeared to be quite in harmony with this, it presents one of the most difficult of all questions that local health authorities have to solve. It is obvious that the bacillus carrier is a menace to the community, and further investigation will be necessary before sufficient public opinion is created to support prohibitive legislation or quarantine methods.

No part of the discussion was more interesting than the discussion as to the vaccination treatment of typhoid fever. There is apparently insufficient evidence at present to warrant the assertion that sanitation is not an adequate factor in preventing the disease or that anti-typhoid inoculations are the sole factors for preventing it. While the clash occurred upon academic lines, the conclusion is obvious that further research and statistical study is essential to determine beyond cavil its effectiveness.

The problem of bovine tuberculosis received its usual discussion, the gist of which was presented by Dr. Park of New York. In his plea for more careful protection of the milk supply designed for infantile use, he reported that approximately 6 per cent of the children under five years who died from tuberculosis were infected with the bovine type of the germ. Dr. W. Ramsay Smith of South Australia presented the general value of the compulsory notification of pulmonary tuberculosis and pointed out its immense hygienic importance. The laxity of the laws in this country regarding the notification of tuberculosis is highly discreditable, and we shall never know how the disease is spread through the wandering of consumptives until there exists some carefully organized scheme of notification, and to this attention should be given by all our state boards of health.

#### *Hygienic Education*

From the standpoint of popular interest no section was more interesting than that of the hygiene of infancy and childhood, presided over by that pediatric pioneer, Dr. A. Jacobi of New York. The necessity of open-air schools and open-air instruction was insisted upon by Dr. Knopf of New York as a partial remedy for the 3 per cent school population which he regards as suffering from tuberculosis. In addition to the economic waste resulting from the education of children whose average life is under eight years, he drew attention to the great loss to the country from the failure to give hygienic school houses to normal children. Inasmuch as at the present time there is a great increase in the number of fresh air schools for anæmics and tuberculous children, it seems timely that the suggestion for fresh air classes for normal children should be given more attention. Our present plan appears to be to wait until children are physically diseased before instituting the remedial measures which would be equally advantageous as a method of prevention.

In the method of teaching hygiene in public schools the development of the theme along social lines was suggested by Dr. Wile of New York, with a view to securing intelligent citizenship as a result of hygienic instruction. Dr. Walker of New York precipitated active discussion by making it clear that with our present



methods of school disinfection it is impossible to prevent the transmission of disease within the schools, inasmuch as the children themselves are the most active carriers. The plan he has suggested for school disinfection is by means of the wet spray, as being the most effective, economical, and certain.

One of the most important papers from the social point of view was the study of school children of the stockyards district given by Dr. Caroline Hedger of Chicago. Her statistical study showed retardation and physical defects to be most frequent among the children coming from families with low family incomes. The conclusion showed in a very convincing manner that the problem of retardation is closely bound with the economic conditions of the family, and is not wholly due to the defective arrangement of school curricula or to the question of late attendance upon school or the difficulties of language.

In connection with the problem of medical school inspection, Dr. Buergerstein of Vienna urged that more stringent measures be pursued by governmental authorities in order to secure adoption of the suggestions regarding the physical improvement of school children. A great wastage occurs in any system of medical school inspection which does not include some plan for carrying out the advice given by the medical inspector. That such a plan is possible and desirable was evidenced by the results of Dr. Storey, who, by a plan of exclusion from classes, secured the active co-operation of parents, so that more than 90 per cent of the students under his care followed the advice recommended by the medical examiners.

### *Heredity vs. Environment*

As an example of some of the unusual statements presented at the congress, Dr. Kerley of New York offered an interesting discussion attempting to prove that character building is dependent upon environment. He apparently places little stress upon the heredity factors in so far as they may influence character development. With the present fight for feeble-minded children the influence of environment may play an important role in child evolution, but it is not equal to that of heredity, as was shown by the papers by Dr. Goddard of Vineland, N. J., on *The Prevention of Feeble-Mindedness* and by Dr. Salmon on *The Preventable Cause of Mental Diseases*. The entire discussion on mental hygiene was illuminating as indicating the new attitude towards mental diseases, and seems to suggest that those who claim to be eugenists have before them a definite piece of research in order to determine statistically the relative importance of heredity and environment in the determination of weak character. Dr. Matus of Chili urged

the establishment of universal physical standards for children so that it may be possible to determine whether or not a child really measures up to normal.

The problem of the midwife received thorough discussion by Miss Noyes of Bellevue Hospital, New York, and it was made apparent that the midwives bear a distinct place in the infant welfare problem. The discussion indicated a difference of opinion as to the field of usefulness of midwives, but the consensus of opinion appeared to be in favor of education, licensure and municipal supervision.

An important and suggestive meeting of this section was devoted to oral hygiene, the results of which may be summed up in the statement that as decay is preventable, proper mastication of food should be taught and adequate care of the teeth given during the first six years of life. The permanent teeth may be conserved by proper tooth-brush exercises. The dentists themselves were not strongly in favor of dental clinics, inasmuch as their work is largely remedial and their possibilities for developing prophylactic work is decidedly limited. The dental nurse is advocated as being capable of doing effective training in such a way as to lessen dental caries.

Mr. Folks of New York in a discussion of the foundling deprecated the free and easy manner in which so-called charitable institutions relieve healthy mothers of the care of their children. Inasmuch as the mortality rate among institutional children is far higher than among those living at home, by accepting the responsibility for the care of children institutions are virtually increasing the mortality rate. Particularly important is it to protect childhood where parents have no real reason for being separated from their children. The actual number of abandoned children or true foundlings is surprisingly small, and the voluntary surrender of children to institutions should be greatly restricted.

The main theme of the section on military, naval and tropical hygiene dealt with the compulsory prevention of venereal diseases in the army and navy. There seemed to be general agreement that attempts to eradicate them are useless and that therefore prophylaxis is imperative.

Dr. Seidelin of Liverpool, England, while announcing the discovery of a parasite which may possibly be the cause of yellow fever, created considerable excitement by asserting that yellow fever still exists in the Panama Canal Zone. Drs. Sternberg, Craig and Birmingham of the United States Army promptly repudiated this suggestion and gave ample proof. Further important discussion in this section related to the use of the anti-typhoid vaccine, following the paper by Dr. Fornet of Germany. The experiences of the armies in England, Germany, France, United States and Japan tend to show



that general vaccination is essential for protecting large encampments, and must be a compulsory part of the military and naval hygiene of the future.

The section on the hygiene of traffic and transportation dwelt with unusual force upon the spread of disease through transportation vehicles in the first place, and, secondly, through the unsanitary construction camps which are to be found around all railway construction.

#### *Pamphleteering Immigrants*

In dealing with the problems of emigration and immigration Dr. Constatas of Greece made valuable suggestions that may have immense value in guiding the future acts of the participating nations. He advocated the compulsory examination of each emigrant in his own country. He also suggested that immigrants who have been in contact with typhoid fever should be detained and vaccinated. His suggestion that each immigrant upon landing should be given a pamphlet, written in his own language, that deals with the sanitary laws or regulations of his adopted country, is certainly worthy of wide attention.

The subject of the sub-section dealing with sex hygiene was fruitful of many valuable ideas. It was most interesting to note the distinctly feminine character of the audience, showing that women are becoming aroused to the interest of securing adequate and frank information on this most important subject. Dr. Kelly drew attention to the fact that attacks upon the prostitute herself amounted to very little, that the saloon and brewery were in more ways related to this problem than the female offender. Dr. Kelly invoked the aid of the church and demanded that it sing fewer hymns and take more part in this movement for eliminating the white slave traffic. Bleecker Van Wagenen of New Jersey, in an address on the question of surgical sterilization, stated the usual eugenic problems of controlling the breeding of paupers, the feeble-minded, criminals and other defectives. His various remedies for controlling the present situation included segregation, sterilization, eugenic education, restrictive marriage laws, better environment and polygamy. It is needless to say that his advocacy of polygamy was hardly popular, nor did the reasons given seem adequate to the women present. Dr. Bigelow's discussion on sex hygiene was practically along the same line as the report of the committee for teaching sex hygiene. Their methods involved the gradual education of children along biological lines, with lessons preferably given by the parents, and graded according to their mentality and precocity. It was urged that the constructive features in sex education be dwelt upon, while the pathological side be relegated to the background.

#### *Demography*

The section on demography was especially successful. The model bill which was suggested by Dr. Wilbur and which has been enacted into law in Pennsylvania, Missouri, Massachusetts, Kentucky and Virginia, apparently satisfied the delegates as being a valuable plan for securing the registration of vital statistics, such as should be adopted by the various cities. Julia C. Lathrop, chief of the Federal Children's Bureau, proposed the compulsory registration of illegitimate children, and her suggestion will undoubtedly receive adoption in some sections of the country.

E. B. Phelps of New York showed conclusively that despite the increase of population infant mortality has actually decreased throughout the United States, and especially during the past decade. While infant mortality is at present exceedingly high, and unnecessarily so, in view of the fact that 50 per cent of the infant mortality is preventable, the decrease is absolute and general. According to Mr. Phelps, the establishment of milk stations is insufficient to affect to any large extent the total infant mortality. His plea is for universal education which will develop more intelligent motherhood and which will, through the home itself, give better attention to conserving infant lives. By this means alone will it be possible to make a marked decrease in the infant mortality rate.

John Koren of Boston drew attention to the doubtful value of the statistics relating to criminals that are to be found throughout the world. It is well to contemplate his statement, growing out of his expert work for the Census Bureau, that the criminal statistics of the United States fail to rise to even an approximate standard of statistical value. Professor Field of Chicago made this fact even more patent by demonstrating how little statistical information we have relating to heredity and crime, heredity and disease and mental defects. His plea for conservatism in eugenics until adequate statistics are compiled is in harmony with the findings of the International Eugenics Congress recently held in London.

The position of women as a national asset was discussed in a most vital way by Dr. Zahn of Munich. He dwelt particularly upon women's services as an educative force and as an inspiration for the home, while appreciating her value as an industrial force that has to be recognized in the present plan of industrial competition.

The gauge of the conference lies in the recommendations to the participating nations. A tendency in all the resolutions is toward uniformity in standards and statistics. One involved the proposal that an international committee be appointed to consider the methods of investigation, classification and differentiation of the organisms of the colon typhoid group. The purpose



of this move is to secure greater uniformity in these methods and a provisional standard of certain tests which shall be recommended for the investigation of organisms belonging to this group. Two other resolutions favored uniform tabulation and analysis of the official returns of occupational diseases, with compulsory notification of such diseases in countries where it does not now exist. The designation by the navy of every country of a medical representative to confer with the representatives from other navies and to recommend uniform methods and tables for expressing international-naval statistics; the publication periodically (and, if practicable, annually) in every country of statistics of births, deaths, marriages and divorces; the appointment by states or large cities which publish demographic statistics of registrars or sim-

ilar officers sufficiently trained in medicine and demography to interpret demographic statistics, and adequate provision for the training of men fitted to fill such positions; the gathering, in connection with the census, of family statistics, including those of children both born and living; the publication of information giving the order of births in families; the appointment of a commission to report on the subject of uniformity of criminal statistics and especially uniform nomenclature; the use in different countries of disinfectants which can be controlled by a simple bacterial test—these are other recommendations contained in the dozen or more resolutions passed by the congress. The permanent international commission was instructed to take the necessary steps to create a permanent bureau for these international congresses in the future.

## FATIGUE: SMOKE: MOTHERHOOD

AND OTHER EQUALLY VARIED FACTORS WHICH TURN THE WORLD'S WORK INTO A PROBLEM OF LIFE AND HEALTH

ALICE HAMILTON, M. D.

MEDICAL OFFICER (1910) ILLINOIS OCCUPATIONAL DISEASE COMMISSION

**S**ECTION IV of the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, devoted to the diseases and accidents of industry, was distinguished by the presence of several well-known foreign members, as Sir Thomas Oliver, the foremost British authority on dangerous trades, Sir Arthur Whitelegge, chief officer of the British Factory Inspection Department, and Professor von Frankl-Hochwart of the University of Vienna, a noted neurologist.

Perhaps it was the presence of these men in the audience that made one listen a little critically to the American papers with their continually recurring references to the financial aspect of the problems the section was studying. Of course, we know that the waste of human life and strength means a loss of money value to the community, but is it necessary to lay stress on this point when you are addressing an audience of physicians, sanitarians and social workers, none of whom thinks that the money loss is the real measure of the evil?

As one listened with the ears of the foreign visitors, one had the mortifying conviction that they would depart with all their preconceived ideas strengthened, to declare that it is quite true that Americans measure everything in life in dollars and cents. Yet most of the men who were conveying this impression are as far as possible from holding a mercenary view of life. They were simply using what they supposed to be the strongest argument. One could not help wishing that the speakers had taken for granted

in their auditors a respect for life and health simply as life and health and not as an economic asset to the community.

The first session was one of the best of the week, dealing as it did with the subject of fatigue as a disease-producing factor. Dr. F. S. Lee, whose paper should really be printed in full, took up the effect of temperature and humidity on fatigue. The results of these elements, seen most clearly in life in the tropics, may also be studied in such occupations as mining, baking, laundering, canning and cotton weaving, which must be carried on under tropical conditions. We all know how much more exhausting the heat is in summer when it is accompanied by great humidity and the reasons for this were given by Dr. Lee. A high degree of humidity lessens evaporation from the body and the accompanying elimination of bodily heat; therefore, the temperature of the body rises, a feverish condition with rise of temperature comes on, and this affords the proper chemical condition for excessive susceptibility to fatigue. In fever there is an increased breaking down especially of protein bodies and an incomplete oxidation so that intermediate products accumulate in the blood and these substances, lactic acid and other acids, for example, are poisonous or fatiguing to the muscles. Naturally this condition is increased if muscular work is done at the same time.

Other papers dealing with fatigue were Dr. Blake's on the effect of unnecessary and irritating noise and Dr. Gould's on eye strain, both



of them, curiously enough, drawing their illustrations from the telephone girls who bid fair to become the stock laboratory material for research into the industrial neuroses. Josephine Goldmark called attention to the fact that fatigue is the most widely spread disease-producing factor in industry, affecting, as it does, the largest number of workers, many of them in occupations inherently harmless, but accompanied by excessive strain through speeding up or long hours. She made a strong plea for scientific research into the fatigue of different industries, whether caused by monotony or overspeeding, or by over-long hours.

It is hard to select from the wealth of material provided by the five days' session of this section those subjects that would be most interesting to readers of *THE SURVEY*. Perhaps the papers on smoke as a disease producer would be as timely as any. Pittsburgh, appropriately enough, is making a study of her smoke problem, and Dr. William Charles White, of the Department of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, gave a very interesting report, illustrated with charts, of investigations into the influence of density of smoke on mortality from acute and chronic pulmonary infections, taking pneumonia and tuberculosis as typical instances. Pittsburgh, as he pointed out, is specially well adapted to such a study because of the hills which surround the centers of smoke production in the city and make areas of well-defined density in the valleys along the rivers, with areas of lessened density on the low-lying hills and comparative freedom from smoke on the higher hills. The smokiest regions are inhabited not only by the poor, but by very well-to-do people, which makes it possible to rule out poverty and overcrowding as influencing the results.

The determination of smoke density was made by precipitating the smoke content of different quantities of air, not as has been done in federal investigations by the distance of vision from certain observation centers, a method which the Pittsburgh investigators consider to be of little value. Dr. White's chart showed that the curves of smoke density and of mortality from tuberculosis in the different wards do not run parallel, that Pittsburgh has a comparatively low death rate from tuberculosis and that the latter is apparently unaffected by the smoke content of the air. With pneumonia, however, the case is quite different. Here there is a remarkable parallelism in the two curves and such factors as density of population and poverty are apparently of little importance, for the prosperous districts have as high a proportion of deaths from pneumonia as the poorer districts, if their smoke density is the same. Dr. White said that pneumonia had of late years assumed a terribly acute and fatal form in Pittsburgh and that he was

convinced that smoke was a very important factor in the severity of the disease. He urged that a popular crusade for the prevention of pneumonia be inaugurated, which should use the same methods as the successful crusades for the prevention of tuberculosis.

The dust and smoke problem was also the subject of the first public address, that given on Monday evening by Sir Thomas Oliver, who illustrated by means of lantern slides the slow hardening effect on the lung tissue of successive deposits of so-called harmless dust and soot. He made some interesting statements as to the increasing evils of dust stirred up by automobiles. In England he declared it has become evident that the vegetation along roads frequented by motor cars is gradually becoming stunted, that birds are deserting such regions and that fish are disappearing from the streams crossed by such roads, all these changes being caused by the choking effect of the dust.

Two papers, one English, the other American, dealt with the relation between infant mortality and the factory work of women. Apparently the material for study was similar in the two countries, but the conclusions arrived at are different. Dr. Reid, working in Staffordshire, England, compares two groups of families in the same domestic circumstances and with the same hygienic surroundings, but in the case of one group, the inhabitants of the pottery towns, women are employed in factory work after marriage, while in the second group living in the iron and colliery towns there is no employment for women. The average infant mortality in the pottery towns exceeded that in the other towns by 28 per cent for a period covering thirty years. An intensive study of the histories of 5,000 infants under one year of age born in families of the artisan class in the pottery towns in 1908 showed that the rate was 43 per cent for babies of factory mothers in excess of the rate for babies of mothers employed at home.

Following this paper, Charles Verrill gave the results of a similar study made in Fall River by the Bureau of Labor. Here the mortality among babies of mothers who work in factories is compared with that of babies of mothers in the same social class but not so employed. The conclusions gained in Fall River are quite different from Dr. Reid's as far as the influence of factory labor is concerned. It would seem at first sight as if there must be a close connection between an infant mortality rate of 177.6 per thousand births and the employment of 29.8 per cent of the women over ten years of age in the cotton mills, but the bureau's investigators, who inquired minutely into 580 of the infant deaths in 1908, were unable to find that factory labor on the part of the mother played an important role in the death of these babies. Improper feed-



ing and lack of intelligent care was responsible for the high mortality among children of mothers at home as well as those of mothers at work and the improper feeding was usually not due to the mother's employment, for only 7.7 per cent were prevented by their work from nursing their babies. The others either could not for lack of breast milk, or were unwilling to do so. Mr. Verrill concludes that the cause of the excessive infant mortality in Fall River is to be found in the mother's ignorance of the simplest requirements of hygiene, all other causes being secondary to this.

Two papers from New York belonged logically together and should really have been given in the following order, first that of Dr. Annie Daniels on home work in the tenements, showing the widespread evils of home industry, with its practically complete freedom from legal regulation, and second the paper by Lillian D. Wald, of the Nurses' Settlement, giving a picture in strong contrast to this—that of an industry in which conditions and hours of work are controlled by rules formulated in joint conference by employers and employees. That the evils of

home industry are not peculiar to our country was made evident by M. Marié-Davy, whose paper on the situation in France revealed the same deplorable conditions resulting from the same reluctance to interfere with what have been held to be the rights of the home. Dr. Ludwig Teleky of Vienna, spoke of the need in Austria of legislative control for home industries, especially the raising of the age limit for such work to sixteen years and the prohibition of work in dangerous occupations under eighteen years. Austria-Hungary has one of the worst home industries, if not the worst, very largely developed, namely, the making of cheap pottery, which is covered with lead glaze and decorated with lead colors. Dr. Teleky thinks these home potteries are responsible for most of the lead poisoning occurring among Austrian and Hungarian potters.

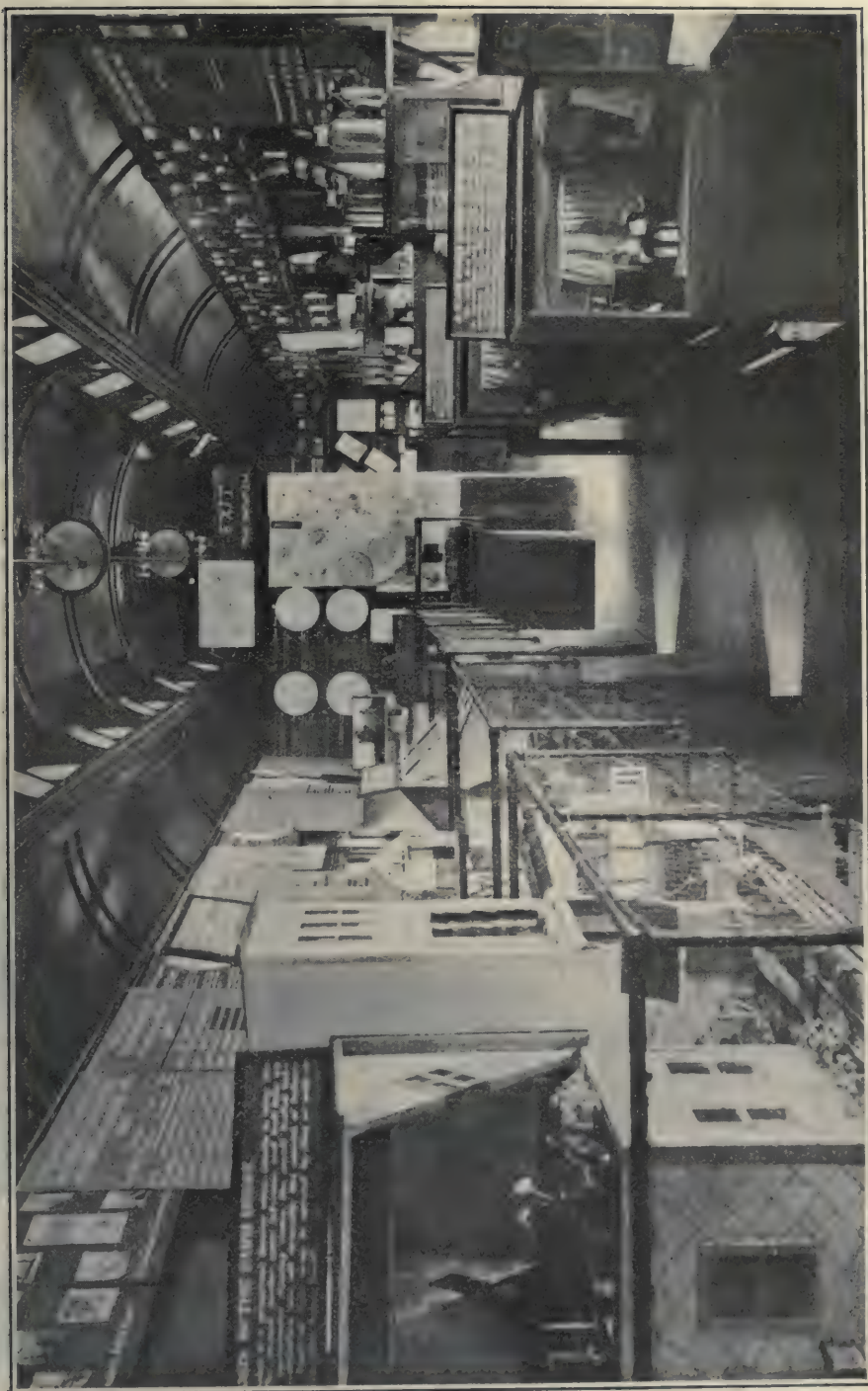
The papers on hook-worm disease, on brass poisoning and lead poisoning, on caisson disease, on tuberculosis, and on the accidents of industry, were of equally vital importance. They would well repay reading in the proceedings soon to be published.



#### ILLUSTRATING THE WORK AGAINST INJURY AND DEATH ON RAILROADS

Exhibit of the New York Central Railroad—one of fifty or more spaces given to commercial and industrial concerns to show methods of protecting life and health. While illustrating some of the accident prevention schemes discussed before Section IV of the congress, this part of the exhibit also embodied some of the ways of "putting ideas across" described by Mr. Harrison in the article beginning on the next page.





A CALIFORNIA HEALTH EXHIBIT ON WHEELS

Dr. W. F. Snow, Secretary California State Board of Health, brought from the Potomac the health car which has traveled up and down over the long stretches of the Golden State bringing a knowledge of sanitation, health and hygiene to the very doors of its citizens.



# INVENTING FOR HEALTH

A Picture Summary of the Health Exhibit of the Fifteenth International Congress on Hygiene and Demography

AT THE patent office in Washington patent number one million was recently issued. It was something of an event. It meant that American genius had produced a million ideas which almost a million people believed it would pay to protect. And the bedlam of models embodying these ideas make an extensive showing—a continuing exhibit, if you please—of America's commercial and industrial enterprise.

A month ago Washington had

By SHELBY M. HARRISON

*Photographs taken for the Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, by Dr. Millard Knowlton, of the New Jersey Board of Health, and E. G. Routzahn, of the Department of Surveys and Exhibits.*

on display the creations of another kind of inventive genius. It was an exhibition of methods for safeguarding life and for popularizing the best knowledge on how to keep well,—in this country, a relatively new field

as compared with that of economic invention. With life and health universally recognized as of greater importance than anything else, our dilatory and ungenerous interest as a nation in spreading knowledge of public



FIELD HOSPITAL UNITED STATES ARMY

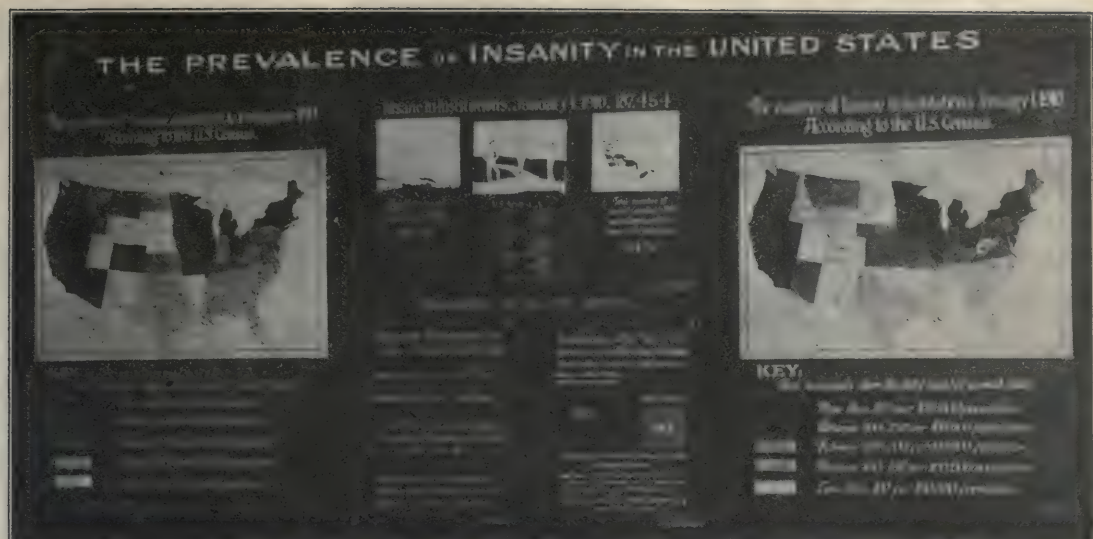
Set up on the exposition grounds and supplied with its regular quota of officers and men.



OPEN-AIR KITCHEN OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY

Outside the exhibition hall the army showed various types of stoves and ovens adapted for quick movements. Screened bread racks are seen in the first tent on the right.





**DIMENSIONS OF THE PROBLEM OF INSANITY IN THE UNITED STATES**  
 The exhibit of the National Committee on Mental Hygiene set an excellent example in topical and unified groupings of material.

health would seem unexplainable if it were not exactly in keeping with the federal government's policy of expending disproportionately larger sums on the health of cattle, hogs and other live stock than on human beings. It is analogous also to the practice of our cities in spending dis-

proportionately larger amounts for the protection of property from fire than for the protection of human beings from sickness, disease and death.

This second collection was the Exhibition on Health of the Fifteenth International Congress on Hygiene and Demography; and it represented



**STOVES AND KITCHEN UTENSILS TO FIT LITTLE HANDS**  
 An exhibit of attractive models showing methods used in the Louisa M. Alcott Club, Boston, in teaching household, personal and public hygiene to children from four to fourteen years of age.





**"NO RATS, NO FLEAS;  
NO PLAGUE DISEASE"**

Model showing the breeding places of rats which constitute a public menace through the possibility of spreading plague. From exhibit of United States Public Health Service.



**HOME INSTRUCTION IN  
FOODS AND COOKING**

A new idea in models showing healthful and unhealthful meals for both children and adults. Part of exhibit of New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.



the first attempt in this country to make a national exhibit of all phases of health work. The general subjects treated were: hygiene of infancy and childhood, sanitary control of food and food supplies, school hygiene, oral hygiene, hygiene of exercise, industrial hygiene, military and naval hygiene, sex hygiene, mental hygiene, communicable diseases and hospitals, sewage and water supplies, state and municipal hygiene, housing and vital statistics; and it included exhibits from more than 230 organizations. Of these, something over forty were from local organizations privately financed; eleven were from state organizations privately supported, and nineteen

there was too much material for the space available, making the whole exhibition cramped. Incidentally this appearance was emphasized by the highly colored bunting which draped the ceilings and confused the view instead of tending to set things out in clear relief.

While the possibilities for novel methods of graphically presenting information were by no means exhausted, a considerable variety was used. Photographs and placards were more universally employed than any other one device. Both were in varying sizes, some of the photographs being well labeled, but others had too little accompanying explanation and many had far



#### FEDERAL ACTIVITIES IN HEALTH AND SANITATION

A part of the exhibit of the United States Public Health Service showing data on insect disease carriers, causes of death among miners, hook-worm disease, rabies and tetanus. The models show sanitation plans for government posts.

from national organizations also privately supported; while thirty-eight were official state department exhibits, fifty had city government backing and fifteen represented federal government departments and bureaus. Upwards of fifty were exhibits owned by commercial and industrial concerns.

But the thirty-eight state exhibitors came from only half as many states—practically all north of the Mason and Dixon line—New York and Massachusetts sending the greater number. Of the city exhibits, privately financed, New York and Boston sent most. A number of large cities and many states were not represented; but even then

more than would be read by one passer-by in ten. The placards were white, gray, black and a few between-shades, with Roman and old English lettering, usually too much of the kind used. There were charts showing quantities and proportions by circles, pyramids, rectangles, parallel lines and curves, most of them very effective; maps with data shown by colors, cross-hatchings, varicolored pins and stickers; bottles and jars showing relations and proportions by different colored marbles and beans; miniatures and models of school houses, hospitals and asylums. Realistic reproductions were used even farther; in one were shown typical healthful and unhealthful





**IN THE GLOW OF THE CAMP FIRE**  
Exhibit of the Camp Fire Girls illustrating an attractive feature of the movement.

meals for children by using plaster of Paris models of dishes and foods, the latter painted in natural colors; another reproduced a model life-sized dental clinic ready for use; and still another showed typical good and bad food store conditions, with real pumpkins, potatoes, cabbages, pies, cakes and doughnuts on hand. Specimens of diseased flesh and bone preserved



**CROSS-SECTION MODEL**  
Showing floor and wall plans and their construction.

in alcohol represented another type of display; and at another end of the hall were live boys, who had suffered from hook-worm disease and were then under treatment.

Moving devices did not figure prominently; they consisted chiefly in the flashing of electric lights in groups and at various intervals. Three state health cars, fitted up to spread health knowledge in California, Louisiana, and Maryland, were open to visitors in the local Union Station.

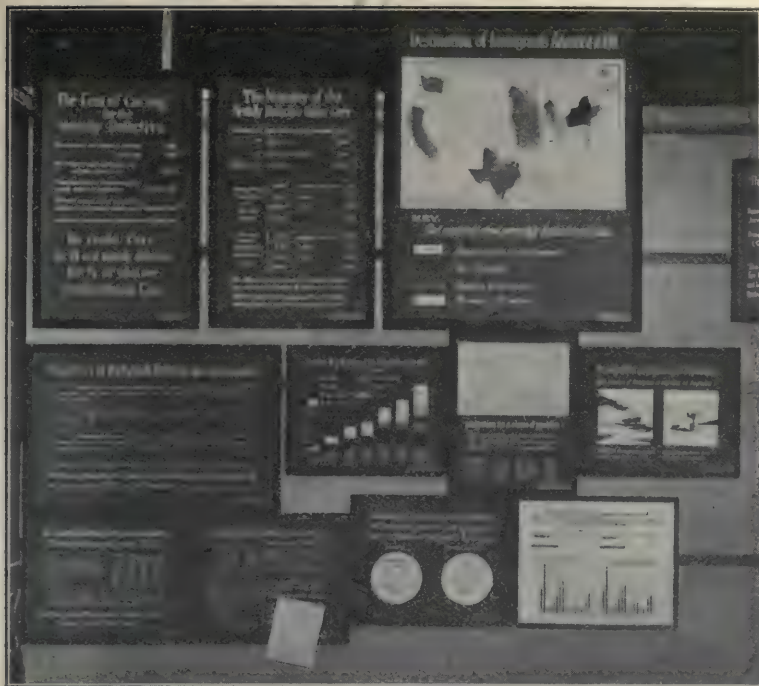
At most of the exhibit booths printed pamphlets were handed out; and a few exhibitors,



#### **EFFECTIVE PROPAGANDA AGAINST INFANT DEATHS**

One of the best unified exhibits displayed. Panels are of uniform size and fold into compact and easily transportable cases. The model for a receiving home for foundlings and mothers with their babies was part of the exhibit of the Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation.





BEARINGS OF IMMIGRATION ON INSANITY

Charts and maps of excellent mechanical workmanship but illustrating the need for standardizing shapes and sizes of exhibit material.

realizing the importance of personal explanations, had someone on hand all day to explain the diagrams and devices (and they always got a big share of the visitors).

The variety of display methods included a few features outside the building on the exhibition grounds where an exhibit of model playground apparatus, a field hospital, a field commissary with demonstrations of bread baking in the field, and a camp of Boy Scouts were to be seen. A detailed description of each exhibit is neither possible nor desirable here; a better idea is to be had from the accompanying photographs.

The Committee on Organization of the International Congress awarded testimonials for specially meritorious exhibits. In deciding the awards the jury considered originality of treatment of the subject material, method of presentation, and care displayed in the preparation of the exhibit. The



POPULATION STEPPING STONES IN NEW YORK CITY

A series of cubes showing the population growth by decades in New York City. An interesting and well executed idea of doubtful value except to the mathematician, who can estimate the relative volumes of cubes. The second cube at the right end is over 50 per cent larger than its immediate neighbor on the right, a fact not clear at first to the untrained eye.



testimonials took the form of diplomas of superior merit and diplomas of merit, sixteen of the former being awarded and something like fifty of the latter.

Those receiving diplomas of superior merit were:

American Association for Study and Prevention of Agriculture, for an exhibit of the work of vention of undue infant mortality;

Bureau of Chemistry, United States Department of Agriculture, for an exhibit of the work of the bureau in relation to pure foods and drugs;

Medical Department, United States Army, for an exhibit showing the investigation and methods of eradication of certain communicable diseases;

The National Committee for Mental Hygiene for exhibits illustrating

a. Causes of the apparent increase of insanity;

b. Heredity of feeble-mindedness;

c. Means for the prevention of insanity;

American Museum of Natural History for exhibits



#### SEX HYGIENE TEACHINGS VIA THE HORRIBLE EXAMPLE

From the Army Museum: It was this sex hygiene section which provoked most discussion and sharp differences of opinion as to how far pathological conditions should be portrayed in exhibits before popular audiences.

Oral Hygiene Committee of the National Dental Association and National Mouth Hygiene Association for an exhibit on oral hygiene;

Department of Education of the City of New York for an exhibit of its work in physical training;

Massachusetts State Board of Health for an exhibit on the hygiene of occupations;

The Prudential Insurance Company of America for an exhibit on the mortality of occupations;

Experimental Shoe Board, War Department, for an exhibit of the work of this board;

a. Glass models of pathogenic bacteria;

b. On pollution of water and purification of water and sewage;

Sewer Department, District of Columbia, for an exhibit illustrating the construction and maintenance of sewers;

Massachusetts State Board of Health for an exhibit of its work in state and municipal hygiene;

American Federation for Sex Hygiene for an exhibit on methods of teaching sex hygiene.

American Medical Association for an exhibit of dangerous or fraudulent patent medicines.





#### DEATH'S MESSENGER

A much enlarged fly with Death astride, a part of the Indiana State Board of Health exhibit, attracted wide attention. Note the heavy ceiling decorations and the aspect of confusion they throw upon the exhibit, an unfortunate effect observed in many parts of the hall.

## ARTURO GIOVANNITTI<sup>1</sup>

MARY BROWN SUMNER

**H**ALF England came to echo the protestantism of an imprisoned tinker. We in America today are quick to respond to the poet of a Russian dungeon who sings of the wrongs of Russian peasants. But what of a lyric singer in a New England jail, whose arraignment of American democracy would put it on a par with Russian despotism?

Some of us may not follow him all the way because, though we acknowledge substantial justice in his criticism, we believe that the structure of democracy can be restored by other means than by destroying to rebuild on new found-

ations. But we are forced to recognize in the work of the Italian, Arturo Giovannitti, on trial in Salem for complicity in the murder of Anna Lopizzo in Lawrence, the first American poems in a world-wide outpouring of working class verse that is giving literary expression to that revolt against our present day institutions, industrial and political, which has expressed itself in action in the last three years in the mass strikes all over Europe, from Barcelona anti-militarists to disfranchised Belgian workers.

More particularly Giovannitti represents the polyglot internationalism of the industrial workers of Lawrence, for he is an Italian immigrant, only twelve years in this country, who has

<sup>1</sup>The poems are quoted from the *International Socialist Review* and the *New York Call*.



turned his hand to any kind of work, from that of the mine to teaching languages and editing the organ of the Italian-American industrial-socialists. He had written not only Italian prose and verse, but some English verse before his arrest. Among others is a poem called *Blind Men*, addressed to orthodox Christians, which is interesting in view of the fact that soon after he came to America he entered a Protestant theological seminary intending to prepare for the ministry.

It was as he sat with Joe Ettor on the Prisoner's Bench in Lawrence Court House that Giovannitti wrote the first of five English prison poems which give an idea of his poetic message and of his adequacy to express that message in a language which to an Italian poet whose message was not true for all nations would be exotic:

Passed here, all wrecks from the tempestuous main  
Of life have washed the tides of time;  
Rags of bodies and souls, furies and pains,  
Horror and passions awful yet sublime,  
All passed here to their doom. Nothing remains  
Of all the tasteless dregs of sin and crime  
But stains of tears, and stains of blood, and stains  
Of the inn's vomit and the brothel's grime.  
And now we too must sit here, Joe. Don't dust  
These boards on which our wretched brothers fell.  
They're still clean; there's no reason for disgust;  
For the fat millionaire's disgusting stench  
Is not here, nor the preacher's saintly smell,  
And the judge—he never sat upon this bench.

From Lawrence jail, soon after, he wrote his indictment of the republic, which he inscribes  
"July 4—July 14":

A Goddess of the common weal.

Not hers the wisdom which decrees  
That time alone can wrongs allay.  
Not hers the craven heart to pray  
And barter Liberty for peace.

Not hers the fear to hesitate  
When shame and misery cry out:  
"Love has no patience, Truth no doubt  
And Right and Justice cannot wait."

She called . . . . .

The Mob, the mightiest judge of all,  
To hear the Rights of Man came out.  
And every word became a shout,  
And every shout a cannon ball.

And when upon the great sunrise  
Flew her disheveled victories  
To all the land and all the seas,  
Like angry eagles in the skies.



ARTURO GIOVANNITTI

To ring the call of Brotherhood  
And hail Mankind from shore to shore,  
Wrapt in her splendid tricolor,  
The People's virgin pride she stood.

This was the dawn. But when the day  
Wore out . . . . .

When night with velvet sandaled feet  
Stole in her chamber's solitude  
Behold! she lay there naked, lewd,  
A drunken harlot of the street,

With withered breasts and shaggy hair  
Solled by each wanton, frothy kiss,  
Between a sergeant of police  
And an old dribbling millionaire.

But if our nineteenth century republic has to his mind been prostituted, the Mob has in the meantime become the Thinker. In the late spring two poems on Rodin's Thinker came out almost simultaneously; one by James Oppenheim, the other by Giovannitti. They form an interesting contrast; the one filled with all the graces of style, even to the rhythm of a refrain; the other irregular in meter and almost incoherent in parts, depending for its claim to poetic excellence on the strength and daring of the thought. In contrast with Giovannitti's *Man*, in whose hand lies the making of the future, Mr. Oppenheim's *Thinker* is a musing Caliban. Here is the Oppenheim poem:

Thinks he: I come of a race of brutes,  
Tillers and killers and such:  
Whose life was a feeding, a tolling and breeding,  
And their joy was none too much.

Thinks he: our masters have given us light  
Better their rule to obey:  
Machines need brains to get good gains  
And the brutes must pass away.

Thinks he: we've paid in ages of sweat—  
Must we pay again and again?  
What if black ink shall set us to think,  
And thinking shall make us men?

Mr. Oppenheim is the reflective observer;  
Giovannitti is the apostle:

Think, think! Since time and life began  
Your mind has only feared and slept;  
Of all the beasts they called you man  
Only because you tolled and wept.

Of all the ages firmly set,  
Lone pillar of the world, you stood,  
Beyond your hunger and your sweat,  
You never knew nor understood,

Till now . . . . .

Think, think! While breaks in you the dawn,  
Crouched at your feet the world lies still.  
It has no power but your brawn,  
It has no wisdom but your will.

<sup>1</sup>See *American Magazine* for June, 1912.



Beyond your flesh and mind and blood,  
 Nothing there is to live and do.  
 There is no man, there is no God,  
 There is not anything but you.

Think, think! What every age and land  
 Thought an eternal mystery.  
 What sages could not understand,  
 And saints and poets could not see.

From you, the chained, reviled outcast,  
 From you, the brute, inert and dumb,  
 Shall, through your wakened thought, at last,  
 The message of tomorrow come.

It cometh like a flash of light,  
 Of truth to save and to redeem,  
 And, whether Love or Dynamite,  
 Shall blaze the pathway to your Dream.

The Thinker is not the only one of Giovanni's poems which suffers from defects of style. All except the Prisoner's Bench, the metrical defect in the last line of which may be intentional, have irregularities in meter as well as lapses into incoherency of expression; none is deficient in thought or the power to arouse "terror and pity."

Because it struggles with no metrical limitations, and because it expresses, as it has never been expressed in English, at once the psychology of the prisoner and the protest against the law that herds in a common jail the "apostle and the poet," together with the "hired assassin, the embezzler, the raper and the prostitute," The Walker,<sup>1</sup> written after six months in jail, is the best of Giovanni's poems.

#### THE WALKER

I hear footsteps over my head all night.

They come and they go. Again they come and again they go all night.

They come one eternity in four paces and they go one eternity in four paces, and between the coming and the going there is Silence and the Night and the Infinite.

For infinite are the nine feet of a prison cell, and endless is the march of him who walks between the yellow brick wall and the red iron gate, thinking things that cannot be chained and cannot be locked, but that wander far away in the sunlit world, in their wild pilgrimage after destined goals.

Throughout the restless night I hear the footsteps over my head.

Who walks? I do not know. It is the phantom of the jail, the sleepless brain, a man, the man, THE WALKER.

One—two—three—four: four paces and the wall.

One—two—three—four: four paces and the iron gate.

He has measured the space, he has measured it accurately, scrupulously, minutely, so many feet, so many inches, so many fractions of an inch for each of the four paces.

One—two—three—four. Each step sounds heavy and hollow over my head, and the echo of each step sounds hollow within my head as I count them in suspense and in fear that once, perhaps, in the endless walk, there may be five steps instead of four between the yellow brick wall and the red iron gate.

But he has measured the space so accurately, so scrupulously, so minutely, that nothing breaks the grave rhythm of the slow phantastic march.

When all are asleep (and who knows but I when they all sleep?) three things are still awake in the night: the Walker, my heart, and the old clock which has the soul of a fiend, for never, since a coarse hand with red hair on its fingers swung the first time the pendulum in the jail, has the old clock tick-tocked a full hour of joy.

Yet the old clock which marks everything and records everything and to everything sounds the death knell, the wise old clock that knows everything, does not know the number of the footsteps of the Walker nor the throbs of my heart.

For neither for the Walker nor for my heart is there a second, a minute, an hour, or anything that is in the old clock; there is nothing but the night, the sleepless night, and footsteps that go, and footsteps that come and the wild tumultuous beatings that trail after them forever.

• • •

All the sounds of the living beings and inanimate things, and all the voices and all the noises of the night, I have heard in my wistful vigil.

I have heard the moans of him who bewails a thing that is dead and the sighs of him who tries to smother a thing that will not die;

I have heard the stifled sobs of the one who prays with his head under the coarse blanket and the whisperings of the one who prays with his forehead on the hard cold stone of the floor;

I have heard him who laughs the shrill sinister laugh of folly at the horror rampant on the yellow wall and at the red eyes of the nightmare glaring through the iron bars;

I have heard in the sudden icy silence him who coughs a dry ringing metallic cough and wished madly that his throat would not rattle so and that he would not spit on the floor, for no sound was more atrocious than that of his sputum upon the floor;

I have heard him who swears fearsome oaths which I listen to in reverence and in awe, for they are holier than the virgin's prayer;

And I have heard, most terrible of all, the silence of two hundred brains all possessed by one single relentless unforgiving desperate thought,

All this I have heard in the watchful night,

And the murmur of the wind beyond the walls,

And the tolls of a distant bell,

And the remotest echoes of the accursed city,

And the terrible beatings, wild beatings, mad beatings of the one Heart which is nearest to my heart.

All this I have heard in the still night;

But nothing is louder, harder, drearier, mightier, more awful, than the footsteps I hear over my head all night.

Yet fearsome and terrible are all the footsteps of men upon the earth, for they either descend or climb.

They descend from little mounds and high peaks and lofty altitudes, through wide roads and narrow paths, down noble marble stairs and creaky stairs of wood, and some go down to the street, and some go down to the cellar, and some down to the pits of shame and infamy, and still some to the glory of an unfashionable abyss where there is nothing but the staring white stony eyeballs of Destiny.

And again other footsteps climb. They climb to life and to love, to fame, to power, to vanity, to truth, to glory, and to the gallows: to everything but Freedom and the Ideal.

And they all climb the same roads and the same stairs others go down; for never, since man began to think how to overcome and overpass man, have other roads and other stairs been found.

They descend and they climb, the fearful footsteps of men, and some drag, some speed, some trot, some run; the footsteps are quiet, slow, noisy, brisk, quick, feverish, mad, and most awful is their cadence to hear for the one who stands still.

<sup>1</sup>Copyright by the *International Socialist Review*.



But of all the footsteps of men that either descend or climb, no footsteps are as fearsome and terrible as those that go straight on the dead level of a prison floor from a yellow stone wall to a red iron gate.

All through the night he walks and he thinks. Is it more frightful because he walks and his footsteps sound hollow over my head, or because he thinks and does not speak?

But does he think? Why should he think? Do I think? I only hear the footsteps and count them. Four steps and the wall. Four steps and the gate. But beyond? Beyond? Where does he go beyond?

He does not go beyond. His thought breaks there on the iron gate. Perhaps it breaks like a wave of rage, perhaps like a sudden flow of hope, but it always returns to beat the wall like a billow of helplessness and despair.

He walks to and fro within the narrowness of this ever storming and furious thought. Only one thought, constant, fixed, immovable, sinister, without power and without voice.

A thought of madness, frenzy, agony, and despair, a hell-brewed thought for it is a natural thought. All things natural are things impossible so long as there are jails in the world—bread, work, happiness, peace, love.

But he does not think of this. As he walks he thinks of the most superhuman, the most unattainable, the most impossible things in the world.

He thinks of a small brass key that turns half around and throws open the iron gate.

That is all that the Walker thinks, as he walks throughout the night.

And that is what two hundred minds drowned in the darkness and the silence of the night think and that is what I think.

Wonderful is the holy wisdom of the jail that makes all think the same thought. Marvelous is the providence of the law that equalizes all even in mind and sentiment. Fallen is the last barrier of privilege, the aristocracy of the intellect. The democracy of reason has levelled all the two hundred minds to the common surface of the same thought.

I, who have never killed, think like the murderer;

I, who have never stolen, reason like the thief;

I think, reason, wish, hope, doubt, wait like the hired assassin, the embezzler, the forger, the counterfeiter, the incestuous, the raper, the prostitute, the pimp, the drunkard,—I—I who used to think of love and life and the flowers and song and beauty and the ideal.

A little key, a little key as little as my little finger, a little key of shiny brass.

All my ideas, my thoughts, my dreams are congealed in a little key of shiny brass.

All my brains, all my soul, all the suddenly surging latent powers of my life are in the pocket of a white-haired man dressed in blue.

He is powerful, great, formidable, the man with the white hair, for he has in his pocket the mighty talisman which makes one man cry and one man pray, and one laugh, and one walk, and all keep awake and think the same maddening thought.

Greater than all men is the man with the white hair and the little brass key, for no man in the world could compel two hundred men to think the same thought. Surely when the light breaks I shall write an ode, nay, a hymn, unto him, and shall hail him greater than Mohammed and Arbut and Torquemada and Mesmer, and all the other masters of other men's thoughts. I shall call him Almighty for he holds everything of all and of me in a little brass key in his pocket.

Everything of me he holds but the branding iron of contempt and the clamor of hatred for the most monstrous cabala that can make the apostle and

the murderer, the poet and the procurer, think of the same key, the same gate and the same exit on the different sunlit highways of life.

My brother, do not walk any more.

It is wrong to walk on a grave. It is a sacrilege to walk four steps from the headstone to the foot and four steps from the foot to the headstone.

If you stop walking, my brother, this will be no longer a grave; for you will give me back my mind that is chained to your feet and the right to think my own thoughts.

I implore you, my brother, for I am weary of the long vigil, weary of counting your steps and heavy with sleep.

Stop, rest, sleep, my brother, for the dawn is well nigh and it is not the key alone that can throw open the door.

How do the best lines in Reading Gaol, up to this time the best expression of prison life in English poetry, stand comparison with The Walker? Says Wilde's ballad:

But this I know, that every law,

That men have made for man.

Since first man took his brother's life,

And the sad world began,

But straws the wheat and saves the chaff

With a most evil fan.

And every prison that men build

Is built with bricks of shame.

It's only what is good in man

That wastes and withers there.

Over against these last two lines, hear The Walker, with a simplicity and melancholy iteration suggestive of Ecclesiastes:

All things natural are things impossible so long as there are jails in the world—bread, work, happiness, peace, love.

We should stop perhaps with The Walker as the climax. And yet a much inferior poem, The Bench in Mulberry Park, which has come out recently, has verses which show such a different and such an exquisite side of the poet that it should not pass unnoticed:

I dreamed and dreamed all night.

Young dreams and frail and bright,

Like little buds that never grow to bloom;

Like silver clouds that pass,

Like crickets in the grass,

Like yellow fireflies twinkling in the gloom.

Aye, I was hungry—yet

Sometimes one can forget,

And empty stomachs often find a dole,

Whilst the young days are fleet,

When one can fill with sweet,

And moonlit dreams the hunger of the soul.

For these dreams the poet had no bed but the park bench, a seat set not far from that other seat of poverty, the prisoner's bench—for each night he questioned

Whether the dawn would hail

Another thief in jail,

Or at the morgue another corpse unknown.

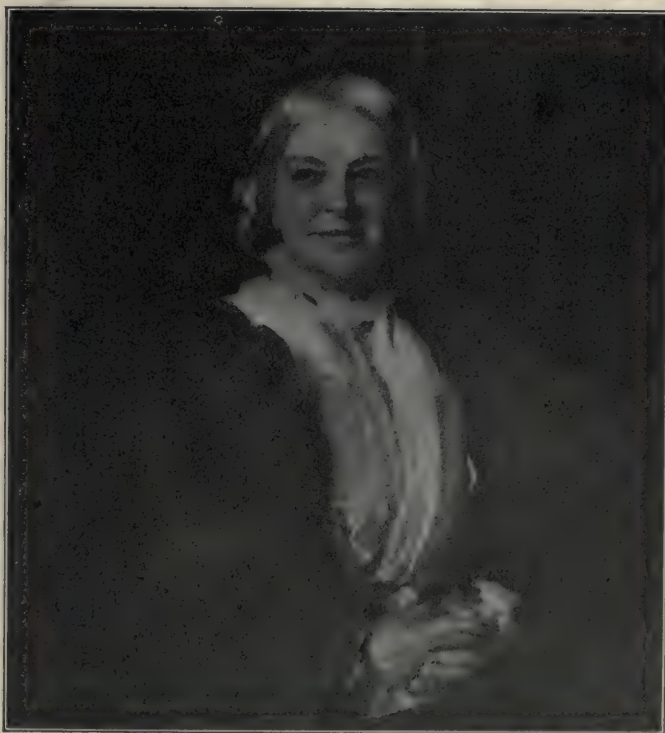
Surely we are not so rich in lyric poets that we can afford to send this one to the chair or keep him longer in prison.



# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 6

November 9, 1912



THE LATE OCTAVIA HILL

This Issue Ten Cents

Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**T**HE Hanus report on the methods New York uses in teaching a million school children will be published shortly. Meanwhile the public curiosity has been increased by some premonitory hints. P. 167

**I**F the manufacturer is compelled to pay more for his labor than his competitor in another locality, he must either move or quit business—such is the familiar argument used against those who propose local minimum wage laws. The secretary of the Massachusetts Commission on Minimum Wage Boards answers by showing that manufacturers do not pay the same for their labor and yet neither move nor shut up shop. P. 174.

**A**FTER prodigious urging, we have at last come to look upon sanitation, improved housing, shorter hours of labor and more abundant recreation as probable methods of prolonging life. Now comes surgery, the science which from time out of mind has made longer life its goal, with a discovery that has startled even its own proficients. Dr. Alexis Carrel recently told how he had succeeded in "separating from the body and brain and nervous system of a warm-body animal that animal's heart, stomach, liver, intestines, kidney and bladder and in having these organs live and functionate under his eyes for ten hours." P. 170.

**H**AVING closed 150 assignation houses in six months, cleaned one notorious street after another, banished liquor, music and dancing from all resorts and hedged the masher and street walker about with peril, the Pittsburgh Morals Efficiency Commission, says Rabbi Rudolph I. Coffee, has concluded that all it has done is purely remedial. It must next see that children are taught in school the true danger of prostitution. Only thus can elimination—the imperative solution of the social evil—be accomplished. P. 173.

**A**FORTNIGHT ago the trial of Pittsburgh's director of public safety, John M. Morin, at which it came out that something like \$1,700,000 was the price of protection paid by illegal resorts, closed with the verdict of guilty. Mismanagement of office was the offense charged. P. 169.

**I**T may not be given to a great woman's contemporaries to see her with the perspective of history. But it is occasionally given to a few of those who knew her to glimpse intimately the devotional warmth and day-to-day philosophy which brought success to her efforts. After this fashion was Octavia Hill seen and known by

## THE SURVEY

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C. S. Loch, whose appreciation of her services to humanity THE SURVEY this week reprints. P. 175.

**I**F THE attorneys defending Ettor, Giovannitti and Caruso, who are on trial for the murder of Anna Lopizzo, substantiate their claims, Lawrence and the country will know better just who, strikers, mill owners or both, were responsible for the disorder prevailing during the strike. Following the close of sixteen days of testimony for the state, Attorney Peters in opening the case for the prisoners said the defense would prove that the mill owners through private detectives incited violence, for which his clients are blamed by the commonwealth. Each of the defendants, it was announced, will take the stand, and Caruso will produce testimony to show that he was at home when the Lopizzo girl was shot.

**T**HE grading of nurses, the responsibility of hospitals for the prevention of disease, and the use of salvarsan were some of the subjects which interested the American Hospital Association in Detroit. P. 171.





VOLUME XXIX, No. 6

NOVEMBER 9, 1912

# THE COMMON WELFARE

## NEW YORK CITY SCHOOL INQUIRY

Educators in every state who are trying to make good the faith we place in our public schools are planning to utilize the benefits of New York's \$75,000 school inquiry. This comprehensive investigation of both the business and educational methods of the greatest municipal school system of the nation is expected to reveal information applicable not only to New York's 1,000,000 children, but to the 20,000,000 others in all parts of the country. For this reason school superintendents, principals, teachers and citizens have long been waiting for the full report of the investigators.

The delay in its anticipated publication has given rise to a number of unfortunate rumors. One of these declares that the findings are being held back for various mysterious and underhand reasons. Another insinuates that the investigation was bungled and that it is petering out.

The decision of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to reject in full the report of Prof. Ernest C. Moore, one of the Hanus investigators, on the organization and methods of the Board of Education should clear the air, particularly as it partially explains these rumors. The explanation given for this drastic action was the alleged absence in Professor Moore's report of any evidence to back up the statements he made. In his answer Professor Moore accuses the Board of Estimate of trying to rewrite his re-

port and challenges the board to bring suit for the recovery of the money paid to him.

News articles in the New York papers have complicated the situation by actually, though probably unintentionally in most cases, misleading some into believing that part of the results of the inquiry into the educational work of the school system had been released. This has made the public restless to know why the reports were not ready for distribution, especially as few fully understand all the ramifications of the inquiry.

Two years ago Mayor Gaynor appointed three members of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to examine the organization, equipment and methods, both financial and educational, of the Board of Education. The educational part of this inquiry, as distinct from the financial and business methods, has been carried on under the immediate supervision of Prof. Paul Hanus, who divided the field up among half a score of helpers. This inquiry has largely centered on the following: the practicability of intermediate schools; part time, promotion and retardation; the size of sections; the work of teachers and the course of study; compulsory education; ungraded classes for the subnormal; and manual, technical, trade and vocational training.

Paralleling these pedagogic researches several have also been conducted of business policies and administrative methods. These were carried on directly by the special committee of the Board of Estimate and have embraced among





#### UNDERGROUND DANGERS TO HEALTH

The arrows on the left under the barn and on the right under the privy vault show polluted matter seeping down through the surface soils and crevices in the rocks into the well. This formed part of the exhibit of the United States Public Health Service at the Congress of Hygiene and Demography at Washington. The picture tells a story which would help along a sanitary revolution if it could be shown in every county seat in the United States.

other subjects the following: heating and ventilation; janitor service; sites; the bureau of supplies; the need of additional school facilities, and the wider use of the school plant.

Full reports and summaries of some of these last named have been published. None of the Hanus studies of the educational work of the schools, however, has been released, although a few of them were completed nearly three months ago. This is because it was decided to print all of the reports simultaneously. A number are still being revised, but the active field work was finished July 1. Despite the fact that the various reports on educational methods have not been made public, more than a month ago an alleged summary of the main points raised by Jesse D. Burks, director of the Philadelphia Bureau of Municipal Research, in his report to Hanus on compulsory education was featured in one of the papers. Intimations of the character of the findings of some of the other investigators have also appeared. These garbled and disconnected accounts have led to misunderstandings.

Since July when the work of the Hanus investigators was officially concluded, Frank P. Bachman, who was one of the staff, has been retained directly by the special committee of the Board of Estimate to follow up and supplement the work of the educational inquiry. In this capacity and not as one of Professor Hanus' assistants, Mr. Bachman has made a report which shows that in counting over-age children, the New York school report omits 20,000 children in special classes for over-age, plus many who drop out before the day when the records are taken. When this report appeared in the newspapers many thought it was part of the Hanus findings.

W. A. Averill, whose services were loaned by the Bureau of Municipal Research, has submitted to the Board of Estimate a report on the office methods of the city and associate superintendents. This is part of the separate inquiry into the business methods of the school board. In it he declares that clerical routine work consumes altogether too much of the time of the superintendent and his associates to the necessary neglect of supervisory educational work. He makes certain suggestions for the handling of correspondence such as a greater use of the printed forms and the establishment of an information bureau.

In a third report Charles E. Armstrong, a consulting engineer engaged by the Board of Estimate, urged the centralization of boiler plants, the installation of apparatus which will permit the use of a cheaper grade of coal, the provision of proper air washing apparatus, the use of modern vacuum cleaning systems and an improved personnel of the inspecting and supervising corps. He also submitted recommendations in regard to fire protection and possible economies in the cost of electric light. The character of some of the graver conditions disclosed may be judged from the fact that although concentration of steam producing apparatus is recognized as being good economy some of the schools had as many as six separate boiler plants.

These reports, together with a very short summary of one by E. W. Stewart on the accounting system of the bureau of supplies, comprise the main results up to date of the New York school inquiry into educational and financial methods. The twelve special Hanus reports of the pedagogical aspects of the school system are not expected to be ready for public distribution for at least another month. Additional reports on the business and administrative methods are also still to be released. Not until all these have been published can educators appraise the results of the most comprehensive school inquiry ever conducted in this country.



## EUGENICS AND EVERYDAY LIFE

A school which aims to give to the teacher, the parent and the social worker a practical ground-work in eugenics has been opened in Boston. The school is an outgrowth of lecture courses which have been offered in various parts of New England during the last five years. As over four hundred lectures were given during that period, to groups of women and girls numbering as many in a single week as fifteen hundred, the promoters feel that their Boston plan has passed the stage of an experiment.

Winter courses are offered in eugenics and eugenics; in family traits and in biology of nutrition and reproduction, by Evangeline W. Young; in genealogy, by Mary Lovering Holman, and sex in religion, by Constance M. McGinley. The general purposes of the school, headquarters of which are at 585 Boylston Street, are stated by the secretary, Cornelia B. Rodman, to be, to "arouse family pride through the study of family history, to remove the ignorance and superstition which at present shrouds the subject of sex and reproduction, to dignify the function of parenthood in the estimation of both men and women, and to warn against race-poisons and false traditions and practices which have come about by ignorance of nature's laws governing the function of race-production."

## THE TRIAL OF THE PITTSBURGH DIRECTORS

John M. Morin, director of the Pittsburgh Department of Public Safety, was found guilty October 24 by the Pittsburgh council, in a public vote of 5 to 4, of the charge of mismanagement of office brought against him by the Voters' League. He was acquitted by a vote of 6 to 3 on a companion charge of malfeasance in office. The action does not oust him, as Mayor Magee's probable veto will require six votes to be overridden, and none of the four councilmen who voted to acquit Morin on both charges is likely to change his mind. Morin is a candidate on both Republican and Progressive tickets for Pennsylvania congressman-at-large.

Joseph G. Armstrong, director of the Pittsburgh Department of Public Works, tried by the council on charges also brought by the Voters' League, was unanimously acquitted on both charges, but a number of councilmen in explaining their votes expressed the conviction that the trial and investigation of the director's office will result in greatly increased efficiency in his department.

When the test came, the only surprise was that Councilman W. G. Wilkins, a consulting engineer, rather than W. A. Hoeveler, voted to convict Morin on one count. E. V. Babcock, a

millionaire lumberman; P. J. McArdle, former president of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, and Dr. J. P. Kerr, a South Side physician, voted for the exoneration of both men. Their stand was not at all unexpected and is ascribed to their political connections and ambitions. With these three, it was thought, Wilkins, who has been friendly with Mayor Magee, would stand rather than Hoeveler.

Equally expected was the stand taken by another trio, Enoch Rauh, Robert Garland and Dr. S. S. Woodburn, in voting for the conviction of Morin on both charges. John M. Goehring, president of council, like Wilkins, voted to acquit Morin on the charge of malfeasance in office and to convict him of mismanagement of office.

Dr. E. R. Walters, director of the Department of Public Health, whose trial was postponed in September when he contracted smallpox, was an interested listener as each councilman made a public explanation in casting his vote in the two cases. The time for the commencement of the Walters' trial has not been fixed.

The cases against the three Pittsburgh directors were started early in the spring when Attorney A. Leo Weil, president of the Voters' League, presented the charges to council. Amendments to the city charter, secured from the legislature in 1909, under which Pittsburgh was given a body of nine men elected at large, provided that the council, sitting as a jury with a member of the common pleas bench as judge, should try a department director accused of mismanagement or malfeasance.

The responsibility for taking action lay in reality on council, and it was the disinclination of this body to act which forced the Voters' League on to the position of prosecution. Specifications were ordered filed in May by Judge Robert Fraser. This order tended to handicap the case against Morin in particular, as it was realized that witnesses, who were part of the life of the underworld, would disappear if specifications were given on certain counts. A number of charges were therefore dropped. That the fear was not groundless was shown when during the progress of the Morin case witnesses disappeared over-night.

Director Armstrong's hearing consumed three weeks in June and that of his colleague an equal length of time in July. The difference in the attitude of the two defendants was characterized in the public explanation made by Councilman Rauh in casting his vote to convict Morin on both charges. He said that Morin, instead of acting like a public official should who was blameless, had, with the assistance of his counsel, thrown every possible obstacle in the way and taken advantage of every technicality so as



to withhold information. He said that Morin, on the stand in rebuttal, had been asked only such questions by his counsel as dealt with unimportant matters so that in cross examination the prosecution could not ask questions having to do with vital points. He said further that the record of the Morals Efficiency Commission in pointing out to the police over 100 places in the past four months proved that the director of the department was not and is not "onto his job." Like President Goehring and other councilmen who voted for conviction, Mr. Rauh laid special stress on the fact that Morin overruled the findings of the police trial board and retained on the force flagrant and repeated offenders.

None of the councilmen attacked the purposes of Mr. Weil and the Voters' League. Even among those voting for the exoneration of both directors, some spoke of the increased efficiency which had resulted and would develop from the thorough investigation and probing.

#### DR. CARREL AND THE SPAN OF LIFE

The boundary of experiment in the prolonging of life has been pushed forward another degree. Such at least was the feeling expressed by many of those attending the meeting of the New York Physicians' Association, at which Dr. Alexis Carrel, of Rockefeller Institute, who a few days before had received the Nobel prize for research in medicine, told of his most recent experiment. To quote from the *New York Times*:

"He had succeeded in separating from the body and brain and nervous system of a warm-body animal that animal's heart, stomach, liver, intestines, kidney, and bladder, and of having those organs live and functionate under his eyes for ten hours. As the culmination of many weary months of progressive experimentation, Dr. Carrel had before him in his laboratory a living 'visceral being,' living though totally severed and apart from the brain that was supposed to be the essential stimulus of life. There, under the very eyes of the eager wonderworker, was a dog's heart beating its 120 beats a minute, just as though nothing had happened, a dog's stomach digesting food as though the brain were in its seat directing the whole operation, a dog's intestines and kidneys functioning as though the surgeon's knife had never been near. This was the achievement—an entire system of organs alive outside the body, an animal killed and its viscera living.

"The announcement of it recalled that striking sentence in Dr. Carrel's paper on 'Preservation of Tissues and Its Application in Surgery,' read by him before the American Medical Association in June. The sentence was:

"If it were possible to transplant immediately after death the tissues and organs which compose the body into other identical organisms, no

elemental death would occur and all the constituent parts of the body would continue to live."

"The organs of the animal which continued to live for ten hours in Dr. Carrel's laboratory were taken by him and placed in the solution which a very infinity of experiments had taught him was the one required. The blood had to be aerated continuously by the artificial respiration supplied from oxygen pumps and the desired temperature was maintained through the laboratory equipment much as it is preserved in an incubator.

"Then Dr. Carrel watched while the organs continued the placid performance of their functions. The thing that riveted the attention of every doctor there on Thursday night was the promise the announcement implied that they and all their profession would henceforth be able to see the organs of circulation and digestion at work. After his speech was over they were all talking of the wonderful value of the achievement in the possibilities it opened up for physiological research. To be able to bend over and watch a living heart beating and a living stomach digesting—that was the wonder of it.

"Many of them looked upon it as a step in the prolongation of life."

The separation and survival of this "visceral being" has been another step in a direction in which Dr. Carrel has been moving for several years. The awarding to him of the Nobel prize came as the result of a long line of investigations since he became a member of the staff of the Rockefeller Institute, a striking climax in which was reached with the announcement last spring that he had succeeded in keeping the heart tissue of a chicken alive for a period of 120 days after removal from the body.

Dr. Carrel started on this line of experimentation in his quest of a method of storing tissues extirpated from the amputated limb of a living animal or a fresh cadaver during the period which elapsed between their extirpation and their transplantation on the patient.

"It would be very convenient," he said in Atlantic City last June, "for surgeons to keep in store pieces of skin, cartilage, blood vessels, peritoneum, bone, blood vessels, omentum, and fat ready to be used. I attempted to preserve the tissue outside of the organism in a condition of active or latent life.

"The color and consistency of the tissues remained generally normal for several weeks. After six, seven or even ten months the microscopical appearance of the arteries was not markedly modified.

"The results obtained by Tuffler, Magitot and myself demonstrate that human tissues preserved in cold storage could be used in human surgery. Future investigations will show in what measure tissues of infants should be employed as grafts.



The tissues actually used in human surgery, as cartilage, periosteum, skin and aponeuroses could easily be taken in large quantities from the fresh cadavers of fetuses and infants and preserved in vaseline and in cold storage.

"A supply of tissues in latent life would be constantly ready for use, and the tubes containing the tissues could even be sent in small refrigerators of the type of the thermos bottle to surgeons who needed them. It would simplify very much transplantation of skin, bone, periosteum and aponeuroses which are more and more used in human surgery."

#### MEDICAL EXPERTS ON HOSPITAL PROBLEMS

In opening the recent annual conference of the American Hospital Association, the mayor of Detroit remarked that his city was producing automobiles at the rate of one every fifty-five seconds. At the end of the conference a member of the association remarked that in comparison with the rate at which ideas were poured forth in discussion the automobile industry of Detroit appeared to be a very slow affair indeed.

To some of the members of the association the prominence given to social service aspects of hospital work seemed, in advance of the meeting, disproportionate to the need; many easterners take social service departments of hospitals for granted. But the wisdom of bringing this subject once more into the foreground, even if there was no new development of theory or practice to report or propose, was shown when Mr. Udell, secretary of the Detroit Associated Charities, declared that not a single hospital in Detroit had yet inaugurated a social service department.

Dr. R. R. Ross of Buffalo urged the importance of making proper provision for the extensive use of salvarsan in hospitals, notwithstanding the cost of this modern treatment. The rule of the hospitals of the country in relation to syphilis appears to be in most instances to ignore the disease entirely. The representative of a large municipal hospital in the South told of the introduction of salvarsan in his institution, and of the subsequent adoption of a rule restricting this treatment to patients who were able to pay—a noteworthy example of a principle of administration which, in the opinion of many present in Detroit, directly contradicts the fundamental purpose and duty of organized medical charities. One man asked: "If the use of salvarsan is to be prohibited because of its cost, why perform expensive surgical operations for the relief of the poor?"

The report of the Committee on the Training of Nurses presented by Miss E. A. Anderson of Boston, together with a paper by Mrs. E. G.

Fournier of Canada, on the grading of nurses, led to the appointment of a committee of five which is to spend the coming year studying that subject. The grading of nurses is proposed not merely for the protection of the public, but also with a view to the formulation and adoption of definite standards of preliminary education, and more especially of professional training, for all classes of nurses and of attendants on the sick. The work of this committee is in line with the efforts which the New York State Education Department is making, and, in fact, with a movement for the systematization of nurse training which has now become almost national in scope. Upon the completion of the proposed report it will be interesting to compare the conclusions of this committee of hospital superintendents with those of educational authorities whose analysis of the subject proceeds from an entirely different starting-point.

A resolution unanimously adopted, provided for the appointment of a committee to study and report next year on the responsibility of hospitals for the prevention of disease. Not only will this subject be examined but an effort will be made to induce hospitals to enter into more active co-operation with the public health authorities, and perhaps to extend their own work into the field of medical sociology wherever it appears that the hospital is the agency best fitted to ascertain medical facts of social importance and to lead the way in the adoption of measures for the protection of the public health.

#### A Y. M. C. A. DIVISION FOR SOCIAL SERVICE

The student department of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association has established a Social Service division of its work with headquarters at 124 East 28th street, New York. Richard H. Edwards, formerly of Madison, Wis., has been engaged as senior secretary, and associated with him will be A. M. Trawick of Nashville, Tenn., and M. J. Exner, formerly of Shanghai, China.

What this new division will mean to the cause of social service in American college and university life is thus described by the student department: "It is a definite enlargement both of the message and the program of the student associations. The secretaries of the new divisions contemplate a production of text books for the study of social questions especially adapted to college and university students, an increase in the number of social service addresses to be given in educational institutions by leading social workers and others under association auspices, the formation of 'community interest' or 'social problems groups,' enlargement of voluntary social service in connection with established agencies



in college communities, the recruiting of a large number of college men for professional social service and the general incorporation into all association work of social service ideals and methods."

Mr. Edwards has been closely identified with the progressive group at the Wisconsin capital. For six years he has been the Congregational University pastor representing the Congregational Churches of Wisconsin at the university, and also a member of the staff of the Extension Division of the University as editor of *Studies in Social Problems*. He has established a series of seven studies in American Social Conditions for use in groups for the study of social problems following the method which he outlined in *THE SURVEY* in 1908.<sup>1</sup>

For three years Mr. Exner was director of physical education in Shanghai, China, where he entered upon a new program of hygiene and health for China. He will devote his attention primarily to a careful study of the problem of sex education in the colleges of North America. Mr. Trawick has been associated for two years with the student department in an effort to arouse college students to a study of the problems of Negro life in the South.

#### BAY STATE LAWS AND THE FAMILY

It is not often that social legislation is analyzed and classified from the point of its effect on the family. We are accustomed to thinking in terms of hours, of health and community welfare. This is what gave Joseph Lee's review of Massachusetts legislation at the National Conference of Charities and Correction last spring its distinction, for he tabbed up things "for and against the family." The way he did it may be suggestive to those in other states who are advising social legislation the coming winter. Said Mr. Lee:

"Some things have been done for and against the family. For the family, we have a state-wide housing agitation, two steps in which have been gained this year: (1) A permissive law allowing towns to adopt what housing regulations they think best—local option in this respect; (2) a model law for towns with a referendum—putting it in one pill as it were—so they can adopt it all at once. The advantage of this model law is that the towns will be likely to take it, so we shall have one law instead of three hundred. It is a way of saving the sanity of courts and architects.

"Against the family, there have been several bills for free feeding of school children, one of which passed the House and was defeated in the Senate only by a tie vote. Our playground referendum law, putting it up to towns, whether or not they will have a playground, has been ex-

tended from places of 10,000 down to those of 5,000 inhabitants. The Norfolk State Hospital for hopeful inebriates has received its first appropriation. It will, when completed, include also a thousand-acre colony for resigned inebriates—a storage proposition.

"One Boston school committee has made a concerted attack on bad teeth, the essential features of which are the exaltation of the toothbrush and concentrating on the first grade; the momentous time with teeth being the coming of the sixth-year molar.

"A resolution for the study of the minimum wage question was passed, but we still have tariff protection on goods and free trade in labor.

"On the most important proposition of all—who gets born—last year Governor Foss vetoed an increased appropriation for our second school for the feeble-minded. This year, however, provision was made for two new cottages, which will hold two hundred inmates and cut off by perhaps half that number the source of supply of the unhappy and unfit among future generations.

"The righteous have sworn the segregation of all the feeble-minded for 1925."

#### CRUSADING IN INDIANA

That a conference of social workers may be something more than an occasion for making and hearing speeches was shown the other day when members of the Indiana Housing Association, the only state housing association in the country, armed themselves with notebooks and pencils and went out to see the poorer sections of Logansport's residence quarters. Pencil and pad were for the purpose of jotting down names of landlords and street numbers of houses. A permanent record will be kept of both houses and landlords that were not living up to their jobs. What was seen was made the subject of discussion that evening, and so another city was awakened to a knowledge of conditions which it did not suppose existed.

This is but one of the ways in which campaigns for better housing are conducted in Indiana. Two representatives of the State Board of Health were on hand to pledge themselves and their associates to a movement which, they declared, would not stop until dark rooms and unsanitary dwellings had been forgotten and the tuberculosis caused by them had become a thing of the past. Indiana housing reformers are planning to write a new law on their statute books next winter and they have agreed among themselves that information about actual conditions is the best argument with which to convince the legislative mind. Thus it is that Indiana towns during the past few years have known something of the sensation of being gone over with a fine tooth comb.

It was not unfitting that in a year when the state Conference of Charities and Correction,

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, October 17, 1908, p. 103.



meeting at the same time and place, was to be presided over by a woman, the burden of the discussion should have been, better care for the state's wards. Emma Lee Elam, president, stood forth as a strong advocate of special homes for dependent children. Governor Marshall was present during the arguments for colony care of the insane, and it was not without a note of triumph that Amos W. Butler later read a telegram from the governor announcing that the State Board of Finance had made available a conditional appropriation passed by the last general assembly and that this action definitely assured a colony for insane patients in Indiana. The first one will be opened in connection with the Eastern Hospital for the Insane at Richmond, option on the land being already taken.

How to co-operate with state officers, shown by the presence of representatives of the Board of Health and the governor, was further exemplified when Senator Netterville, chairman of the legislative commission on a state farm, pledged his support to the attempt to establish a penal farm in Indiana.

Foes and friends of "funds for parents" acts did not shrink from counting hands to determine which side was in the majority. At a meeting of the State Children's Bureau arguments pro and con were listened to and a ballot was called resulting in 9 affirmative and 12 negative votes on the question whether such a policy should be favored.

A state playground commission was formed to promote the playground propaganda throughout Indiana. This commission will have as one of its duties distribution of literature issued in connection with an extension course in social work now being prepared by Prof. U. G. Weatherly, of Indiana University.

One trend of opinion was illustrated when Alexander Johnson, general secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, who has consistently opposed the Indiana plan of sterilizing criminals and defectives, because he believes its tendencies are immoral and degrading, declared that he had now come to support that policy so far as it applies to the feeble-minded. Recent investigations, he said, had disclosed the existence of such an enormous number of mental defectives that with all the dangerous possibilities of sterilization he could see no other practicable way to stem the tide of degeneracy.

#### AVONDALE, A MILL VILLAGE

In the village of Avondale, Ala., a suburb of the Birmingham district which closely adjoins an old-style cotton mill owned and operated by former Governor B. B. Comer, regenerative processes have been going on for several months.

Shortly after the Birmingham number of *THE SURVEY*<sup>1</sup> came out, with its description of unsuitable moral conditions in the mill neighborhoods, the Wesley House Association and the mill management took active steps to correct some of the more obvious evils. The home mission societies of the Methodist church maintain this settlement, which was removed from its old location near Elyton, where its work did not have wide scope, to the mill village. Mr. Comer gave the association two houses, \$50 per month and various perquisites. A nursery, kindergarten, cooking and sewing circles and social clubs for boys and girls have been established. In one quarter of the mill village, much work has been done where there existed the row of houses known as "Hell's Half Acre." Here more than one young girl, broken down from mill work, has found disastrous end.

In addition to the incoming of Wesley house, the latest step is a plan to establish a co-operative boarding house for girls and young women on the mill property. The Tennessee Coal, Iron and Railroad Company has employed two people to carry on social service activities at their mining camps on Red Mountain and in the coal fields.

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### THE PITTSBURGH UNDER WORLD AT BAY

RABBI RUDOLPH I. COFFEE  
Member Morals Efficiency Commission, Pittsburgh

Within the past six months, Pittsburgh has emerged from a moral crusade with gratifying results. The first week in May the twelve members of the Morals Efficiency Commission, appointed by Mayor William A. Magee, took office and straightway planned for the betterment of local conditions. To quote from the evidence produced at the trial of John M. Morin, director of public safety, approximately \$1,700,000 was the price of protection said to have been paid by illegal resorts of all kinds, and 197 disorderly houses had been opened in the past three years. These were in addition to eighty-four old houses. Scattered in various parts of the city, many of them were in the very heart of crowded residential sections. The sale of liquor was open and all sorts of amusements were conducted.

The members of the commission are practically unanimous in believing that the only solution is elimination. They feel, however, that the time is not yet ripe for this, and so the goal has become ultimate elimination by gradual restriction. The commission has no direct power, but the police department has thus far carried out

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY* for January 6, 1912.



every suggestion. These recommendations to the police have been along two lines. The commission holds that the way to eradicate prostitution is to destroy its profits and shut off its sources of supply. By driving out the exploiters of the unfortunate women and by protecting the young from contamination it is believed the illicit traffic will soon be lessened. To hasten this, many humane repressive measures have been enforced by the police. Liquor has been banished from all resorts, music is no more heard, dances and shows are of the past, clandestine places are raided as fast as they are found, the masher and street walker exist only at their peril, exorbitant profits of real estate owners, who rent their property for immoral purposes, are undergoing a severe shrinkage. The cafés of the city have been cleared of minors, and hotels no longer receive couples without baggage.

In the second place, without legally recognizing the illicit traffic, a rigid medical inspection has been instituted. Every house must furnish weekly a medical certificate from each inmate, stating that a microscopic test has been made by a reputable physician. There are no favored doctors, and severe sanitary rules have been prescribed for every house. The inmates have cooperated heartily in these recommendations, understanding their value. Peddlers and agents are denied admission, and the women may purchase wherever they wish. They are urged to open individual bank accounts, and promised aid if they desire to leave their surroundings and reform. Some have already done so, and many have returned to their former homes. A serious difficulty facing the commission is the effort to find places for those desiring to lead honorable lives.

As a result of this campaign, at the end of six months, about 150 houses have been permanently closed. The business is no longer profitable, and others are closing voluntarily, one having been closed by the sheriff, the first instance of such a thing in this county. Over twenty streets have been cleansed entirely, including Colwell Street, infamous for fifty years, as well as Poplar Alley and Cherry Alley, where the houses were supposed to enjoy special political protection. Every known assignation house has been blotted out, and efforts are now progressing to prevent a return to the loose and immoral era of the past.

Such drastic measures could not have been put into operation without incurring the wrath of the underworld. The parties engaged in this nefarious traffic bided their time, and raised a great cry when Rose Drew (an assumed name) was taken from a disorderly house and sent by the commission to the Home of the Good Shepherd. Some newspapers aided the

agitation, lawyers were engaged and a writ of habeas corpus was made returnable on October 5. The girl was brought into court, and told the judge she was of age and very willingly went to the home, whereupon the case was dismissed. A police captain that morning said that in his twenty years' experience he had never seen so many denizens of the lower world in court at one time. Baffled in this encounter, they came before City Council and petitioned that the commission be abolished because of its illegal use of authority. After an afternoon of testimony, their petition was cast aside, and the commission will now continue its activities. This opposition quickly cemented the forces for good in the city and they hastened to the support of the commission. The Pittsburgh ministers, by a unanimous vote, indorsed the work, and sent a special committee to appear before council.

After all, what has been done is purely remedial. The aim of all legislation should be to prevent this evil. Therefore, the commission aims to direct the community away from this source of corruption. It seeks to introduce such instruction in the school course as will inform growing children of the dangers of this evil. The active support of Pittsburgh's ministers has been enlisted, and this winter it is hoped that legislation from Harrisburg will compel a doctor's certificate before marriage may be solemnized.

## PAY ROLLS AND PROFITS

MARY W. DEWSON

Secretary Massachusetts Commission on  
Minimum Wage Boards

"Interstate competition makes a local minimum wage law impractical. It places an unfair handicap on the local manufacturer. If he must pay more for his labor than his competitors he will be forced out of business or to move into another state, where he will be unhampered." So, last winter, argued the opponents to the plans of the Massachusetts Commission on Minimum Wage Boards.

There are familiar answers to this argument. Higher pay to those who earn starvation wages would mean more efficient workers, and any state gains through the loss of industries which exploit their workers to such an extent. True answers, but the kind of generalizations from which a clever attorney can take the starch, even though the truth remains. But there is one irrefutable reply. Today, if it were but known, rival employers in a common labor market do not pay the same price for their labor, and the man who pays on the higher scale is not forced out of business.

Employers assume that they pay the same. Jenkins says that he pays from \$4 to \$8 for his



candy workers and Jones says that he pays from \$4 to \$8 for his. In fact, they may pay for each ten of their girls as follows:

JENKINS'S PAYROLL.			JONES'S PAYROLL.		
No. of girls.	Weekly pay.	Total amt. paid.	No. of girls.	Weekly pay.	Total amt. paid.
1	\$4	\$4	4	\$4	\$16
1	\$5	\$5	2	\$5	\$10
2	\$6	\$12	2	\$6	\$12
2	\$7	\$14	1	\$7	\$7
4	\$8	\$32	1	\$8	\$8
10	—	\$67	10	—	\$53

It is not quite clear why Jenkins pays higher wages. It is a question whether he himself is aware that he does. From my experience an employer rarely knows how many employes he has at each rate. He is hazy as to what the individual earns. One employer confessed that he knew that Jennie and Annie were paid \$8 a week and that until he looked into it he thought that \$8 was the usual pay. In fact, Jennie and Annie were his two old star hands, and the rest received various amounts less than \$8. Occasionally an employer was found who had studied his payroll and who paid higher wages because he thought it was good business. There were others who seemed consciously to grind down their help, either to keep the business afloat by making up from the pay of the workers what was lost by poor management or to fatten profits at the expense of the workers. All of the employers knew their total labor cost, but the question of the individual's wages was left to the under man who had charge of the help.

The books of fifty-seven candy factories, laundries, and retail stores were studied by the investigators of the commission, and the result showed that no principle nor tendency, either according to the size of the establishments, their location, or the class of trade to which they catered underlay the variations in wage scales. For two instances among many, a factory that made a cheaper grade of candy paid higher wages than its neighbor, which received a better rate for its product; and a department store in a small city paid higher wages than many Boston stores. In the laundries were similar discrepancies. Every employer seemed to pay for his labor what he thought "it was worth," a mysterious term that no employer was able to elucidate.

The report of the commission gives separately the wage scale of each of the fifty-seven establishments. The investigators took from the books the entire amount of the earnings of each and every woman during the previous fifty-two weeks. They showed, for example, that out of every hundred women in candy factory No. 5, 46.9 earned on the average throughout the past year less than \$4 a week; 21.9 women, between \$4 and \$5; 18.7 women earned more than \$5, but less than \$6, and the remaining 3.1 women earned \$8 or over. But in competing candy factory No. 4 out of every hundred women only 16.1 were

paid on the average throughout that year less than \$4 a week (a much better showing than in factory No. 5); 36.7 women earned between \$4 and \$5; 20.9 women earned more than \$5 but less than \$6; 10.8 women earned between \$6 and \$7; 8.8 women between \$7 and \$8; and 7.7 women \$8 or over (again a much better showing than in No. 5, where none were paid between \$7 and \$8, and only 3.1 over \$8).

Six of the big Boston department stores showed significant difference in wage scales:

PER CENT OF WOMEN EMPLOYED.	EARNINGS			
	Under \$4.	From \$4 to \$5.99.	From \$6 to \$7.99.	\$8 and over.
Boston Store.				
No. 1.	1.0	18.6	22.7	57.7
No. 2.	10.1	4.3	78.1	17.5
No. 3.	22.0	20.4	30.9	26.7
No. 4.	4.8	31.9	34.5	28.8
No. 5.	24.2	24.7	22	29.1
No. 6.	14.8	51.7	20.5	13

There is not room to give typical figures from the laundries. They also make plain that the main factor in the pay roll of the individual establishment is not the labor market.

To go back to the case of Jenkins and Jones, if a minimum wage of \$6 was established in their state it would add to Jenkins's payroll at the rate of \$3 a week for every ten women employed, and to Jones's at the rate of \$10 a week. In other words, Jenkins would have to increase his pay roll 4 per cent and Jones 19 per cent. Jenkins would not go out of business or leave the state. Would Jones? But, on the other hand, what is the matter with Jones that he cannot make money under a minimum wage law when Jenkins can? Is it the cost of labor? Apparently not. Is it bad management or something else that has nothing to do with wages except in so far as wages affect efficiency?

## OCTAVIA HILL

C. S. LOCH<sup>1</sup>

Secretary London Charity Organisation Society

To many who knew her the death of Octavia Hill is like the withdrawal of a light in the path of their daily life. A great faith possessed her, a full assurance that the good and courageous in our nature, if we give it ample space in our hearts and true recognition by our acts and deeds, will justify itself in fact. Many say this as a half-belief or expect that it should be assumed. With her it was real, and one could hardly be in her presence without feeling it. In this way she was to many as a light, a strong personality, a rare and beautiful character, moved by deep sympathy and guided by a very direct and discerning sagacity.

What she did in the commencement of her work in "dealing with house property," as people now say, she did by this simple directness. The problem was the dirty house, the dirty and ir-

<sup>1</sup>Reprinted from the *London Charity Organisation Review* for September.



regular tenant, arrears of rent, insanitation and general deterioration. She solved it, not by trying to get sanitary and other laws enforced or by taking partial action of some kind, but by dealing with all parts of the difficulty together. With Ruskin's help in the first instance, she raised the money to purchase some dirty and dilapidated houses and made herself their landlady and thus mistress of the whole position. She could then by degrees introduce the many little arrangements that bettered the home life, all settled in detail, directly, family by family, and thus in the process, not of building a new house but of adapting and improving an old one; another process went on, not of finding new tenants for reformed houses but of adapting and adjusting the family life of the tenant to the changes of the gradually altered tenement. And this directness of insight and action she applied to many schemes and proposals. What progress meant among the poor and very poor her experience had taught her. She knew the conditions of it. If a scheme would not draw out the strength of the people it was clearly dubitable and was probably bad. That was the final test. Would the poor prosper the better for it, be more independent, better able to judge of life and its responsibilities—in a word, be better housekeepers and so better citizens?

She had begun to work early in life. She knew that duty was exacting, and that only through the fulfilment of duty could any advance be made. She knew that life could not be satisfied with bread alone, that it was many-sided, and that progress could only come by a recognition of this. The man, the wife, and the children, their dwelling, their habits, and their pleasures must move up together. Not a single line, but the net of duty must draw them to a better and completer life. When she became rent-collector and landlady, the children, she saw, wanted places in which to play, the workman and his wife a clean home and, as far as might be, some place or park to which he and his family might resort. So, as she says in one of her books published long since, as the owner of houses in a court which she was making better-mannered, she wanted the children to play real games and find pleasure in something more than the mere shouting of silly and unmeaning and sometimes ill-meaning words. And for children and grown-up alike she wished other thoughts and desires than the familiar thoughts and desires of poor London courts. Thus many and many a party of tenants went down into the country for the day and received the hospitality of her friends, and thus had an outing in good humor and pleasure without resort to public-houses. And the large open space which we call the country did its part of purification by its gift of new thoughts and the suggestion of new pos-

sibilities. If any of our readers have read so old a book as *Tom Brown at Oxford*, written by Miss Hill's friend, Tom Hughes, they will remember that the hero by his new interests in London was drawn into helping to take charge of complex parties of men and women such as these. And for the aged she wanted quiet corners close at hand.

Open spaces such as she desired the public might, she thought, provide by voluntary contributions or, especially in the case of very large areas, such, for instance, as the Epping Forest, by voluntary contributions in part, in part by grants from local municipal authorities. All shared alike in the benefits of this spending, and public help was thus well justified; and in the acquisition of large areas that would be of service to large masses of Londoners she and those who worked with her frequently suggested this distribution of the burden of purchase. But though open spaces were so great a boon and almost a necessity, first of all came duty. The punctual payment of rent, the acceptance of the obligations of life, and cleanliness were the necessary beginnings of a better civilization.

Thus out of the first houses and the suggestions that came to her in their management, all the rest followed. Very much, as I believe, from her original initiation city cemeteries became gardens, and large spaces—field and heath and parklike stretches of land—were secured to the public use, where thousands go now on a holiday. In the same spirit she urged the preservation of commons and pathways, and then the gift or purchase of places of natural beauty and houses of old and beautiful structure, to be held in trust lest the careless and crowding generations of the future might forget and sacrifice to private gain or to the casual needs of the passing day what should be kept for the general good forever.

In this large and ample spirit she suggested her great scheme of a circle of open spaces all around London, sward and trees, where one could have the pleasure of walking on grass under the lights and shadows of leafage. Such a scheme at one time, she thought, the London County Council might have carried out. Akin to it was the scheme which she had very much at heart during the past year and more, the preservation of the banks of the Wandle, the beautiful stream which runs from Carshalton and Beddington to Merton and Mitcham and Wimbledon—the beautiful stream sullied and spoilt, of the higher waters of which Ruskin wrote in 1870 in the introduction of *The Crown of Wild Olives*:

"No clearer or diviner waters ever sang with constant lips of the hand which 'giveth rain from heaven'; no pasture ever lightened the spring-time with more passionate blossoming; no



sweeter homes ever hallowed the heart of the passer-by with their pride of peaceful gladness—fain hidden yet full confessed.”

In these waters, he says, the foulness of street and house, heaps of dust and slime and broken shards of old metal and rags of putrid clothes had been thrown, and no one cared. “Half-a-dozen men with one day’s work could cleanse these pools and trim the flowers about their banks and make every breath of summer air above them rich with cool balm, and every glittering wave medicinal, as if it ran troubled only by angels from the porch of Bethesda. But that day’s work is never given, nor, I suppose, will be; nor will any joy be possible to heart of man for evermore about these wells of English water.”

But days of work have now been given, and change has already been made in the lower waters of the Wandle. Fields and frontages on this stream, in its course nearer to London, have, through the advocacy of Miss Hill and her friends, some been given, some purchased, so that the stream is giving to the large population which is now so close to its banks something of the pleasure of earlier years—the pleasure of clean gliding water and green meadows and trees. There the children bathe and play, and what we call “the country” lies before all who may come to it for the joy “possible to the heart of man.” Perhaps there could be no better memorial of Octavia Hill than the restitution of the Wandle, the Wandle running clear in open meadows from Carshalton down to Wimbledon. One day we remember last summer when, with the map of the river before her, she explained to us as we sat under the trees what pieces of land were purchased or given, what was purchasable, what was first of all desired, and so on, with a childlike pleasure in every circumstance, as if, from having seen how people were enjoying the banks and fields already open to them, she saw that a multitude would enjoy them in the future, sitting and wandering and playing there.

Miss Hill’s method of caring for the dwellings of the poor—house and tenant together—has been widely adopted. She became the trusted rent-collector and adviser of the Ecclesiastical Commission in regard to their property in South London, and her system will be continued by the commission, who are placing its administration in the hands of those who were trained by her and worked under her there. The thought that her work would have this continuity and permanence was a very great satisfaction and relief to her. In Edinburgh the municipality built dwellings and at first had them managed by lady collectors on Miss Hill’s lines. Then they reverted to the collection of rents by the usual collectors. But the outcome was a triumph for

her method. So great was the confusion and the maltreatment of the property by the tenants that the lady collectors were invited to return to their work, the efficiency of which is now fully acknowledged. At the last Charity Organisation conference—that at Manchester—Mr. Nettlefold, discussing the question of dwellings as a past member of the Birmingham Municipal Council, fully accepted and strongly advocated the view that the normal method of advance should be to consider tenant and tenement together; not to make great and expensive clearances, but to require of owners certain definite and reasonable sanitary alterations and the preservation of the house in good and tenable repair. This was the method now accepted in Birmingham, and it was justified on the score both of public health and of public economy. And to mention one other instance, a short time ago Miss Hill’s advice was asked in regard to some house property which had reverted to the owner at the end of a long lease. It had been terribly neglected and misused, but it had been substantially built. It was proposed to clear the site and build new dwellings, a costly and doubtful investment, especially in view of the lessened value of much house property in London; and she advised what years before she herself had done in Marylebone. The property accordingly was repaired and made sanitary and “managed.” This proved to be the truer reform. No large new dwellings were erected to house new residents at higher rates, but the people on the spot stepped into the repaired and reorganized buildings.

The first Artisans’ Dwelling Act was very largely promoted by the Charity Organisation Society, in which she was an active worker and of which she has always been a whole-hearted supporter. That act first gave effective powers for dealing with congested areas of bad dwellings. Its principles have since been expanded and its methods simplified. It placed a new and, as it turned out, a costly instrument in the hands of the local authority, and it has been widely applied. Clearance of itself must to some extent be a benefit. It always at least necessitates the break-up of old courts and the broadening and realignment of streets. Then follows usually the building of large high dwellings which supersede the small houses of an older date. But this process, it is found, does not supply the needs of the local people. They disperse while the clearances are made and the new buildings erected. A new population gathers to tenant the new dwellings and take advantage of the improvements. Miss Hill saw this process of large and indiscriminate clearance go on with very much regret. She was always for more constant, continuous, and less wholesale and compulsory changes. Her recognition of the unity of the



life of the house and the tenant drew her to other methods. But that was not the only question. An immense advance in the housing of the poorer classes in London had been made by the industrial building societies or companies, which had been able to raise and use a considerable capital for the purpose. They bought their land and built their dwellings in the open market as ordinary traders. Similarly private persons with a fair prospect of a normal return for their money bought bad houses and repaired them and managed them on her lines. The advent of the municipality in the field greatly altered these conditions. They cleared and built at the cost of the rates. The charges for the land were written down to an estimated cost at artisans' dwelling values, and the rigid conditions of the market and the strict requirements of a management that would produce a profit on the total outlay were set aside. With such a policy no independent agency could compete. The companies ceased to raise capital and to extend, and private individuals found investment on the terms of improvement less and less profitable, and eventually practically unproductive. Statutory action had brought with it an unforeseen reaction, as often happens. The use of the public rates as capital had stopped the use of that large and easily available capital which lay in the hands of the vast body of private individuals. Orderly, businesslike progress, in which the greatest number of people would have had a direct and abiding personal interest, was checked. One chief condition of Miss Hill's method was overlooked and lost, personal interest and management joined to an adherence to the rules of private business. One wonders what might have happened if the County Council had understood Miss Hill's policy and slowly and persistently promoted it. How much higher would have been the civilization of London now, how much fewer would have been its lofty dwellings, how much fewer would have been its black spots? It was, so it seems to me, a great chance in great measure lost, a great failure in insight and intelligence on the part of our public authorities. The results we see in the London of today.

In this way, then, the position has developed in regard to the dwellings of the poor. The wisdom of Miss Hill's policy has been proved over and over again. And recently those who followed her, with the help of herself and her friends, have been applying her plans in certain bad districts with marked results. Some have taken houses in deteriorating and retrograde areas, and are thus raising the level of life and its obligations in them; and no sooner is the business once undertaken than, as she found in Marylebone, one task leads to another, the provision of open spaces, the stoppage of the illegal use of public-houses, the purgation, if it be pos-

sible, of the "furnished rooms," the starting of homely clubs—all the tasks indeed by the fulfilment of which the upward movement to self-restraint and civilization may make its way. And so we would go on, as she would have done, to strengthen the best elements in the area, enforce and help forward the best local opinion, give the good and respectable the best chance of asserting themselves, and so sift out, if it may be, the dirt and the vice and the pollution, and give good soil and opportunity for the stronger life and its influences to grow and to spread out.

Miss Hill had the ability, as was once said of her, of a first-rate man of business. She had the management of large properties and many banking accounts. Her knowledge of rates and rate collection and the variations of local administration in that department was surprisingly wide and exact. She was very thoughtful and considerate, and, as I have said, direct in her methods. She learnt the facts for herself, and aided by a strong memory and much knowledge of the human nature with which in her life she had been so constantly dealing, her rightness of judgment and her power of leadership were extraordinary, talents very finely perfected and very nobly applied. She lived a very active life, but she lived very quietly. She wrote for the Charity Organisation Society a charming occasional paper on the management of the homes of the poor; and I think that her description of the superintending lady collector might almost apply to herself.

"One needs," she said, "a certain quiet temper suitable for one whose duty is management. . . . The manager should be always thinking what will make the house and people better and yet be quite indifferent to mere popularity. She must be ready to do stern things, because she sees beyond them to the blessings they will bring.

"In fact, whatever would make a lady a wise head of a house will help to make her a wise head of houses. . . .

"It is on this wise government by one lady as head that all the work depends."

Her sympathy was a deep, not a superficial, sympathy. The still waters ran deep. But how intense was her feeling, her words now and then would vibrate and flash to you, as once when she was reading a paper and referred to the maxim of the Charity Organisation Society that the poor should be thoroughly helped. "A very difficult business," so began the phrase, from which an intensity of meaning seemed to pass out; "a very difficult business which calls for all the best powers of heart and soul and head." Such to her was the obligation of social service in charity organization. All her qualities, indeed, and all her endeavors, were lit up, so it always seemed to me, by her splendid faith in goodness and courage.



## THE TREND OF THINGS

### LEADERS IN THE MONTH'S MAGAZINES

**THROUGH THE WINDOWS OF DESTINY: HOW I VISUALIZED MY LIFE WORK.** By Kate Barnard. *Good Housekeeping*. Easily the most important article of the month in the social field. An inspired and simple story by a woman who, as commissioner of charities in Oklahoma, has proven herself a force for moral and material betterment in the West.

**THE DRAMA OF WAGES.** By Mary Field. *American Magazine*. A series of pictures from real life, showing, among other things, what an increase in wages means in the satisfaction of individual ideals, great or small, and what the lower levels of wages mean in individual degradation.

**CLIMBING OUT THROUGH MUSIC.** By Constance D. Leupp. *Outlook*.—How the Music School Settlement of New York has set itself the task of bringing back to the people the gift given by "King Admetus' shepherd," but long since stolen by the "kings of the earth."

**YOU AND GRADE CROSSINGS.** By Edward Lyell Fox. *Pearson's*. Puts the blame for the fact that "because an inconceivable number of railroads cross a grade in this country, there is Death," on the apathy of a public that does not bolster up the hands of state and interstate railroad commissions in making regulations that would cut the railroad accident rate one-fifth.

**INDUSTRIAL WAR.** By Hugh H. Lusk. *Forum*. The remedy for this civil warfare is, thinks this former New Zealand legislator, not the minimum wage, but labor co-partnership by law, a remedy much discussed in England, but appearing now for the first time in an American periodical.

**THE NEARLY TRUE STORY OF LITTLE JOE.** By H. J. Smith. *Metropolitan*. A delightful piece of propaganda for manual training, especially that form of manual training installed in the Gary schools by a "grim-mouthed young man named William A. Wirt," whose appearance belied his nature as, in the literal sense, a "pedagogue."

**THE BATTLE LINE OF LABOR.** By Samuel P. Orth. *World's Work*. How lines are drawn in warfare which is fought at the public's expense. Later articles promise to show, not how the conflict can be ended, for this the writer deems impossible, but how the public can umpire the game and in self-protection impose fines and penalties on those who break the rules it lays down.

**LLOYD-GEORGE'S ENGLAND.** By Clarence Poe. *World's Work*. Not only plans and principles, but some results of social legislation in England, vividly told.

**SANITARY AUTHORITIES AND THE INSURANCE ACT.** By B. G. Bannington. *Westminster Review* (October). The medical provisions of the British Act, which are designed to "render disease less dangerous, health more perfect, life more vigorous and death more remote."

**IS THE NEGRO HAVING A FAIR CHANCE?** By Booker T. Washington. *Century*. Weighing unequal laws and justice by no means impartial against greater economic opportunity, Mr. Washington holds that the Negro is better off in America than in other countries; and in the South, where there is a "job looking for each man," than in the North, where two or three men are after each job.

"WE know," says Kate Barnard in *Good Housekeeping*, "that the present treatment of the criminal problem is a failure from its conception, and will continue to be. It is as if we had about us a noisome marsh, bubbling up from the bottom with all manner of foul miasma and spreading contagion throughout the land. But we make no attempt to drain the marsh; we are content with trying to skim off the bubbles and scum as they rapidly rise to the surface."

\* \* \*

"THE essentially weak feature of a court, or a commission, of arbitration," argues Mr. Lusk, writing on Industrial War in the *Forum*, "must always be that it is a tribunal of opinion. If its members belong to one part of the community they will necessarily, and with perfect sincerity, lean to the opinions of the class to which they belong; and all experience has shown that the class of a majority of the court or commission will not be that of the workers."

"It is very likely that the idea of an arbitration court for the settlement of industrial disputes in England has been imported from New Zealand or Australia, where the idea has been tried for some time. If this is the case, it would seem to show that the experience of that part of the world has been misunderstood. In New Zealand, it is true, the system of arbitration by a court, which is so far compulsory that it applies to all unions, whether of workers or employers, that have voluntarily accepted it by registration under the statute, has been in force for more than sixteen years, with excellent results. In Australia, on the other hand, where the law was made compulsory in its application to all industrial bodies, without reference to their acceptance of its provisions, it has been at least comparatively a failure. Strikes and lock-outs have been forbidden in Australia for the last ten years under severe pains and penalties, and yet there have been serious strikes, especially of coal miners, every two or three years. The reason given in each case for the defiance of the law has been the want of confidence of the workers in the impartiality of the court. How far this has been warranted may be questioned; the fact that it exists is certain, and has proved fatal to the system, as an adequate cure for the evil. The experience of Australia would certainly be repeated on a larger and if possible a more dangerous scale, either in England or America."

\* \* \*

THE Music School Settlement has its own plan to bring about universal disarmament. So writes Constance D. Leupp in the *Outlook*:

As you watch and listen, you find that you are growing strangely excited and moved—moved as you have never been by the masterly touch of professional talent. It is not merely because these young people play classical music with such astonishing ability and appreciation; their poise and their response to the masterpiece they are interpret-



ing sits oddly with their manifestly normal youth. But the significance of Sunday mornings at the Music School Settlement goes far beyond that. Your imagination is caught and held captive as you begin to notice the individual performers and the national traits they display, for a dozen races have contributed to the able group before you; here, if anywhere, is the love-feast of the nations of the world. . . .

You note with pride that the girl *Concertmeister* is unmistakably an American. Behind her sits a blue-eyed, flaxen-haired boy from the plains of Saxony; there are two Russian 'cellists, a boy and a girl, while among the second violins is a Pole, next an Austrian, then an Italian and a Bohemian. Whatever may prevail outside, no race antagonism finds its way into the school.

\* \* \*

**I**N the contrast of two related families Mary Field, in the *American Magazine*, portrays what a few dollars more or less mean. Of a young Italian woman she asks:

"And what did you do with the three-dollar raise?"

"Well, sir, I chucked them three dollars extra in the bank! Ain't I seen how sickness comes on, and how mens is laid off, and how you starve and worry! I'm used to livin' on twelve dollars in four little rooms, but say, I ain't used to no bank account!"

It was not alone for herself that Mrs. Petroni spoke but for large numbers of her people who, like herself, had just come out of great tribulation. In the first months and even years of a higher wage, excessive, niggardly thrift often makes inroads into real economy, and a foreshortened vision distorts future value.

"What does your father get?"

"Say, he's a cheap skate for fair! Don't get but eight, nine dollars a week. You can't raise your American kids on that! Come over to ma's, across the street."

"Ma" was home, stirring a macaroni soup. Wages! There was the whole story in contrast! In place of the bareness and order of Mrs. Petroni's was the filth, the accumulation, the chaos of Mrs. Torsetti's. A smell, thick, indescribable, drenched the place. A litter of children swarmed over the floor.

"Oh, for the land's sake, mother," scolded the daughter, "get something decent to eat!" Then turning to me: "They raises Italian kids on macaroni and sour wine. I have meat and milk. It's healthier! Saves on the doctor!"

Mrs. Petroni, with the privilege of a married daughter, scolded on. "For Heaven's sake, ma, why don't you wash yourself up! You look fierce! And the kids! My God!"

Mrs. Torsetti, who had remained silent, stirring her soup like an uncanny old witch, suddenly burst into a volcano of language. "She says how she can keep clean without

soap!" interpreted the daughter with a hard, bitter laugh. "She says folks must wash themselves with money. That it ain't brooms you sweep with, it's money. That's no joke!"

The ancient Mrs. Torsetti ended the tirade with a snivel and wiped her eyes and nose on her skirt and the soup spoon.

"Lord! Come! Don't stay here!" Mrs. Petroni rushed to the door. "It makes me sick, it does, and yet what you going to do with no money!"

Outside on the street she rattled on, her dark eyes ablaze with indignant passion. "They say that Italian girls are goin' to the bad in America! Do you wonder! In Italy girls and fellers marry when they're young. In this here country, a feller's got to wait till his wages is good and steady. And what's a girl goin' to do meantime? Set in a punk house like that without pleasures, or marry someone your father says and get a lot of kids like I done to get out of it! American streets is better'n Italian houses, believe me!"

\* \* \*

**B**OOKER T. WASHINGTON, in the *Century*, finds a black republic in some respects more civilized than a white. To quote:

In the island of Jamaica there are about 15,000 white people and 600,000 black people, but of the "race problem," in regard to which there is much agitation in this country, one hears almost nothing there. Jamaica has neither mobs, race riots, lynchings, nor burnings, such as disgrace our civilization. In that country there is likewise no bitterness between white man and black man. One reason for this is that the laws are conceived and executed with exact and absolute justice, without regard to race or color.

Reduced to its lowest terms, the fact is that a large part of our racial troubles in the United States grow out of some attempt to pass and execute a law that will make and keep one man superior to another, whether he is intrinsically superior or not. No greater harm can be done to any group of people than to let them feel that a statutory enactment can keep them superior to anybody else.

\* \* \*

**I**N the *Metropolitan* H. J. Smith tells the "nearly true story" of Little Joe's first year in school. It is the story of the vocational training system at Gary which bids fair to give that town a greater claim on public recognition than the steel mills or the drama of its growth. By the end of six months Mr. Smith records that:

J. Negoski, Jr., stood nil in reading, next to nil in arithmetic, but one hundred per cent plus in manual training. He had made three boxes and begun a chair. A few months more, and Joe's chairs were pronounced perfect. In all else, as regretfully recorded, he lagged; and yet they could see



that, bit by bit, as his sleeping mind awakened in the warmth of something it liked, it absorbed other things, too. Clear enough that from the viewpoint, of Gary education, Little Joe would come out an educated boy. That is, there would be one thing he could do supremely well; while as to the other things, he would have enough of them to get along with. In fine, he would be as good as any of us B. A. folks, and maybe better.

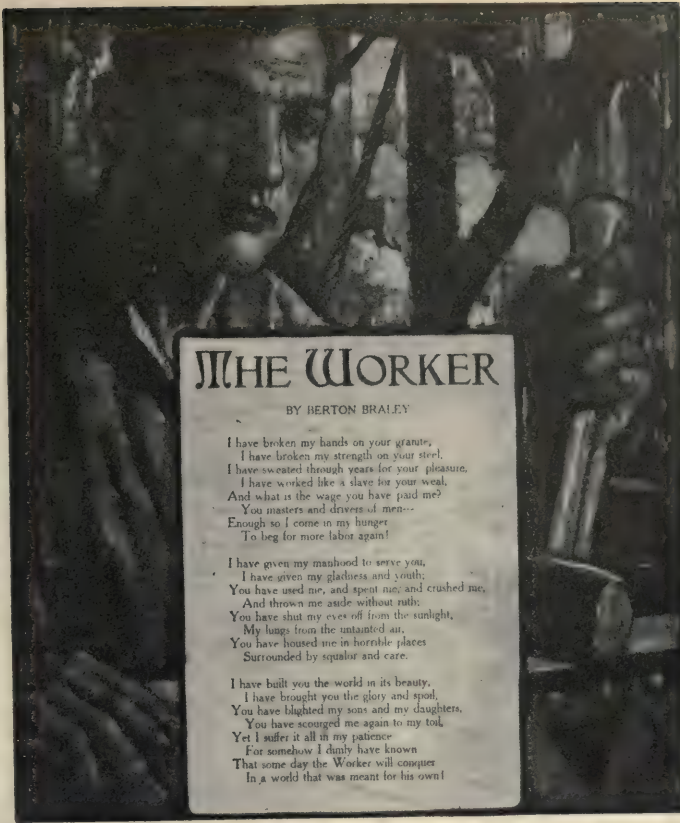
Gradually a great change came over Little Joe. At home he was no longer under his mother's feet or on his father's nerves. A placid light came into his eyes. Big Joe mentioned this to Mama, and noticed too the way the boy's body was filling out. Sometimes of an evening Steven, whose nature was jovial and uncreative, would find Little Joe drawing on paper. One night after Joe had gone to bed Steven gathered up the paper and saw a queer combination of lines, not unlike a rough design for a school desk.

\* \* \*

ON successive evenings during the political campaign THE SURVEY was cited before great audiences as non-partisan evidence. At one meeting the presidential candidate on one national ticket was the speaker—Theodore Roosevelt, and at the next the vice-presidential candidate on another—Governor Thomas R. Marshall.

\* \* \*

BOYS' LIFE has been purchased by the Boy Scouts of America and has become their national organ under the name of the *Boy Scouts' Magazine*. Among the contributing editors are Ernest Thompson Seton, Daniel Carter Beard, Gifford Pinchot and Theodore Roosevelt—all scouts. The address is the headquarters of the Boy Scouts, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York.



Painted by Charles A. Winter for the Coming Nation.

## THE WORKER

BY BERTON BRALEY

I have broken my hands on your granite,  
I have broken my strength on your steel,  
I have sweated through years for your pleasure,  
I have worked like a slave for your wealth,  
And what is the wage you have paid me?  
You masters and drivers of men—  
Enough so I come in my hunger  
To beg for more labor again!

I have given my manhood to serve you,  
I have given my gladness and youth;  
You have used me, and spent me; and crushed me,  
And thrown me aside without ruth;  
You have shut my eyes off from the sunlight,  
My lungs from the untainted air,  
You have housed me in horrible places  
Surrounded by squalor and care.

I have built you the world in its beauty,  
I have brought you the glory and spoil,  
You have blighted my sons and my daughters,  
You have scourged me again to my toil,  
Yet I suffer it all in my patience,  
For somehow I duly have known  
That some day the Worker will conquer  
In a world that was meant for his own!

"YOU yourself," says Pearson's in summarizing E. L. Fox's article on grade crossings, "you yourself are responsible for the grade crossings which needlessly kill one thousand people a year and endanger your own life every time you cross a railroad track. You are responsible. More than 20 per cent of railroad accidents are due to grade crossings. You are responsible. Engineers can plan safe crossings before tracks are laid. They do not do it because it would cost money to do it. They will not do it until public opinion makes them do it. Harmful conditions exist only because of public thoughtlessness. Most railroad commissions have no authority in the matter of grade crossings. Here's why: 'The matter of grade crossings has never been discussed in any way to attract public attention.'"

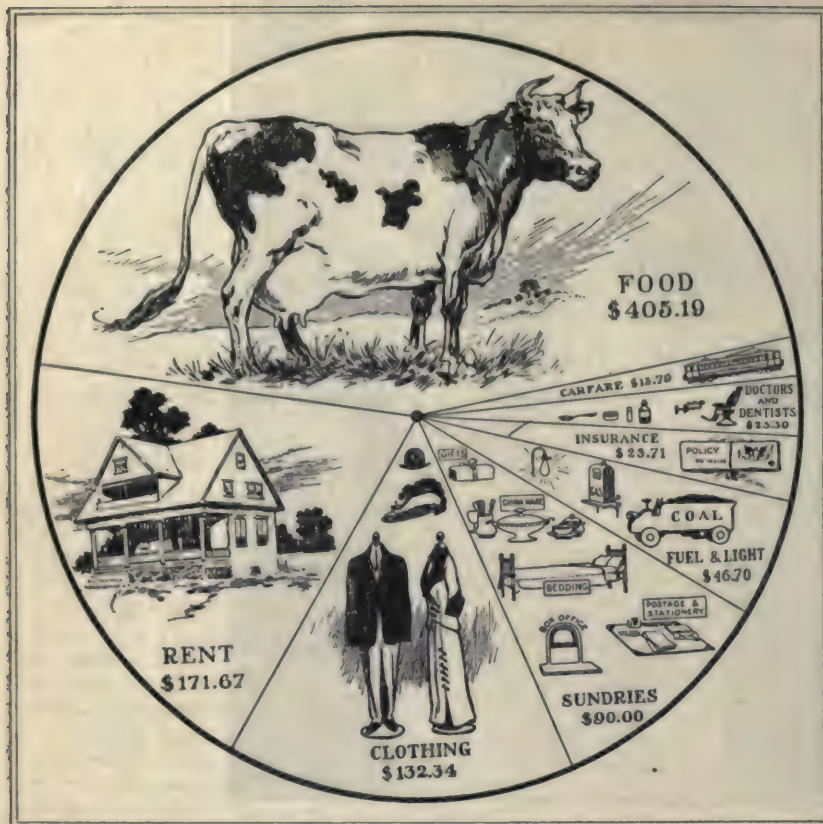
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## THE WOMEN OF THE SHAWLS

SHAEMAS O'SHEEL in the Forum

By my windows, which look out  
On a polite and pleasant street,  
There often pass  
Women of the dingy quarter down the hill;  
Creatures of primary faith and primitive doubt,  
Brief love and narrow faith and small deceit,  
Brief sleep, long toll, a roof, a rag, and meat,  
Patience beneath unrealized defeat,—  
Mortgaged too deep to Fate, alas!  
To leave much scope for will.  
And they are slow and large and ponderous,  
And are not beautiful as all women should be,  
And under Life's incessant mockery  
That by which woman chiefly is beauteous,  
Wonder and sweet illusion has quite gone.  
And like a burdened river they move on,  
With no complaint, no choice, no change, no thrill,  
Brown clods with so much muscle, so much nerve,  
A womb and two breasts each, who still must serve  
As Fate directs, until  
Fate bids them be quite still—  
I fancy they are placid when they go.  
And so  
They pass, each folded in a sullen shawl,  
Death's forward symbol, Life's ironic pall.





**DIVISION OF A  
FAMILY INCOME  
OF \$900 TO  
\$1,000**

The *Ladies' Home Journal* thus graphically represents Prof. R. C. Chapin's division of a family income of \$900 to \$1,000. The percentages are: food 44.7; rent 19; clothing 14.6; sundries 9.9; fuel and light 5.1; insurance 2.6; doctor 2.6; carfare 1.5.

**T**HE *Buffalo Express* publishes the following protest of a lodge of the International Association of Machinists against the proposed establishment of an army post in Buffalo:

Whereas, The establishment of an army post in this city has a tendency to establish murderous ideals in the breasts of our children and expose hundreds of our girls annually to be sacrificed to the lust of the soldiery, and

Whereas, The establishment of an army post will be used against the working class by arrogant and bullying employers whenever a body of workmen or women seek to secure from organized capital that which justly belongs to them. Be it therefore

Resolved, That we protest vigorously against the establishment of such post in order that the higher ideals in life may be promoted.

The *Express* believes that these resolutions are not consistent with true Americanism.

\* \* \*

**T**HE Chamber of Commerce of the United States, organized last spring with H. A. Wheeler of Chicago as president, has begun the publication of an official organ, the *Nation's Business*. This periodical, one aim of which is to secure publicity for the work of the chamber and which is distributed free to newspapers, is "intended to furnish a survey of the constructive

progress of the nation along lines of agriculture, mining, manufacture, transportation, distribution and finance. It will be devoted to the news of progress and organized promotion, and will include statistical statements of development and cover the bureaus of the government departments that are related to business and commercial activities at home and abroad.

The "nation's business," according to an editorial in the first issue of this publication, is "summed up in three productive lines—agriculture, mining and manufacturing; in three distributive lines—transportation, distribution and finance, and in various activities dependent upon production and distribution—education, the professions, governmental life, altruistic service and the like.

"The nation's business is to believe that all who render service are entitled to reward, and to implant the element of hope and courage in every human being who, in his place, is doing his duty well."

\* \* \*

#### THE DIFFERENCE

Street Car Driver—Me and that off horse has been working for the company for twelve years now.

Passenger—That so? The company must think a great deal of you both.

Street Car Driver—Wall, I dunno; last week the two of us was taken sick and they got a doctor for the horse and docked me. Gid-up there, now, Betsey.—*New York Tribune*.



## PERSONALS

Near the close of the year 1912 it was discovered for the first time why kitchen sinks are built so low that all women who wash dishes must suffer three backaches a day and nag their husbands to try boarding. The remedy was simple—raise the sinks. But the reason why sinks are low was tucked obscurely away in the minds of male persons who do not wash dishes. It all came out, and the reform movement for lengthening sink legs was successfully launched, as a result of the housing reform movement.

It was this way.

The housing reform movement gathered momentum and published reports and accomplished great things for some twenty years, under the direction of men and of women who had help in their kitchens. By that time, 1912, it had hooked on fire escapes, prescribed cubic air space and attended to all the structural and scientific points of tenement houses, so that the men who had started it no longer made inspections (only speeches) and turned over the field work to women. The women, one in particular, Madge D. Headley, looked on a tenement with the eyes of a woman, and saw it as a possible home. Miss Headley saw that the sink of the model tenement in the twentieth century is as low as the ancestral sink of the nineteenth, over which she had leaned and ached. The tenement women confessed that their backs ached in spite of the cubic air space. The 30 per cent of unoccupied lot area gave no relief. Even the bathtub did not help, for that was lower still. Evidently the housing reform movement had slipped on this little detail.

So Miss Headley, who was in particular pursuit of plumbing anyway, went to a manufacturer of sinks.

"Why are sinks made so low that they give women backaches three times a day?" she asked him.

"Sinks are the same height they always have been," said he, just like that.

"But why have they always been the same height?"

"I'm blessed if I know," he confessed, though he had been making them just that height since before Miss Headley was born.

Thereupon he set out to find the reason, and was a long time about it. Traced back to its beginning, the length of sink legs appears to have been set for a good reason and continued for none. All porcelain and metal sinks, he found, are the same height and have been since iron sink No. 1 was made. And No. 1 was the same height as the wooden sinks it succeeded. There the trail ended, but finally the sink man figured it out.

The wooden sink was built in the days when dishwashing and such tasks were done in wooden tubs and buckets with high sides, so that a low sink was comfortable to work over. Moreover, it was before the time of running water, the tubs and buckets were heavy, and the lower the sink the less the lift. When faucets and

shallow vessels came in, the sink still scrooched down by the floor. No sink maker ever had to use one, so there it stayed, though if he had ever thought about it he would have seen that the basins in which he washed his hands at his club and in his own bathroom were just as uncomfortably low, so that he had to bend over and splash water on his cuffs.

By the time he had figured all this out, the sink man was so interested that he designed a new sink, a sort of sink on stilts or a daddy-long-legs of a sink, and in no time at all now it will be on the market for the use and easement of women.

All of which is to the everlasting credit of Miss Headley.

A. P. K.

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"There isn't a soul to whom I would go with more confidence if I were in trouble, or sorrow, or sin, than I would to Dr. Knight."

These words are from an old letter written in 1891 by an elderly lady who had had a full measure of life's sadness. In the twenty-one year's since then, those who knew Dr. Knight best have felt that confidence ever deepening, and when he suddenly died the other day, hundreds felt that one upon whom they had been leaning heavily had been wrenched from them.

Not only was this true of the poor unfortunates of the school for the feeble-minded of which he, and his distinguished father before him, had been the wise and efficient head, but his townspeople, his fellow members of the Connecticut legislature, the men of the state who were about to send him to Congress, the alumni of his beloved Yale, and the countless friends who recognized his sterling trustworthiness in every direction, felt that a prop was gone.

When Dr. Knight was the head of the school for the feeble-minded in Minnesota, he was the youngest superintendent of a state institution in the country. On returning to his native state, his common sense, trained intelligence, warm sympathy and immense capacity for painstaking labor, were applied successively to a series of worthy tasks—from tapping the springs to give a water supply to his village to providing suitable homes for the tuberculous of the state. A personal habit—that of silence—rendered his judgment on practical matters, always worth seeking, of still greater impressiveness because of the few words used to express it. Indeed, the only criticism ever made of him in the writer's hearing was that he was too slow to voice the interest and sympathy he felt, too expectant that his hearers would understand his almost brusque expressions.

It is delightful to see one so honored by his own townsfolk as was Dr. Knight. Though Dr. Knight was a Protestant of Protestants, the neighboring Roman Catholic priest read the prayers for the dead for his congregation when he heard that the good doctor was gone. With a voice choking with emotion he assured them that Dr. Knight needed no special preparation for death for his whole life had been a preparation. And when the doctor in his last sleep was driven



through the maple shadowed streets to the quiet cemetery it was not alone the public school children who were gathered to do him honor, but the little children of the convent school stood silently with folded hands clasping a few flowers as the slow procession passed. That would have meant more to him than that the governor of the state and a delegation of eminent citizens should have traveled many miles to pay him the last tribute of respect.

ISABEL C. BARROWS.

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Dr. John S. Fulton, secretary-general of the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, insists that the ideas worked out by Mr. Brenner for the medal, described in *THE SURVEY* of October 5, were wholly the sculptor's. "Except that his conversation with me may have stimulated Mr. Brenner's imagination," says Dr. Fulton, "I contributed nothing to the form in which the idea ultimately appeared."

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"Bill Haywood" to the workers at Lawrence, the "unspeakable Haywood" to American industries, is the subject of some remarkably strong verses in the *International Socialist Review*, by Tom Flynn, a worker himself, whose first poem this is. The verses are in answer to a casual expression of wonder as to where Haywood got this "clear and ready speech." Was it down in the depths of the dripping mines (the verses run), where the straining timbers screech:

Or was it the roar of the fire-hung blast  
As it tore men's lives away,  
That taught you to think what a man should  
think,  
And say what a man should say?

Or maybe the yawn of the open shaft,  
Pit black as the mouth of hell,  
That taught to give you the ready speech  
They say you can use so well.

For you are only a miner, Bill,  
Did you not dig out the ore?  
So what should you know of the grace of speech  
High-sounding and rhythmic lore?

Mayhap it came in the hammer's clank,  
Or the crunch of the cutting drill,  
Or the crushing crash of the falling rocks  
That ever lurk to kill.

\* \* \*

Lillian M. Hoag has been appointed executive secretary of the newly organized Ithaca (N. Y.) Associated Charities of which T. W. Summers, general manager of the Ithaca Electric Light and Power Company, is president. Miss Hoag, originally an Ithaca woman, has spent ten years in settlement work in New York.

\* \* \*

Howell Wright, who has recently been made superintendent of the Cleveland Associated Charities, was from 1907 to 1909 special agent for the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. During the next two years he was agent of the same society, and in 1911 became general secretary of the Civic Association at Norwood, Mass.

## COMMUNICATIONS

### MR. GEORGE'S REASONS

#### TO THE EDITOR:

Since some of the readers of *THE SURVEY* who are not familiar with the situation may have thought it strange that William R. George, founder of the George Junior Republic at Freeville, N. Y., should have decided to reside elsewhere than at the Republic, I should like to state his reasons for this decision. Mr. George has not been officially connected with the republic at Freeville since 1908, when the National Association of Junior Republics was organized with Mr. George as national director of all the republics, of which there are now eight in six different states. Mr. George, naturally, could not continue an official connection with any one republic, any more than a federal official could at the same time hold a state office. It was Mr. George's intention to make the Freeville Republic the national headquarters of the Junior Republic movement, but time proved this plan to be inexpedient for the following reasons:

First, so long as Mr. George retained his residence at the Freeville Republic, people unfamiliar with the situation persistently affirmed that the success of the republic was due to Mr. George's personality rather than the principles underlying self-government and self-support. Mr. George desires to prove beyond the possibility of contradiction that a Junior Republic rests upon principles of immutable right, the successful working out of which is not dependent upon any one person.

In the second place, while Mr. George is on the grounds, helpers and citizens constantly turn to him for advice and counsel on all manner of matters, which he cannot well withhold, but which from time to time places him in the embarrassing position of appearing to thwart by indirection, the wishes of those locally in authority. This, as readily can be seen, is unfair both to Mr. George and to the local management.

Finally, the rapidly increasing national work, which contemplates ultimately the establishment of at least one Junior Republic in every state of the Union, makes it imperative that Mr. George should be free from the annoyance of having petty local matters continually brought to his attention, and thereby be enabled to give his entire time and energy to the larger problems of the national movement. In an unauthorized publication in the daily press the charges brought against Mr. George's character years ago and at that time proved to be absolutely unfounded and incredible were mentioned. The fact of mentioning these charges in connection with Mr. George's proposed intention to remove his home from the republic at Freeville naturally gave the implication that they were in some way connected with his proposed step. Absolutely no such connection exists and this base implication is grossly unfair to Mr. George, to his associates and to the cause of which he is the leader.



With Mr. George freed from the local cares which are forced upon him under present conditions, it is expected that the national work will forge ahead faster than heretofore.

LYMAN BEECHER STOWE.

[Secretary, National Association of Junior Republics.]  
New York.

## STEERAGE: OUT-BOUND

TO THE EDITOR:

Returning to the United States this summer on the French Line I took the opportunity of looking over the steerage conditions. I can thoroughly bear out what Dr. von Borosini has said concerning the conditions there.<sup>1</sup> The quarters devoted to the immigrants were in the after part of the ship well below the surface of the ocean and had absolutely no ventilation either through port holes or through ventilators.

There were three large rooms where I should say, roughly, there were from fifty to seventy-five beds (so-called) in each. The rooms were used indiscriminately by men and by women. The beds (so-called) were merely strips of canvas slung between iron posts. A pair of dirty blankets were the only other articles of bed clothing. The rooms were dirty and there was a rough bench along one side of each of them which was used for eating purposes. As to the quality and quantity of food I am not informed. The toilets were in a most disgusting condition.

E. E. PRATT.

New York.

## THE BOSTON RAILWAY STRIKE

TO THE EDITOR:

IN THE SURVEY of August 31 is an article which deals with the recent strike on the Boston Elevated Railway system was that men had been strike is concerned, it gives the labor union view of the matter so exclusively that though I have no interest in the railway company, I feel impelled as a matter of fair play to make some comments.

In the first place, the question arises—was the strike justifiable, carrying with it as it did such an interference with public safety and public convenience? The road was giving good service and it was conceded that conditions and pay were good. Whatever causes of complaint there were could not have been of importance as a large number of employes were satisfied and disapproved of the strike and remained loyal to the company. The strike was to get a share in the control of the road and to compel unwilling men to join the union. It was accompanied by numerous acts of violence, to none of which the article alludes. The strikers inflicted much injury on innocent persons. The company found men willing to work and had restored its service to almost normal conditions when the labor leaders who had hitherto ignored the Board of Conciliation, finding themselves in danger of defeat, appealed to the governor and district-

attorney to assist them. This is an election period, and they found the two rival candidates most sympathetic. The district attorney wrote in a letter of "the intolerable conditions of the road." If there was anything intolerable, it must have been occasioned by the strikers. The Board of Conciliation was brought forward. Its decision in favor of the strikers was received by the public with great surprise, a surprise that deepened into amazement when the district attorney advocated dismissing practically all the charges against the men whom the courts had held for acts of violence. Added to this, the Board of Conciliation decided that all strikers should be put back in their old positions and often over the heads of the loyal men who had stood by the company at the risk of their lives. The charge by the counsel for the union that officials of the company had been guilty of conspiracy to induce vicious characters to come to the city and of conspiring to incite riots is too absurd to have been put forward save as a lawyer's bluff. No one who knows anything of the character of the president and directors of the elevated road would believe it for a moment.

The article speaks of the public being on the side of the strikers. I believe the public thought the railway company within its rights. Those persons with whom I have come in contact think it has been unjustly treated and I have heard of nothing but sympathy for the loyal men who have been ignored and forced to join the union. One thing more: The railway company is held responsible for the safety of the public. That being the case, it should have the power of enforcing discipline. Why should it be compelled to share its authority with an organization which claims the right to interfere with this discipline, yet evades all responsibility for results?

Boston.

FRANCIS P. SPRAGUE.

TO THE EDITOR:

The grievance of the strikers on the Boston Elevated Railway system was that men had been discharged for joining a union. The contention of the men was not for recognition of the union (though incidentally that was won) but for the right to belong to a union. To laboring men this right is vital and fundamental. It may seem trivial to Mr. Sprague, but it is essential to right living and well-ordered freedom. It is to be regretted that Mr. Sprague impugns the motives of the governor, the mayor and the prosecuting attorney, but as they are politicians they must have acted, conscientiously or otherwise, in response to public opinion. If, as Mr. Sprague says, they were "most sympathetic," this would contradict that part of Mr. Sprague's criticism which claims that public thought was with the railway company. The Massachusetts Board of Conciliation and Arbitration has never before, I think, been charged with being biased in favor of strikers.

HENRY STERLING.

[The Homestead Commission.]  
Boston.

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, April 27, 1912, pages 166 and 171.

<sup>2</sup>See A New Engine for Conciliation, THE SURVEY, August 31, 1912.



## EUGENICS AND FATHERHOOD

TO THE EDITOR:

I cannot understand why any man prefers to be the son of a healthy criminal, rather than to be the son of a consumptive bishop.<sup>1</sup> Why should a depraved brain and heart be preferred to a depraved lung and circulation? We at least know that tuberculosis is caused by a parasite that science is learning to control; as yet science is in the dark as to the cure of the criminal brain or whatever part of the organism is at fault. If eugenics is to bless the world it will have to be through better reasoning helpers than S. G. Smith. I once heard a very thoughtful thinker on man and life assert that the children of real love on the part of both parents were known to be far ahead of other children in health and morals. Eugenics may have a deeper study ahead than the making of a perfect body through the laws of bodily health. Such has not proven always satisfactory, even in the animal kingdom.

Truth of purpose in marriage; quietness and consideration given to bearing woman; love and common-sense freedom given the child; sufficient rest for the life-producing father, coupled with right love between the parents for each other and for their children, and I doubt if many eugenic congresses would be needed to help the world.

Nature has nothing to be ashamed of, and when all that concerns our bodies is treated and talked of in a rational way; when false modesty takes a back seat, then child-bearing will be the one interesting subject.

MADGE E. ANDERSON.

San Diego, Cal.

## DUTCH DUTCHMEN

TO THE EDITOR:

In *THE SURVEY* for September 14, I find an article with the heading Ohio's Debt to a Common Dutchman (page 745) on which I should like to comment.

It is rather disconcerting to both the Dutch and German to find periodicals of good standing making mistakes which neither of the two above mentioned races like. The German is not a Dutchman, and the Dutchman (Hollander) does not like to have the Germans called Dutchmen. I presume the word or name as understood here is a degenerate form from the word *Deutschman*.

It is somewhat difficult, when one is a Dutchman, to know whether you are received as a German or *vice versa*. I wonder whether some effort could not be made through such journals as *THE SURVEY* to correct this small but nevertheless irritating matter. The Flying Dutchman is not a German—nor is the "Dutchman and his beer" a Dutchman. Perhaps you will assist the writer.

A DUTCHMAN.

Cambridge, Mass.

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, Sept. 21, 1912, page 753.

## JOTTINGS

## RECEIVING HOMES FOR FOUNDLINGS

Because the change in ways of caring for foundlings calls for a radical change in institutions for them, the Department of Child Helping of the Russell Sage Foundation has issued a leaflet diagraming and describing the new type of receiving home for foundlings, which it declares has in recent years largely displaced the old type of foundling asylum. This, says the leaflet, "admitted only foundlings; that is, such babies as were actually found by the police. Later, these asylums admitted many babies brought by their mothers who said they could not keep their babies. In more recent years the institutions have admitted a few mothers with their babies, but now this type of foundling asylum is giving place to temporary receiving homes into which mothers who might otherwise abandon their babies are received with them." These receiving homes are used as temporary quarters until mothers and babies have been placed out in private families, a practice that has grown of late and that is said to effect a greatly reduced mortality rate among foundlings.

A building blocked out by the Russell Sage Foundation is designed to exhibit the chief sanitary features which the medical profession recognize as essential in saving the lives and improving the vitality of babies who must have temporary institutional care.

## PITTSBURGH HUNGRY CLUB

As a forum for the free discussion of municipal, social and political problems, the Hungry Club of Pittsburgh occupies a unique position as it begins its fifth year. This informal weekly luncheon organization includes in its regular attendance city officials and employees, social workers and many prominent business and professional men. No votes are taken and speakers are free to express their convictions as strongly as they please. Speakers of prominence are readily secured, and their subjects cover a wide range. The program for the first four weeks of the current year included Councilman Robert Garland who spoke on The Tariff and Taft; James E. West, New York, on What Boy Scouts Do; President J. W. Kline, International Brotherhood of Blacksmiths, Indianapolis, on Labor Unions and Politics; Mayor William A. Magee, on The Pending Bond Issue.

## COURSE ON COST OF LIVING

A course on prices and the cost of living is being given this year at the University of Wisconsin. The new course, which is in charge of Prof. R. H. Hess, is concerned with a detailed study of prices and marketing conditions in the United States during the last twenty years. How the middleman takes the profit from the producer will be one of the interesting things brought out.



# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 7

November 16 1912

NOV 1 1912  
*Progress of the New  
York Court of Appeals*

*Edward T. Devine*

*How Montreal Citizens  
Discovered Their City*

*Anna L. Strong  
Rufus D. Smith*

*Experimenting with the  
8-hour Day in Steel Mills*

*John A. Fitch*

This Issue Ten Cents

Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**L**AST summer four baby hearses were counted within a single block going to a cemetery in Montreal. When the Child Welfare Exhibition burrowed down beneath the surface of things a few weeks later one of the revelations was that every fourth child born died in infancy. P. 195.

**I**NFANT mortality in the United States is to be one of the first subjects investigated by the new Federal Children's Bureau. The collation of all existing material relating to children will be another immediate task, says the bureau's first bulletin. P. 189.

**T**HE need of a children's bureau, international in scope and organization, is now being discussed. The suggestion comes from Europe. P. 190.

**B**OOKS on various phases of child care continue to make this year distinctive. With reviews of five of these THE SURVEY publishes also this week reviews of works in the fields of immigration, Socialism, social hygiene, city government, and apprenticeship in England. P. 203.

**C**ONTEMPORANEOUS with a great shortening of the working day in the iron and steel industry in Great Britain there has been a great increase in output. But it would not be safe, writes John A. Fitch, to assume that this would happen in the United States. There human labor does much that machinery accomplishes here and human beings, unlike machines, work most efficiently on short shifts. P. 198.

**B**Y finding some literature on tuberculosis in her father's pocket, Edith learns of the dangers to which she is exposing those she loves. She runs away to New York, for there is no sanatorium nearer. But father and lover bring her back and when her cure is complete the old home town treats itself to a brand new sanatorium of its own:—such is the story of a motion picture film released today by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. P. 190.

**R**EVERSING its own earlier position, the New York Court of Appeals has abandoned the doctrine of the assumption of risk in accident cases in which the employer can be proved to have been culpably negligent. Though a step in the right direction, this does not go far enough, says Edward T. Devine; we must get rid of the contributory negligence, assumption of risk and fellow-servant rules altogether and find a new basis for insurance or compensation laws in the inherent risks of industry. P. 193.

## THE SURVEY

PAUL U. KELLOGG

EDITOR

EDWARD T. DEVINE

GRAHAM TAYLOR

JANE ADDAMS

ASSOCIATE EDITORS

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**S**EX hygiene is a matter of both hygiene and ethics and the fight for purer sex relations must be grounded in the ethical motive—none lower will do: so speaks a report by a joint committee of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis and the American Federation of Sex Hygiene. P. 192.

**T**HE American Telephone and Telegraph Company and its associated companies announced on Monday the availability on January 1 of a fund of \$10,000,000 for pensions, sick benefits, and life insurance for their 175,000 employees, together with their families and dependents, amounting to a total of more than 250,000 persons.

**I**KNOW of no reason why the men who are injured by machinery or those who become sick and incapable should be turned out and not taken care of. My own notion is that the state is bound in morals and good conscience to take care of them. It would be just as easy to do it that way as to do it in the poorhouse and in the other way. The tax that would take care of these people without any lawsuits or contentions or trouble would be a very small tax, after all, on the great body of goods produced in this country.—MAYOR GAYNOR, of New York, at the laying of the corner-stone of the new buildings of the Montefiore Home.





VOLUME XXIX, No. 7

NOVEMBER 16, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### IMMEDIATE WORK OF CHILDREN'S BUREAU

The head of a bureau of the federal government is called "chief." It has become a uniform custom among government employes, when writing to such an officer, to address him as "Dear Mr. Chief." Consequently, official Washington was thrown into consternation at the announcement that Julia C. Lathrop had been placed in charge of the new children's bureau; for there seemed no escape from the salutation, "Dear Miss Chief."

That mischief is not to enter into the plans of the bureau is made clear, however, in its first official bulletin, just issued. Though the legislative, executive and judicial appropriation bill, granting funds to the bureau, did not pass until the latter part of August, the bulletin presents an impressive statement of things which will be done first, admitting that the program thus mapped out is a mere beginning. Readers are reminded that the bureau has no power to do administrative work, being able neither to make regulations concerning children nor to create institutions for them. "Its duty," the bulletin states, "is solely to study and report upon conditions affecting the welfare of children." In passing, credit for the first suggestion that a children's bureau be established is given to Lillian D. Wald, head of the Nurses' Settlement, New York.

The immediate work of the bureau, as outlined, falls into two classes: bringing together exist-

ing material within its scope and making original investigations. The United States government through various bureaus has already collected much statistical material relating to children, but it is scattered through many publications and has never been correlated by persons interested primarily in children. The bureau will bring this material together and, using it as a basis, will issue a convenient handbook of statistics on children, so that the important data which the government has compiled may be readily available for all agencies engaged in work for children.

Current literature, both in this country and abroad, the bulletin points out, is rich in matter relating to children. The office of librarian-reader has therefore been established, requiring the services of one who is not only an experienced librarian, but is also familiar with the principal modern languages and trained in sociology and economics. This, it is expected, will make it possible to select and prepare for immediate use significant material published in other countries on child problems. The United States Civil Service Commission has already announced an examination, for women only, for this position.

In the field of original investigation one of the first things the bureau plans is to study infant mortality. Not only is there declared to be urgent social need of a fuller knowledge of conditions, but such knowledge is fundamental to the later work of the bureau. The field of inquiry will be confined for the present to a few



comparatively small communities. On this point the bulletin continues:

"Because the importance of adequate birth registration in reducing infant mortality is universally recognized, the bureau will co-operate with the organizations, governmental and volunteer, now working for registration in this country. The New England states, Pennsylvania, and Michigan were in 1910 the only states included by the Census Bureau in the registration area for births as having laws for birth registration so enforced as to give reasonably satisfactory results. In most of the states births are not properly recorded, either because there is no law requiring their registration or because the existing law is inadequate or is not enforced. Unless the local social agencies working for the welfare of babies can learn of the birth of a child they can not directly help that child. Unless there can be secured reliable knowledge as to children born, there can be no reliable knowledge as to the birth rate, nor as to the proportion of children who die."

The effect of inadequate registration was forcibly seen recently in Montreal, when the city statistician had to guess as best he could on the evidence obtainable what the annual death rate of children was. His estimate was one in four.'

In carrying out what it regards as the intent of the law creating it the bureau will become a clearing house for information regarding passed or pending state legislation affecting children. It will also issue from time to time brief popular pamphlets on subjects assigned to it by law. These will be designed for wide distribution, and if necessary will be translated into foreign languages.

#### AN INTERNATIONAL BUREAU DISCUSSED

The establishment of such a bureau in this country lends interest to a meeting held some time ago at the home of Edouard Juhliet in Paris for the purpose of considering the establishment of an international children's bureau. Among those present were members of the institute, ministers of justice, lawyers and a number of distinguished students of social problems from various countries in Europe.

M. Juhliet explained that the idea was not new; that various congresses and conferences at different times had the subject under consideration, and that quite a number of persons with whom he had conferred had come to the conclusion that such a bureau could be established as early as possible; that those present, as well as a considerable number not present, had promised their co-operation. The conference determined to meet again in Brussels for the purpose of completing some plan for the creation of such a bureau.

<sup>1</sup>See page 195.

#### FIGHTING DISEASE WITH THE MOTION PICTURE

When a motion picture company recently gave a private exhibition of the life of John Bunyan in two reels and Pilgrim's Progress in three, many people were newly impressed with the power of the cinematograph to extend both the mental and visual horizons of masses of mankind. It is just this power of enlarging the scope of observation and of vivifying the things observed that so many propagandist bodies have seized hold of to drive home facts and figures, causes, effects and remedies which to the average citizen mean little when re-enforced only by white paper and cold type. In other words a table setting forth how many cases of tuberculosis were counted last month and calculating the expense connected with any thorough attempt at



EDITH CONSULTS THE FAMILY DOCTOR

prevention would not be half so likely to open the public's purse as a dramatic reproduction of one girl's fight with the disease.

For just such a reason the New York Milk Committee pioneered in devising a motion picture play that would carry a message of hygienic living past all barriers of prejudice and indifference, and for just such a reason the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis is releasing on November 16 a new film to be extensively used during the next six weeks as a special feature of the Red Cross Christmas Seal sale. The scenario was written by James Oppenheim especially for the anti-tuberculosis campaign and "Hope" is the dominant note as it is the title of the theme.

The story tells of a young banker in a little New York town by the name of John Harvey and of his bookkeeper, Wells, with whose daugh-



ter Edith, Harvey is in love. A few weeks before the holiday season, Harvey one day received a letter and some literature from the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, asking him to engage in a tuberculosis campaign in his district, to form a committee to sell Red Cross Christmas Seals, and to work for the erection of a local sanatorium. He shows the material to his old bookkeeper and both the men laugh at the idea that a country district need engage in such a fight. Tuberculosis, they believe, is a thing only of the city slums. Careless and unthinking, however, Wells

culosis literature in her father's pocket. As she reads of the dangers to which she is exposing those whom she loves, and of the hope of a cure that may be hers if she will go to a sanatorium, she finally conquers her immediate desire and resolves to live for health and a cure. She writes a note to her father and another to Harvey releasing him from their engagement and leaves home secretly for New York to see what chance she has of being cured, for there is no sanatorium nearer to her home than a day's journey.

It is the bitter realization of the truth that



HARVEY AND HER FATHER FIND EDITH IN A NEW YORK HALL BEDROOM

puts some of the pamphlets in his pocket and forgets the incident.

Meanwhile Edith is trying hard to conceal from her father and lover the annoying cough which she has developed and also the knowledge given to her privately by the old family physician that she has tuberculosis. She struggles hard against her love for Harvey and her father, especially when the banker shows her the new home which he is building for them. She is about resolved not to yield to the doctor's advice recommending that she go to a sanatorium, when one evening she accidentally discovers the tuber-

tuberculosis lurks everywhere, even in their own homes, that spurs Harvey and Wells to arouse their townfolk to the need of preventing this disease and erecting a sanatorium. And all the while they are searching for Edith, until one day by chance they find her name on the records of Bellevue Hospital tuberculosis clinic. They trace her to the ferryboat day camp at that institution and finally to her own miserable hall bedroom. It is not a difficult task to persuade Edith to go home and take the cure in the new sanatorium on the outskirts of the town. Here she completely recovers her health and as an indi-





EDITH ENTIRELY CURED LEAVING THE NEW SANATORIUM

cation of her future mode of life on entering her new home for the first time, a happy bride, she throws the windows wide open to let in the fresh air.

## SEX HYGIENE AND CHILDREN

It is only eight years since Dr. Prince A. Morrow started the first organized effort to secure popular discussion of venereal diseases and an understanding outside the medical profession of their causes and effects. He found *THE SURVEY* (then *Charities*) the only lay journal willing to open its columns to the demand that these diseases be dragged out into the light and that they be understood for what they are—communicable and preventable but frequently incurable.

Today the venereal diseases, the prevention of prostitution, white slavery, sex morality, a whole range of reforms conveniently grouped under the name of sex hygiene, have become subjects of constant discussion in newspaper and magazine. Pamphlets and books from reform bodies and from commercial publishers increase rapidly, and there is danger of over-doing, or badly doing, an important and delicate task.

This is particularly true of the vital preventive aspect of the movement, the teaching of sex hygiene to children. Hence the importance of an authoritative report on it by a joint committee of the American Society of Sanitary

and Moral Prophylaxis and the American Federation of Sex Hygiene, both of which were represented on the committee by Dr. Morrow; the New York Association of Biology Teachers, represented by Professor Bigelow, and the School of Pedagogy represented by Prof. Thomas M. Balliet.

The gist of the report is that sex hygiene is a matter of both hygiene and ethics. The facts taught come from the scientists (hygienists and biologists), but the motive, at all ages and under all circumstances, must be ethical. No lower motive will do. It is right and necessary to pass and enforce laws against vice, to equip hospitals for venereal cases, to protect and rescue girls, to put a fear of the Great Black Plague into the minds of young men. But the only way to win the fight is to make every boy and girl understand the reason for sex, appreciate sex morality and have a chivalrous regard for women.

"Sex hygiene has a purely practical aim and should be strictly limited by this aim," says the report. Other scientific subjects are taught in a way to stimulate interest, but here the purpose is to satisfy the degree of curiosity spontaneously aroused at any age, with just enough more to protect the child from the temptations sure to come to him. Physiological age groups, beginning before the kindergarten, are set up, the points of emphasis at each age noted, and a brief schedule given of the steps in biology for each group to study, ranging from flowers and in-



sects and the lowest animals, up through the mammals to man himself. Great emphasis is laid on physical exercise, ample sleep and regular hours, on ethical instruction, on very close relationships between parent and child and teacher and child, and upon good literature.

"It is of immense consequence that during the adolescent years the pupils' minds be saturated with the great masterpieces, both in poetry and prose, which deal with romantic love in its purest form. Thought of sex and sex emotion at this time must be spiritualized and placed on the highest plane, and good literature is the most effective means to this end which is available in the public schools."

The committee's report (copies may be obtained from the American Federation of Sex Hygiene, 105 West 40th Street, New York) is by no means a text-book for teachers or parents, but it is a valuable outline of the subject which may be used effectively in measuring the value of such texts and in urging instruction for parents and courses for teachers which will prepare them for their work. The report is strong in its recommendation that parents and the regular teachers give this instruction (in high schools and colleges, the biology and ethics teachers). They are the ones in personal touch with the pupils and, moreover, "specialists in sex" and special courses on sex would partly defeat their own ends by arousing unusual and morbid curiosity and by separating sex instruction from the rest of home life and school life.

The report reaches a high level—but a practical level based on the experience of two teachers and a doctor—in the concluding sentences of the part relating to the highly important early adolescent period, twelve to sixteen years:

"It should be impressed upon every boy that every girl is somebody's daughter and usually somebody's sister, and that it is his sacred duty to afford her the same respect and protection which he would expect from another boy toward his sister."

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### PROGRESS IN THE NEW YORK COURT OF APPEALS

EDWARD T. DEVINE

Among the most obnoxious of the common law doctrines in regard to work accidents as interpreted and applied is that of the assumption of risk. So far is this doctrine carried that an injured employe may be refused compensation even when dangerous machinery is left unguarded in direct violation of the labor law. The very fact that an employe has complained of a broken or defective machine may be used as evidence

against him, for it indicates that he knew of the defect.

In the Knisley case the New York Court of Appeals refused relief to a woman employed in a hardware factory in Buffalo whose hand was torn off by a machine, the cog wheels of which were unprotected contrary to the statute. She was held to have assumed the risk of her employment. The present chief justice had previously, while a trial judge, taken the contrary view in a similar case; and two of his associates were on record, either in the Supreme Court or in the Court of Appeals, on the same side. Their position was that public policy precludes an employe from assuming the risk created by a violation of the statute. Subsequently the Federal Circuit Court of Appeals in an elaborate opinion by the present President of the United States held the same doctrine, viz., that risks occasioned by the failure of the employer to supply safeguards positively demanded by statute were not assumed by the employe even though he knew about them. Still later the New York Court of Appeals decided that an agreement between the employe and employer relieving the employer from liability for all personal injuries to the employe that might result from the negligence of the employer was void as against public policy. Finally in a new case decided on October 22 of this year the Court of Appeals, noting that the authority of the Knisley case had been undermined by the more recent federal and state decisions, has flatly reversed its former position and given judgment in favor of a boy of twenty whose foot was crushed while working in the basement of a saw mill, although he is proved to have known of the illegally exposed set screw which did the injury.<sup>1</sup>

We record this decision with great satisfaction. It indicates that on this subject a more humane and enlightened attitude now animates the highest court of this state. Our satisfaction, however, is tempered by certain considerations which it is a plain duty to set forth.

First of all the later decisions which have gradually undermined and now overthrown the authority of the Knisley case are based upon the same common law and the same general legislation which were in existence at the time when the earlier and as it now seems erroneous decisions were made. We do not see how any of those who have defended the earlier decisions, and have hotly resented criticism of them, can now use the present decision as evidence that the critics were wrong. They cannot both eat their cake and have it.

<sup>1</sup>In the case of *Fitzwater vs. Warren, et al.*, reported in the *New York Law Journal* of November 4, the New York Court of Appeals holds that the plaintiff's knowledge of a danger which the employer, in violation of the statute, had permitted to exist does not defeat a recovery for the injury and that, under the circumstances, the assumption of risk is a question for the jury.



If the court has shown evidence of an enlightened spirit now it is clear that something was lacking in its earlier day—and it not so long ago—when their reasoning brought them to an opposite conclusion. The Knisley defendant was refused compensation. Since her day other injured employes and the families of employes who were killed have been denied what the court now says is justice and has been justice for all these years. We are not speaking of social and industrial justice of which we have recently been hearing; but of plain simple legal justice such as the court of appeals aims to mete out to the humblest claimant. How much injustice and hardship in this and other states have resulted from the decision which an enlightened court now declares to be bad law it would not be easy to calculate.

Coming closer to the merits of the present decision, we are compelled to confess some doubts as to whether those who favor a modern system of insurance or workmen's compensation, such as all European nations have and such as other states of the Union are rapidly adopting, will find in it any ground for encouragement. The court thinks that the present effort to secure a constitutional amendment to give the legislature power to enact a compensation law not based on negligence "is in no small measure due to the tendency evinced by the courts to relieve the master, though concededly at fault, from liability to his employe on the theory that the latter assumed the risk of the master's fault." This characteristically mild reflection on the courts is fully warranted. The judge-made doctrine of assumption of risk, as applied in the Knisley case, and as it is still stoutly upheld by Justices Collin and Gray in their dissenting opinion in the Fitzwater case, is certainly one of the glaring iniquities against which the movement for compensation laws is directed. But it is an error to think that the abandonment of that doctrine in those cases in which the employer can be proved to have been culpably negligent will satisfy the public sentiment which has been aroused.

Advocates of compensation laws attack the contributory negligence, assumption of risk, and fellow-servant doctrines not merely because they have been abused, but because they are fundamentally unsound and unjust. The courts tell us that they can be modified or be abolished by statute; but we reply that they were never enacted by statute. The courts should retrace their own steps in contrition and remorse. These doctrines have been bad law from the moment of their inception, and they have worked injury and injustice in every court in which their authority has been recognized. They do not correspond to the facts of industry. They are a continuing cause of poverty, of litigation and industrial

bitterness. To these conclusions we have come, some of us as lawyers and some of us as students of economic and social conditions. It is preposterous to say that these are questions for lawyers alone. No lawyer who does not listen attentively to competent observers of economic facts is fit to pass upon them. We intend to reform these doctrines altogether; to get rid of them. We insist that industry must carry the burden of its deaths and injuries, just as it carries its risk of fires and other accidents, from the undivided profits of the industry itself. We believe that compulsory insurance against industrial injuries, or assured immediate compensation in reasonable amount for all such injuries, will tend to lessen their number and will distribute the burden imposed by the remaining irreducible minimum more equitably than any system of employers' liability enforced by lawsuits. We want to get rid of the ambulance chaser, of the suit for damages, of the law's interminable delays and heart sickening uncertainties, of the corruption incident to this kind of lawsuit, of the unreasonable cost of employers' liability insurance as now administered. We desire to substitute an assured and promptly paid compensation of reasonable amount, for the present illusive right to institute an expensive and tedious lawsuit.

Constructive statesmanship, based on world-wide experience with the problem, rather than a belated and grudging drawing back from the particular consequences of a false system in some one of its applications, is what is needed. The judges do well to cease to countenance such flagrant miscarriage of justice as they have formerly sanctioned; but they should not expect that progress in this negative way, wholesome and praiseworthy as it is, will have any effect in lessening the demand for a modern comprehensive system of insurance or compensation, based not on negligence but on the inherent risks of industry.

These are the ends for which earnest reformers are everywhere working: elsewhere through immediate legislation; in New York, not from choice but because the Court of Appeals has made it necessary, through the process of constitutional amendment. With these purposes the Court of Appeals in its present decision shows no more sympathy than appeared in the Ives decision of last year. The court obviously hopes that by correcting the acknowledged injustice of this particular application of the doctrine, it will successfully check the whole movement for a modern compensation law, at least in this state. While we believe this to be a vain and fantastic hope, we nevertheless, for the sake of those whom it will benefit, rejoice in the fact that hereafter all who are injured because of their employer's criminal neglect are to be allowed to ask for compensation.





"BABY" HEARSEs GOING SIMULTANEOUSLY TO MOUNT ROYAL CEMETERY, MONTREAL.  
LAST JULY

There isn't any compulsory birth registration in Montreal but it is estimated that the city has an infant death rate of 250 per thousand.

## BENEATH THE SURFACE IN MONTREAL

ANNA LOUISE STRONG

Director of the Montreal Child Welfare Exhibition, and

RUFUS D. SMITH

Secretary of the Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction

Two great nations of different language, race and religion, each holding tenaciously to its national customs, divide Montreal into two parts. The French-Canadian Catholics, guaranteed by treaty perpetual preservation of their language and religion, are still in the majority. English citizens, drawing upon the resources of the entire Dominion, of which Montreal is the chief port, possess most of the wealth and the power that goes with it. The conflicts arising from this division have demanded and established two official languages.

Into these distracted and diverse elements the Montreal Child Welfare Exhibition came last month like a cementing force. Difficulties probably not to be found anywhere else in the world, unless in a sister city, Quebec, hedged it about. It was the first attempt Montreal had known to bring into close co-operation, for months together, her full quota of organized bodies, French and English, Catholic and Protestant. Yet the daily attendance in Drill Hall, where the exhibit had been staged, started out with an average clip of from 15,000 to 20,000.

Entertainments and conferences were conducted in both French and English and every inscription in the hall was in two languages. This ran the cost of the exhibition up to \$25,000, of which \$15,000 was given by public grant from the city, the province and the Dominion. But it was money well spent. Many other Canadian cities are planning to follow the lead of the greatest of them all, and in this respect the Montreal exhibit may well do for Canada what the New York Child Welfare Exhibit did for the United States.

Montreal lays claim to being the wealthiest city *per capita* in America. Though relatively small in comparison with the ports of the United States, it has behind it the entire Do-

minion of Canada. Some of its wealth has gone to build up vast private institutions—private schools from McGill College downward, private hospitals and institutions for the care of dependent children. The French, not so wealthy today as they were once, own large tracts of land and many buildings which, steeped in the memories of two centuries ago, stand free from taxation because they are church property. Wherever one goes about the city, these enormous grey-walled structures are seen—some of them, like the Grey Nunnery, housing 1,000 people and caring for foundlings and old men within the same enclosure.

In spite of these evidences of wealth, the social work done by the city government is appallingly small. With tax receipts cut way down by the large amount of exempt property, progress in this direction has been difficult. Thus we find that Montreal has the largest infant mortality rate in North America, and that its density of population per park space is greater than any large city on the continent—greater even than that of crowded New York. We find that Montreal has no free library supported by taxation, and that while there are thirty-five school boards within the city limits, there is no compulsory education and no school census.

To the reader of American newspapers, who learns of fresh methods to combat infant mortality as he learns of new inventions in flying, it is surprising to discover that in a city where summer holds few of the terrors which he knows there is still an infant death rate of 250 per thousand. The statistician of the city hall declared that although his figures are not scientifically accurate, due to the lack of compulsory birth registration, the mortality in Montreal is by far the greatest among the French Canadians. Large families living in overcrowded districts on low salaries contribute greatly to this result.

The health section of the exhibition, occupying two-thirds of the whole floor space, dealt especially with this malady and its causes. Mothers' conferences and baby clinics held every afternoon in French, English, and sometimes Yiddish, Italian, and German, aimed to



present in popular style methods of prevention which can be applied in the home.

With the exception of two screens from the Department of Contagious Diseases and one on medical inspection, visitors from out of town noticed the total absence of exhibits by the Board of Health. This department of Montreal's government has little to do with child welfare. Even medical inspection has been just recently undertaken.

The crux of the housing problem in Montreal is her rear courts. Buildings stand sometimes three deep on a lot and in many cases a narrow covered archway is the only entrance through

of Westmount, which is entirely surrounded by the city of Montreal, and there is a Catholic board of commissioners for most parishes. All of these are supported by taxation, but the text books in one differ from those in another and in many the pupils pay tuition. Since each parish contributes to the support of its own schools, the poorest parish with the largest number of children has the least money for school purposes. The educational system in Montreal is in a condition of chaos.

It would be grossly unfair to say that no one in Montreal knows that such conditions as these exist. Attempts at remedying them are being



ONE OF MONTREAL'S REAR COURTS

which 200 or more people can reach their homes.

The absence of any exhibit from a park department was another lack noticed by the visitor. The only playgrounds in the city are run by private associations, with the exception of three school grounds which were unlocked this last summer by order of the Catholic school board.

Throughout several months an attempt was made to obtain a complete list of schools. No such list could be made up. There is, as far as we know, no complete list of even the public schools in Montreal. There is one Protestant school board for the city, one for the town

made. Yet in these very attempts lurks a familiar danger. Montreal seems not to know that she is threatening to turn herself into that Frankenstein of mismanaged charity, an "institutionalized" city. It is the demand for more institutions which is heard rather than for the thorough-going prevention of child dependence. So it was that in the exhibition sections on philanthropy, law and industry, a strong stand was made for the integrity of the home against the easy and insidious encroachment of the institution. The extension of careful case work in order to stop the breaking up of the family and the building up of a more accurate, substantial body of facts in regard to the actual conditions



surrounding home life were urged. Those in charge of the exhibit experienced the greatest difficulty in getting trustworthy statistics on which to make definite statements.

Now and then, during the last few years, there have been murmurings that child labor exists in Montreal. How much or little no one really knows. An investigation by a French Canadian working girl among several hundred employes brought out, under signed statements, the startling fact that one-third began work before the age of fourteen. Montreal has no compulsory education and no accurate birth registration—two instruments necessary to the enforcement of a child labor law.

The co-operation of the Catholics in this critical stock-taking of their city's social assets stands out as one of the notable achievements among child welfare exhibitions over the continent. Fully one-half of the institutions represented were Catholic and the same percentage was found among the children who took part in the demonstrations. The Catholic section dealing with moral and religious training of the child showed in a comprehensive way the various activities of the church which keep the children bound to its teachings from the cradle to the grave. Perhaps the most comprehensive bit of research done in the entire exhibit was that carried through by three French Catholic associations of young women, representing the employes of department stores, offices and factories. Catholic sisters were everywhere in the hall, guiding the children in drills, gymnastics and singing. What this may mean in co-operation between two peoples and two religions can not easily be measured.

Many needs, the mention of which in the exhibit would have made co-operation on a large scale impossible, were brought out in the Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction. Meeting in Montreal while the exhibit was in progress, this body for the first time in its his-

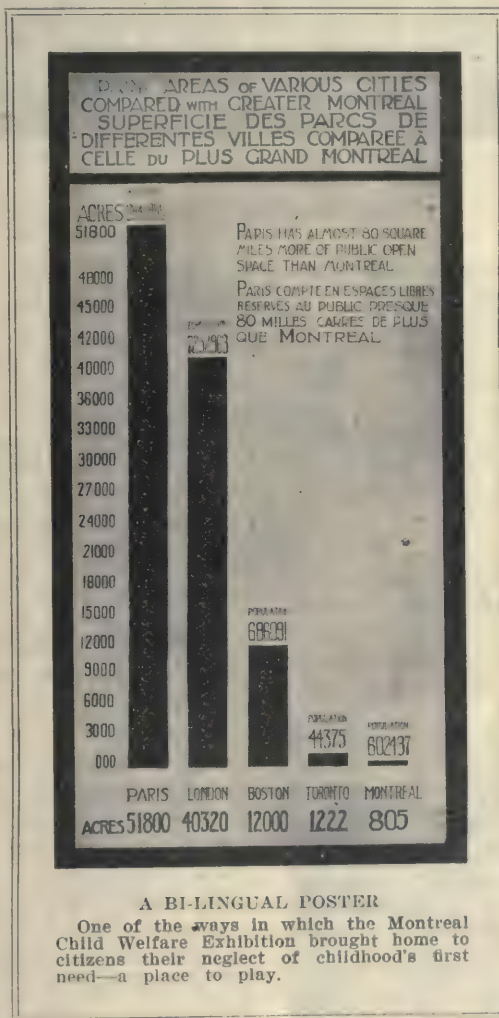
tory gathered together a national group of social workers.

That Manitoba and Quebec, without compulsory education, have a difficult time in effectively dealing with juvenile delinquency was pointed out by judges from these provinces. The influx of foreign peoples has already made Canada's immigration problem larger in proportion to her population than that of the United States, and there as elsewhere great numbers of the new arrivals, without schooling, are going to work at an early age, later to become a menace to citizenship. Judge Choquet came out strongly for a federal compulsory education act to combat this evil.

It was not until Dr. Henry H. Goddard of Vineland, N. J., pointed out the close connection between poverty and crime, prostitution and feeble-mindedness, that many of those present realized that Montreal was without accommodation for her mental defectives and without means for dealing properly with deficient children in the schools. That crime is to some extent a matter of temperament was one of Dr. Goddard's conclusions. The feeble-minded person who is also phlegmatic, he said, usually becomes a pauper, whereas a nervous and irritable disposition added to weak mentality is quite likely to produce a criminal, and in the case of a woman a prostitute.

To many in the western hemisphere, Canada is a name for thick forests and open wheat-

lands. Yet it was told by those who know her best that today she is in the grip of the same drift from country to city which in our modern day has changed the face of civilization. Dark rooms, unsanitary conditions, slums—all these have found congenial soil. To those who insist that Canada should make her crowded city districts the main point of attack Mr. Armstrong, secretary of the Toronto Housing Association, answered that the Canadian problem was still the problem of safeguarding healthy growth, of







WATCHING OUTDOOR MOVING PICTURES

city planning and of the housing of wage-earners, rather than the rooting up of slums.

As a result of sentiment aroused at the conference a committee is to be appointed for the purpose of getting an amendment to the criminal code making wife desertion an immediately punishable offense. As the code now stands desertion does not amount to a crime until it has resulted in permanent injury to the health of wife or child.

"As a consequence of this," said Howard T. Falk, secretary of the Associated Charities of Winnipeg, "we have frequently been informed by the crown prosecutor that if we want to use the criminal code in a case of wife desertion, we must withhold aid from the family and persuade

all friends to withhold aid also, so that 'actual injury to wife or child will result.'"

Whether Canada with all before her and in the beginning of a rapid growth would realize actual conditions and either eradicate or prevent them was the keynote struck by all who took part in the conference. There were many misgivings, however, as fact after fact was brought out showing that opportunities are fast slipping by and that heroic measures will be needed to develop a strong public opinion along social lines.

## EXPERIMENTS WITH THE EIGHT-HOUR DAY

JOHN A. FITCH



GREY-WALLED AND UNTAXED

Enormous amounts of church property like this are exempt from taxation and so constitute one reason why Montreal has not more money to spend in taking care of its children.

During the last seven years there has occurred a considerable shortening of the working day in the iron and steel industry in Great Britain. During that time all the steel works of any importance in South Wales—in the great tin-producing district—and two of the important steel works in the north of England, in the Middlesbrough district, have changed from the twelve-hour to the eight-hour day in their open-hearth departments. Practically all the blast furnaces in the north of England have adopted the eight-hour schedule in that time, the tin mills are all working on the three-shift system, and the most important association of steel manufacturers in the north of England during the last summer reached such a stage in their negotiation with the Steel Smelters' Union that they requested the union officials to prepare a plan and submit it to the consideration of the association for introducing the eight-hour day in their plants.



There still remain, it is true, blast furnace plants where the long twenty-four-hour shift, recently abandoned by the United States Steel Corporation, still exists, and there are a number of steel plants where the twelve-hour day is in force, especially in the rolling mills. But it is the universal custom in rolling mills in the United Kingdom to stop work at noon on Saturday, and in most of them it is not resumed until Monday morning.

The British Board of Trade report on Earnings and Hours of Labor in the Metal, Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades, shows that as long ago as 1906 the average weekly hours of labor in the blast furnaces was 55.2; in iron and steel mills it was 54.4, and in the tin plate industry it was 47.8. It should be noted that these figures are exclusive of meal-times, for which one-half hour to two hours are allowed. In most cases, this period would be one hour or less, but if the full two hours were granted in every case it would bring up the weekly total of hours spent in the work places to 57.2, 56.4 and 49.8, as against 72 to 84 hours in blast furnaces, 72 hours in rolling mills and 48 in the tin plate industry in the United States.

When in England and Wales a few months ago the writer spent some very interesting hours discussing with union representatives and with employers the effects of the shortening of the working day and learning from them the manner in which it was brought about. In the open-hearth furnaces, so far as the change has been adopted, it has not cost the manufacturers one cent in extra labor cost. In fact, the original proposal made by the Steel Smelters' Union was that they would agree, if the employer would introduce three shifts instead of two, to work for the same rate per ton as that which they had been receiving before. As may readily be imagined, such a reduction in daily earnings was more than the lower paid men could stand. But in order to get the plan into operation, the highly skilled men who were receiving the better wages agreed that a certain percentage of their earnings should be diverted to the men who were not so well paid, in order to make it possible for them all to work eight hours instead of twelve. Since the adoption of the plan, however, the tonnage of the various plants has so increased that the highly skilled men, in spite of their original reduction of 33 1/3 per cent and then their additional voluntary reduction in order to help their fellows, are today earning more money in eight hours than they were getting before when they worked twelve.

Not quite the same arrangement was made in the blast furnaces. There, in most cases, it was felt that a certain increase would have to be made in order to enable the men to have a living wage after having reduced their time one-

third. But there, too, experience has proven that the plan is a success. Output has increased and labor cost has not materially risen. We were told by a representative of the Bolckow Vaughan Company, one of the largest companies in the United Kingdom, that undoubtedly labor cost had increased somewhat, but it is now practically impossible to say how much that increase may be. In spite of that, however, the Bolckow Vaughan Company would not go back to the twelve-hour day and the twenty-four-hour shift in their blast furnaces under any circumstances. They believe, they assured us, that a twelve-hour day in blast furnaces is altogether too long and they would prefer to have a somewhat higher cost and a more satisfactory working day.

It would not be safe to assume that the steel mills and blast furnaces of the United States would have the same experience as England if they were to adopt the eight-hour day. It is apparent even to a layman that the steel mills of Great Britain do not have anything like the automatic machinery that is to be found in all of the important steel mills of the United States. Consequently, they depend much more upon human muscle than do their colleagues in America. It may be readily believed that the output of a mill where the steel is handled to any considerable extent by men with tongs may be considerably increased if those men work an eight-hour day instead of twelve hours. But the same increase is not to be expected in a mill where roll tables and cranes are in more general use. Another feature in connection with the increased output in Great Britain that must be taken into account is the fact that there has been a considerable addition of new machinery during the period since the eight-hour day went into effect. Consequently, the union officials themselves admit that they cannot tell how much of the increased output is attributable to increased efficiency on the part of the men and how much of it is due to improved machinery or different methods.

But it is even more unsafe to assume, in consequence of these facts, that there would not be increased efficiency and increased output in the United States if the steel mills were to adopt an eight-hour day. There is little experience in this country from which to draw conclusions, but it is extremely significant that all of the experience that does exist tends to show that an eight-hour day in steel mills will result in increased efficiency. There are three different places that occur to the writer at present where an eight-hour day has been tested. Eight years ago the men in the finishing mills of the Sharon Steel Hoop Company, located at Sharon, Pa., were given an opportunity to work in three eight-hour shifts instead of in two ten-hour



shifts, as previously. The tonnage of the mills so increased from the very outset that the first pay that the men drew when the eight-hour day had been in operation only two weeks was just as large as their last pay before, drawn when they were working ten hours, and the improvement in the morale of the working force was evident to everyone.<sup>1</sup>

Within six months, the Cambria Steel Company has adopted an eight-hour day in its blast furnaces and while there is no record available that the output of furnaces has increased since this change, there is indisputable evidence that the company believed that there would be an increased efficiency upon the part of the men, for it reduced its working force and increased the task to be assigned to each man to such an extent that each was able to draw the same pay as before, without increasing their labor cost to the company.

But the most complete report that has been made so far of an experiment with the eight-hour day in a steel mill is contained in a paper read by R. A. Bull of the Commonwealth Steel Company, Granite City, Ill., at the convention of the American Foundrymen's Association which met in Buffalo in September of this year.<sup>2</sup> Mr. Bull, after stating that he had been amused by the "misstatement of facts" made by certain "captains of industry" in their testimony concerning the twelve-hour day before congressional investigating committees, went on to state that the steel maker's occupation "is distinctly arduous physically and mentally, carries a responsibility which puts a man's nervous system in frequent high tension and is especially trying on the physical system during the summer months." He describes how the company with which he is associated "some time ago" adopted an eight-hour day for its open hearth furnace and boiler crews. "A careful adjustment of wages was planned which yielded an increase of 28 per cent to the first helpers, 18 per cent to the second helpers and 16 per cent to the third helpers. Even the door boy was included in the plan and was to receive an advance of 19 per cent per hour. The boiler firemen were to be increased 19 per cent per hour and the coal passers 14 per cent."

A careful record was then made of results in the last four weeks prior to the change and the first four weeks following it. A table is presented, too technical for reproduction here, showing in detail the experience under the twelve-hour shift as compared with that under the eight-hour shift. The differences in many cases are not large, but "the pleasing and impor-

tant feature is that the essential ones are in favor of the short shift." The comparisons here include the amount of extra pig iron charged per heat, the average amount of fuel oil consumed per heat and per ton and the average number of cracked castings per heat. In the boiler room, it was found that the number of times in twenty-four hours when steam pressure fell below a certain point was much smaller under the eight-hour shift than it had been under twelve hours and instead of increasing costs, the labor cost per day was actually thirty-eight cents less in twenty-four hours when divided into three shifts than it had been when divided in two. Mr. Bull, commenting upon this comparison, says:

"I do not know if any such comparisons as those which made the basis of this paper have heretofore been made in a similar fashion. It is quite possible that the idea has some degree of novelty in certain of its details, for, notwithstanding the criticisms recently directed against the twelve-hour shift, its prevalence is still almost universal in furnace operation in this country. I feel satisfied that any careful comparison along the lines indicated by the record shown would convince any steel manufacturer of the wisdom of operating on three eight-hour shifts, purely from an economic standpoint. Speaking for the people with whom I am associated, we are greatly pleased over the change and I can speak for the men in the same terms, for our furnace men are enthusiastic in their praise concerning the new plan. And there is no small amount of inward satisfaction in the knowledge that we have done a humane thing. . . . Therefore, viewed from any conceivable angle, I claim the change is justified and you will do well to make it so far as your open-hearth furnaces are concerned. As to your boiler firemen, each operating head must decide for himself. In our particular case, it appeared to be, and finally proved to be, advisable from every standpoint. . . . Reverting finally to consideration of the steelmaker, whose performance under both schedules is made the burden of this argument, the basic principle is absolutely sound, and rests on the incontrovertible fact that you cannot expect any man to give you the best that is in him when you keep him employed without intermission for twelve hours per day seven days per week, at work making a heavy demand upon his mental and physical powers, under conditions of high temperature such as obtain on a furnace floor. To expect the best results under such circumstances is folly."

In the light of experiences like these, there seems ample justification for the statement by Mr. Bull, that "disregarding the ulterior motives of the ever-present demagogue and analyzing this question conservatively, it must be apparent to us that a few more years may see legislation honestly conceived that will put an end to the twelve-hour shift for the steel-maker."

<sup>1</sup>See *The Steel Workers*, Vol. IV, Pittsburgh Survey, pp. 179-180.

<sup>2</sup>This paper is published in full in *The Iron Age* of October 3, 1912, and the *Iron Trade Review* of October 10, 1912.



## THE TREND OF THINGS

IN a recent issue of the *Independent*, James Oppenheim describes the lynching of Robert Johnson, accused of attempting to assault the sixteen-year-old daughter of a white man, Gordon White, construction boss in the railroad yards. Since Johnson's death, the *Independent* states that his guilt has become a matter of very serious doubt. Mr. Oppenheim shows how thin was the evidence against him and he brings out also with terrible vividness the hysterical spirit of the lyncher. He says:

I saw the effect of the lynching upon old man White; I saw him two weeks after he had sentenced Robert Johnson to death because "he just seed he was guilty." He sat in a low rocker in the sitting room where the attempt at assault had been made; he was in his stocking feet, his great shock of dark hair stood startlingly up from his wrinkled forehead, and his face had the sort of expression I have seen among the insane on Randall's Island. The eyes were burning bright. And he could not be still a moment. Though several of us talked across the room, he did not listen to us, but continually broke in, in a harsh, low voice, repeating monotonously:

"I just know he was guilty. Why did he say, 'I'm ruined,' when they put the overalls on him?"

And again:

"I done the right thing and I know it. All the people here know I done the right thing."

And over and over again:

"I blame them. They shouldn't a taken me over that night."

He gave us an exhibition of how he had

looked at the Negro in the cell at Princeton; the look, certainly, of a maniac. I could imagine a crowd of over a thousand men all with that bestiality in their eyes, all as merciless and maniacal, and I could understand why Robert Johnson screamed to the officers to shoot him down and end his life before he fell into their hands.

\* \* \*

"HOUSEFLY & Co., General Dealers in Typhoid Fever" had a full page advertisement in the first issue of the monthly magazine published by the St. Louis Board of Health. This is a neatly printed eight-page paper, of which 1,500 copies are to be distributed monthly to business houses and public buildings, with the object of disseminating information in regard to sanitation and the prevention of disease.

\* \* \*

BEGINNING with October, *Children's Charities* and the *Juvenile Court Record* of Chicago have been merged under the latter title.

\* \* \*

A GIRL of eighteen and a boy of twenty, found together in a café were brought before a municipal judge on a charge of disorderly conduct. The court imposed a fine and the following bit of advice:

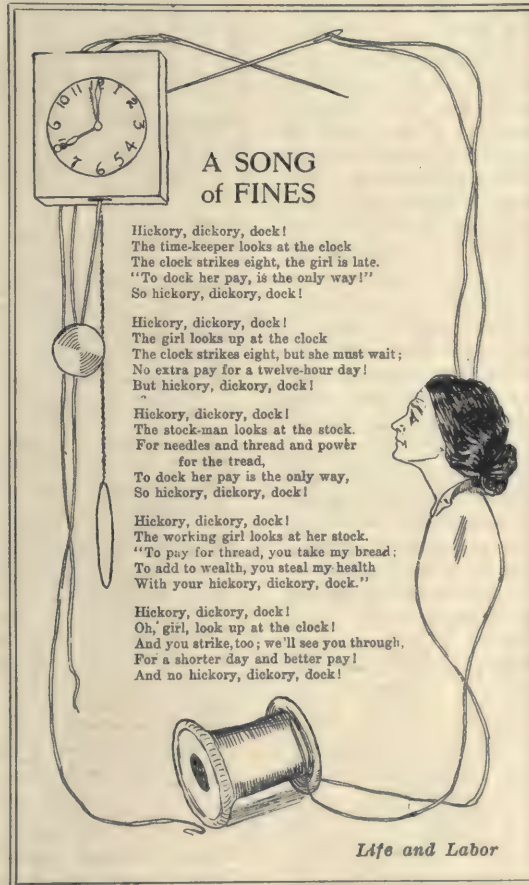
"The best treatment for children like you is a sound spanking."

"The judge was tackling a new problem with old ideas," says

the *Chicago Tribune*. "The best treatment for the young man and young woman in question, and for thousands of young men and young women like them in big cities, is to give them a chance for wholesome companionship.

"When the judge was twenty the American home was a different affair from what it is today. It was pretty generally a story-and-a-half or a two-story house. It had a lawn and a small garden—plenty of room. Most of the amusements of the time were found in the home or near it.

"The young man of that day did his court-





ing in the parlor of the girl's home—a safe retreat giving considerable privacy.

"It is a far cry from that sort of a home to the home of today. In the four or five-room flat space is at a premium and privacy likewise. It is no place to bring a friend to. It is a roost. It affords shelter for the night and a place to eat in, but there it stops. . . .

"The city gives young men and young women plenty of chances to work, but too few chances to play innocently."

\* \* \*

"IT seems as if the workman of the present was thinking more of what he was getting than of what he was giving in return," says *Fibre and Fabric*. "He wants a full envelope, regardless of whether his own efficiency is increasing or not. He accepts a pleasant home as a matter of course, and if he makes any comment at all, remarks that his employer has a better one. His comfortable home is not the result of years of labor, therefore he sets little value on it. He is lagging behind his opportunities. The great fault in our mills today is not in the working conditions, but in the fact that in many cases the operatives do not live up to those conditions. The conditions have got ahead of them and they do not seem able to catch up. Some striking illustrations have been seen of this in the last few weeks. In view of this, would it not be well to call a halt for the present, until there are signs of progress in the ranks? The improvement can hardly be expected to be all on one side. Our enormous foreign population is giving us a huge problem to solve, and we must go slowly in dealing with it. The time seems to have come to stop and look around. We must go forward, indeed, but we must be sure that we are going forward in the right direction. It seems as if respect for the property of others was a lesson that might be learned with profit to all concerned. How to teach it is a question that is worthy of considerable study."

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THE doctrine of workmen's compensation as it is being preached and developed in this country indicates a radical alteration in our social constitution, and has a tendency to bring it into closer resemblance to conditions which exist in older and less admired communities in Europe. Its tendency is to divide—clearly to define classes—to lower the social condition of the workman by posing him as an object of sympathy or a victim of industrial oppression—a policy, which in time may render him, as it has the workmen of Germany and England, obsequious and servile, a malingerer and a pursuer of benefits. These possibilities are mentioned here because, if they develop, they must necessarily find a place in the calculations of underwriters.—*Independent*.

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NO community on this hemisphere devours more literature of the caliber of Tolstoy, Darwin, Turgenieff, Karl Marx, Goethe, or Shakespeare than the East Side [New York] does. Among what other tenement population,

for instance, would a bulky, eight-volume historical work stand a chance of financial success? Yet when the first of the eight-volume history of the United States which Abraham Cahan is writing in Yiddish came out, the East Side gobbled it up, to the tune of twenty thousand copies at a dollar a copy. And now the second volume is going at the same rate.—JOSEPH GOLLOMB in the *American Magazine*.

\* \* \*

PUSHKIN PARK, says a dispatch, was the only children's playground at Sevastopol, Russia. It was opened by public subscription and has been closed by administrative order, because the children's laughter and shouting interfered with the work of the police officials in their near-by offices. "Seldom," comments the *New York Evening Post*, "does a news item carry so double-edged a statement. What does more interfere with the work for which, unhappily, police officials must be employed, than the health and happiness that are expressed in the riotous noise of boys and girls at play?"

\* \* \*

## THE GUIDES

MARGARET WIDDEMER in the *Craftsman*

Where have you been the long day through,  
Little brothers of mine?  
Soon the world shall belong to you,  
Yours to mar and to build anew:  
Have you been to learn what the world shall do,  
Little brothers going home?

We have been to learn through the livelong day  
Where the great looms echo and crash and sway,  
The world has willed it, and we obey,  
Elder brother.

What did you learn till set of sun,  
Little brothers of mine?  
Down where the great looms wove and spun,  
You who are many where we are one  
(We whose day is so nearly done),  
Little brothers pacing home?

We have learned the things that the milk-folk said,  
That Man is cruel and God is dead . . .  
And how to weave with an even thread,  
Elder brother.

What did you win with the thing they taught,  
Little brothers of mine,  
You whose sons shall have strength you brought,  
Fashion their lives of the faith you bought,  
Follow afar the ways you sought,  
Little brothers tolling home?

Shattered body and stunted brain,  
Hearts made hard with need of gain,  
These we won and must give again,  
Elder brother.

How shall the world fare in your hand,  
Little brothers of mine?  
When you shall stand where now we stand—  
Shall you lift a light in the darkened land,  
Or fire its way with a burning brand;  
Little brothers stealing home?

What of the way the world shall fare?  
What the world has given the world must bear . . .  
We are tired—oh, tired—and we cannot care,  
Elder brother!



## BOOKS

### FRESH AIR AND HOW TO USE IT

By THOMAS SPEES CARRINGTON, M.D. National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. 250 pp. By mail of THE SURVEY \$1 postpaid.

It should no more be necessary to review, or to write, a book on Fresh Air and How To Use It than on Pure Food and How To Eat It or on Cold Water and How To Drink It. But thanks to ourselves and to our ancestors all three are needed, and the first of the three is here met in a way to serve as model for the dietitians and the white ribboners.

First, man, an outdoor creature, of necessity built himself a house strong enough and tight enough to keep out his enemies while he slept. Then, increasingly an indoor worker, he fell a soft victim to the heat he had generated, and worked and slept and lived behind closed doors and windows. The higher our civilization, the more are we housebound and the greater is our death rate from tuberculosis.

The indoor sleepers did not awake until the twentieth century and the reveille was sounded by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. Fresh air cures tuberculosis and pneumonia. It prevents half—or is it all?—the diseases in that grewsome periodical of the Health Department published regularly under the title Causes of Death the Past Month.

No country house is built nowadays without an open-air room. It has become a truism of suburban architecture. But to most of us—dwellers in the homes of our fathers who feared the night air, or in the apartments of thrifty landlords who meet only the requirements of a tenement house law—Dr. Carrington's book is a practical guide to health and zest and vigorous days following nights of real refreshment. For he shows us in clear text and photographs, in plans and tables of cost, how to tack an inexpensive sleeping porch on the old house without making it look like a wart, how to use the roof or even just a window in the flat building for sleeping out in effect if not in fact, what sort of bedding we must have, and how to buy, or to contrive at a quarter the expense, the outdoor winter "nighty."

It is one of the simplest, most practical and best illustrated of handbooks. A. P. K.

### SOCIALISM AND CHARACTER

By VIDA D. SCUDDER. Houghton Mifflin Company. 431 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

In a volume of over four hundred pages, Miss Scudder attempts the double task of analyzing the moral ideal of the religious-minded conservative and of the Socialist, and of showing that in the main the two are not antagonistic, but one. She goes further; she, as a convinced Socialist, believes that the Socialist reconstruction of society alone would provide an environment in which it would be possible to live up to the precepts of the Sermon on the Mount. She shows

that out of the practical fact of the competitive struggle in society has come the anomalous situation of two conflicting moral codes, both equally necessary. One aims at self-preservation and inculcates aggressive, self-interested qualities; the other is other-worldly and altruistic, inculcating the ethics of the New Testament. In the Socialist commonwealth she maintains that these two would be reconciled. The class war she regards as the struggle of a brotherhood whose aim is to bring all society into that brotherhood in which the individual good would be synonymous with the common good, and self-preservation would be attained by loyalty to the race.

"The working class movement," she says, "is the only form of group consciousness yet evolved in history to look beyond its own corporate aim. It is inspired by a passion of good-will for all men, and never loses sight of a universal goal."

While recognizing that materialism is the rock on which Socialism may founder, Miss Scudder points out that it is from the materially comfortable classes that this criticism of Socialism emanates. She believes that with the mass, as with the few, given proper moral preparation, material well-being need bring with it no moral degradation. This moral preparation is, however, she believes, the greatest need in the teaching of Socialism today, for, "should Socialism arrive otherwise than as the result of an inward transformation affecting the deep springs of will and love, it would prove the worst disaster of any experiment in collective living that the world has seen."

Miss Scudder's book is thus unique among recent publications on Socialism.

M. B. S.

### ENGLISH APPRENTICESHIP AND CHILD LABOUR

By JOCELYN DUNLOP and RICHARD D. DENMAN, M.P. The Macmillan Company. 390 pp. Price \$5.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$5.15.

A careful search through century-old records of English cities, guilds, companies and courts of law has resulted in the discovery of a wealth of material which throws bright light on present-day problems of child labor. That neither the work of children nor "the arduous and constant labor of women" are modern phenomena is a fact to be emphasized, if we would deal soberly with conditions to be met today. The records show that both date back several centuries, antedating indeed the industrial revolution which is commonly held responsible for them. "Machine work and factories did not create the evil," say these authors (pp. 303-4). "All they did was to throw it into publicity." The fundamental remedy advocated is not a new social conscience, but "the old sense of responsibility of the public and the employe toward the juvenile workman."

It was of course the organization of guilds which made possible the system of apprenticeship to which later a national stamp was given



by Elizabeth's statute. The system was prompted largely by the self-interest of the gilds and the commercial ambition of the nation, yet the evidence seems to indicate that before the days of tender conscience toward children, careful regulation of industrial conditions mitigated many of the ill effects of children's work. Indeed these authors declare, as a result of their careful researches, that "at the beginning of the eighteenth century the country stood possessed of a great system of general training and technical instruction; great because whatever were its shortcomings, apprenticeship contributed annually to the wealth of the nation a large number of skilled workmen, and moulded the character of a vast number of English boys, whom it then sent out into the world with the ability to keep themselves from want and unemployment" (p. 223).

Then came the breakdown of the system, first, as capitalism grew and independent workmen gave place to dependent wage-earners, and second, as the introduction of machinery further complicated industrial problems. And just at that moment, when enlightened action was most needed, before the new order of industry fastened a new set of evils upon society, public opinion became possessed of the notion that prosperity depended upon the doctrine of *laissez faire*. England and America have not yet recovered from the loss of that opportunity more than a century ago.

This history of child labor with its record of blindness on the part of the public and its positive data showing how much is involved in the present problems of juvenile labor and of children's education, should help to open the eyes of twentieth century citizens both in England and America.

M. V. K.

#### THE CHILD'S DAY. BOOK ONE, WOODS HUTCHINSON HEALTH SERIES

By WOODS HUTCHINSON. Houghton Mifflin Company. 184 pp. Price \$1.40; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.46.

#### THE BOY AND HIS CLUBS

By WILLIAM MCCORMICK. Fleming H. Revell Company. 96 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.58.

#### THE CONSERVATION OF THE CHILD

A manual of clinical psychology presenting the examination and treatment of backward children. By ARTHUR HOLMES. J. B. Lippincott Company. 345 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

#### PROGRESS AND UNIFORMITY IN CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION

A study in statistical measurement. By WILLIAM F. OGBURN. Columbia University. Longmans, Green & Company, agents. 219 pp. Price \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.83.

#### CITIZENS MADE AND REMADE

By WILLIAM R. GEORGE and LYMAN BEECHER STOWE. Houghton Mifflin Company. 264 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

In THE SURVEY for October, it was pointed out that the six books relating to children then reviewed were severally of special value to different groups of readers. The same is true of the five additional books above listed.

Dr. Woods Hutchinson, aided by his sister, Mabel Hutchinson Douglass, who is a professor in Whittier College, Cal., has written sane, alluring and simple suggestions for the care of the child's body for a long, active and happy

child's day. It follows the sound, but all too rarely applied, pedagogical principle of teaching a child what to do instead of telling him what not to do. The children who read the book will enjoy it and it will do them good. If you know school children from the second or third grade to the fifth or sixth you know the readers for whom this book was intended.

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Mr. McCormick has in mind men and women, especially men, and of men especially young men, who are in churches and who are asking what they can do for the boys of their church and community. The writer is in sympathy with the Y. M. C. A., playgrounds, Boy Scouts, out-door gymnasia, Big Brothers, etc., but he believes all these are inadequate and need supplementing in most communities by a boys' club of the mass variety, which the author himself describes as follows:

"And here steps in the boys' club of the mass variety, which catches boys by the wholesale, fascinates them by its fun, entertains them for a penny or two a week, and if properly managed holds them for years, rearing them from their twelve-year-old boyhood into their twenty-one-year-old manhood, and befriending in time their wives, and coddling their babies, and giving to their varied households a friendship and an uplift which they could not anywhere else have found."

There is a seven-nights-a-week, three-hundred-and-sixty-five-days-a-year appeal to boys in the author's plan that compares favorably with the always-open-for-business method of the saloon.

The young men of the churches who want to do something for the boys should read Mr. McCormick's little book.

\* \* \*

Professor Holmes has a message for teachers, superintendents of institutions for defective, dependent and delinquent children, secretaries of placing-out agencies and intelligent parents. Many among the above classes of persons are becoming daily more keenly conscious of the problem of the unusual child as one who so deviates in conduct from the majority of children that he does not respond to the ordinary methods of care, education and discipline. It is more and more evident that such children need special consideration to enable them to make the most of themselves and also to protect other children from the doubtful results of intimacy with them. We are also learning rapidly that the parents, teachers, doctors, and social workers too often in the stress of the day's work have neither the time nor the ability for such special study of these atypical children as will reveal the essential nature of their peculiarities and will suggest the best plans for future care and training. During the last few years, therefore, there have been started in several cities clinics specially equipped with the necessary apparatus and directed by specially trained men and women to give such an examination supplemented by prolonged study and observation, if necessary,



as will lead to the best possible diagnosis and prognosis of the physical, mental and moral deviations of the children studied. Dr. Holmes's book is based upon the work of the Psychological Clinic founded by Dr. Lightner Witmer of the University of Pennsylvania. It is a clear, interesting and simple statement of the methods used in the examination and classification of all atypical children. There is a brief story of the evolution of method in dealing with defective children and the reader is repeatedly informed that the methods of the clinic will give results of value to the child and to society only when used by specially trained and experienced men and women.

Cock-sure and off-hand decisions that a child is or is not incurably feeble-minded must not be made by inexperienced persons who have become enamored by the fascinating classifications of the Binet and other tests.

In short, the author makes it clear how necessary it is that all persons who care for children should know how to aid in securing the best possible psychological examination of atypical children, but also makes it equally clear that it is the duty of all such persons not to become psychological quacks or to trust in them.

It is exasperating to the earnest worker who ought frequently to refer to the valuable discussion of this book, to find that it has no index.

\* \* \*

A fourth audience of students and legislators is addressed by Dr. Ogburn. While his book is a statistical study of complex details and is crammed with tables and curves of statistics, a layman, even though he be a legislator, should be able to get help from this study in getting a clear view of the status of labor legislation in his own state compared with that in all the other states in the country.

The study covers all the laws relating to the labor of children, some five hundred in all, enacted by all the states and territories from 1879 to 1909. These laws are compared in respect to six essential provisions:—age limit, hours of labor, educational qualifications, working papers, enforcement by inspectors and enforcement by penalty. As a striking example of progress in legislation, Table LXXXVI shows the number of different states that had two or more of the above six provisions at the end of each five year period. For example, in 1879 seven states had laws with provisions relating only to hours of labor and penalty and none had provisions relating to all six of the essential provisions. In 1909 there were still seven states that had only the two provisions relating to hours of labor and penalty, but twenty-two states had laws with all six of the essential provisions. The statistical niceties of the study may perplex the uninitiated, but any intelligent reader can readily compare the situation of child labor legislation in any state with the situation in all the other states during the thirty-year period studied.

The study is unique in attempting to show quantitative differences as well as qualitative differences in child labor laws.

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And, finally, Mr. George and Mr. Stowe speak to all who are interested in the training of citizens for a democracy. Mr. George has himself told the detailed story of the George Junior Republic of Freeville, N. Y., in a former book—*The Junior Republic*.

His remarkable personality and his experiment at Freeville furnish the primary inspiration for this book also, but Mr. Stowe who actually writes the book has gleaned further data from experiments in democracy in public schools, orphan asylums, the public streets and self-governing communities composed largely of adventurers and criminals. Mr. George has until recently felt that there must be an economic basis for effective self-government. Since the winter of 1911, however, he has changed his mind.

"As a result of personal investigation of certain schools having methods of pupil self-government, Mr. George came to the conclusion that organized public opinion, even without an economic basis, was in itself a powerful enough force to make self-government effective. Since then he has been as keen an advocate of self-government in general as of the type of self-government exemplified in junior republics."

Not only do the authors believe that self-government is a necessary means of educating young people to citizenship in a democracy, but that it is equally necessary to the re-education of so-called criminals. A unique series of self-governing communities into which and out of which the criminal can go only as a result of the judgment of his fellow citizens in each community is proposed by Mr. George, and he is ready to stake his reputation on the successful working of his plan.

In the kindergarten, children help to decide how to work and play together. Can anyone doubt the power of persons from the kindergarten to old age to do the same thing if they get the proper incentives and opportunity? If we really believe in democracy—in the self-government of a people—we cannot lightly dismiss the problem of educating our people for their job. We have differed widely over the forms which different self-government plans for young people should take, but this is beside the main question—can young people and older people really learn to play a team game in any other way than by having a chance to practice playing a team game? Mr. George and Mr. Stowe say "no" and what is more to the point they make out a pretty strong case that in small groups at least we can and do learn to play a team game when we get a real chance to practice. As for the rules of the game the reviewer believes there is only one safe plan to follow: there must be only such rules as grow out of the needs of the game itself and not any lugged in from some other game.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

#### THE NEW CITY GOVERNMENT

By HENRY BRUERE, Director of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research. D. Appleton & Co. 438 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

Summarizing in this volume his conclusions from a field study of ten commission governed



cities, Mr. Bruere declares that the most conspicuous effect of this much lauded new plan of municipal administration seems to have been upon public improvements. While characterizing commission government as "an inspiring manifestation of democratic self-reliance," he feels that we need, in commission cities as well as in our larger and older municipalities, a broader social sense and better technique in administrative methods.

Commission government, he declares, "has no marked social welfare impetus. As an illustration of this may be pointed out the conspicuous neglect of health activities in many of the cities studied. The city prison in Des Moines for which the city is responsible is a national disgrace. Like prison conditions exist in other commission governed cities. The jails in Topeka, Kan., and in Dallas would be a blot upon any city government. . . . No commission in any city visited has adequate facts upon which it can base a program for city service. Des Moines does not even report its vital statistics nor register tuberculosis." Chicago, New York, Boston, and other cities, in his opinion, have proceeded farther toward placing the selection and retention of civil employes on the basis of fitness than have the commission cities. Another criticism he advances is that commission government has failed in most instances to utilize the splendid equipment of the school for recreational and educational work among the people.

The results of carefully planned tests designed to show how commission government differs from ordinary government as to program, method and accomplishments, are presented in chapters on Accounting and Reporting Methods, Budget Making, Purchasing and Store Keeping, Public Works Administration, Protection of Persons and Property, Protection of Life and Health, Selection and Training of Personnel, and Citizen Control and Co-operation. These tests lead the author to conclude that commission government's centralization of power and elimination of useless formalities are assets of great value in planning efficiency effort rather than a solution of what Ambassador Bryce has termed "our most conspicuous failure." The book constitutes a valuable addition to the literature on improved city administration and is distinctive in method and in treatment from previous volumes published upon the merits of commission government in operation.

J. P. H.

#### THE TASK OF SOCIAL HYGIENE

By HAYLOCK ELLIS. Houghton Mifflin Company. 414 pp. Price \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.63.

In this interpretation of his vast store of knowledge of the psychological and social aspects of sex, one of the greatest English eugenicists gives in popular and exceedingly readable form the elements that go to make up the social hygiene movement, a movement which he believes to be the most important development in reform in the last hundred years. Older forms of nineteenth century reform—sanitation, factory legislation, public education and the care of the infant before and after birth—are,

in his phrase, the "strengthening of the banks of the stream of life." Social hygiene or eugenics is the purifying of the stream itself.

While like many eugenicists Mr. Ellis fails, explicitly at any rate, to recognize the direct and important effect on the purity of the stream of the careful guarding of its banks, he does not fail to recognize the direct connection between the stream of life and its sources, the "breeders of men." To the woman movement, especially in its modern form as a movement for the freedom of the mother, he looks as one of the great sources of social hygiene. Closely connected with this, he recognizes two other movements, or rather tendencies, looking toward the improvement of the race. These are the loosening up of divorce laws and the steady fall of the birth rate in all countries of the civilized world during the last generation. To the latter subject he devotes a chapter, rich in facts and figures, analyzing the forces, many of them unconscious, which under a high civilization tend to prevent a "waste in births" but keep population steady by "economy in deaths."

These are existing eugenic tendencies. Equally important with them, is the tendency just in its beginnings to replace blind instinct in love by the purposeful selection of a mate fitted physically and morally to continue the race. Mr. Ellis's treatment of this subject is on a particularly high plane. He repudiates legislation or any other method of compulsory "stock breeding" as both impracticable and beneath the spiritual dignity of the race. He believes that "man can only be bred upward through the medium of wisdom and will, working together under the control of a social responsibility that has become a religion." The task of social hygiene is therefore, in the opinion of this co-worker with Francis Galton, no less than that of moral education, which aims gradually to "modify social conventions, enter family life, transform the moral outlook and inspire our religion and philosophy."

Some of the moral and intellectual possibilities of the race of the future, governed by these new social sanctions, are hinted at in the chapters on the war against war, an international language, and the struggle between individualism and Socialism. The latter struggle promises, in Mr. Ellis's prophetic view, to be settled in the new society by the recognition that the interests of the whole and of the individual are one, and that in the last analysis, social hygiene is the hygiene of each individual soul.

M. B. S.

#### THE NEW IMMIGRATION

By PETER ROBERTS. PH. D. The Macmillan Company, 386 pp. Price \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.74.

Like a rapidly running picture film accompanied by a lecture, this very human document on immigrant life in America flashes out hundreds of quick, picturesque anecdotes concerning our newcomers of the last thirty years, and weaves them all into a convincing discussion of the immigration problem.

The quality of sympathetic narration that



marks Professor Steiner's work is felt here also, although there has been an effort in this case to make a fairly comprehensive survey of the entire field rather than to throw a shaft of light on a few singled out aspects of it. The book is possibly the least academic and most intimate and graphic view of the actual living and working conditions of our immigrants that has yet appeared. To give his conclusions general backing, the author draws freely upon the findings of the Federal Immigration Commission and previous investigations. The volume is well captioned and indexed for class use and admirably suited to the purpose of study groups in immigration.

Beginning with the immigrant's passage to America and his trials at the Babelmandeb or "Gate of Tears" at Ellis Island, the author follows the farmer from southeastern Europe into his city tenement home and into the industrial moil of a lusty, growing nation; studies the natural maladjustments and the struggle toward adaptation; strikes in rapid succession to the heart of the various problems of the immigrant and the community in their relation to each other; and concludes with the thesis that complete assimilation can come only through a radical change of attitude on the part of native-born Americans.

"The greatest obstacle today in the United States to the assimilation of the immigrants, is the prejudice and antipathy of the native born." Declaring that isolation is stagnation, he says: "Legislative action and private organization can do much for immigrants, but most effective of all remedies is personal contact. If this personal touch is secured, the immigration problem will be solved in the light of the brotherhood of man and the spirit of our democracy."

The author argues that immigration to the United States is not merely a national problem, but international. Instead of considering only America's interests in enacting laws regulating immigration and emigration, the interests of all nations concerned should be given an opportunity for expression, possibly at an international conference.

W. D. P.

#### BOOKS RECEIVED IN NOVEMBER

- MAN OR MACHINE—WHICH? By Al Priddy. The Pilgrim Press. 111 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 83 cents.
- THE VICAR'S EXCURSION OR THE CHURCH—WHY? By Du Bois Loux. The Workers' Press. 158 pp. Price postpaid \$1.25.
- STUDIES IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH COMMERCE IN THE TUDOR PERIOD. By Armand J. Gerson. D. Appleton & Co. 344 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.11.
- THE CHALLENGE OF THE COUNTRY. By George Walter Fiske. Association Press. 283 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 84 cents.
- CIVICS IN SIMPLE LESSONS FOR FOREIGNERS. By Anna A. Plass. D. C. Heath & Co. 192 pp. Price 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 57 cents.
- ENGLAND'S INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT. By Arthur D. Innes. The Macmillan Company. 374 pp. Price \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.70.
- ENGLISH FOR FOREIGNERS: Book Two. By Sara O'Brien. Houghton Mifflin Company. 246 pp. Price 70 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 79 cents.
- GUTTER-BABIES. By Dorothea Slade. Houghton Mifflin Company. 341 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

- HYGIENE FOR THE WORKER. By William H. Tolman, Ph.D. American Book Company. 225 pp. Price 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 57 cents.
- MEDICAL BENEFIT IN GERMANY AND DENMARK. By I. G. Gibbon. P. S. King & Son. 296 pp. Price \$1.70 (including duty); by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.82.
- THE BUSINESS OF BEING A WOMAN. By Ida M. Tarbell. The Macmillan Company. 242 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.
- HISTORICAL SOCIOLOGY. By Frank Granger. Methuen & Co.; E. P. Dutton & Co., agents. 241 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.44.
- IN OTHER WORDS. By Franklin P. Adams. Doubleday, Page & Co. 151 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.
- ORGANIZED LABOR, ITS PROBLEMS AND HOW TO MEET THEM. By A. J. Portenar. The Macmillan Company. 134 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.
- HIMSELF. TALKS WITH MEN CONCERNING THEMSELVES. By E. B. Lowry, M.D. Forbes & Co. 216 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.
- THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF AN INDIVIDUALIST. By James O. Fagan. Houghton Mifflin Company. 290 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.
- THE MILK QUESTION. By M. J. Rosenau. Houghton Mifflin Company. 309 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.
- THROUGH THE SCHOOL. By Al Priddy. The Pilgrim Press. 404 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

## JOTTINGS

#### PROBATION CONFERENCE

The Fifth New York State Conference of Probation Officers will convene at Syracuse November 19. The subjects on the program refer about equally to juvenile and adult probation, and include the following: feeble-minded delinquents; annual reports and helpful newspaper publicity; probation associations; probation in cases of men guilty of crime against property; special problems of women probation officers; probation in rural communities; lessons from the recent inquiries in the Chicago Juvenile Court; important phases of juvenile probation; cases of adult contributory delinquency. The conference is intended not only for probation officers, but others interested in the subject.

#### THE ILLINOIS CONFERENCE

The sessions of the seventeenth Illinois State Conference of Charities and Correction, October 19-22, were reinforced by an exhibit which was visited by hundreds of the residents of Springfield, the conference city. The address of Alexander Johnson on the opening day on Social Causes of Distress sounded the keynote of the entire week. Right through the program of the general meetings ran the idea that the problems being dealt with were community rather than individual problems, and that as such they demanded the intelligent co-operation of all the men and women of the state.

Perhaps a natural result of this trend of discussion was a luncheon at which a number of Springfield people expressed themselves as favoring a complete social survey of the capital city. The sanitary survey, carried out last year by Dr. George T. Palmer, health commissioner, gives Springfield an important lead in this field and it is felt that by rounding it out, a demon-



stration can be made which will be of value to the whole state.

Officers for the 1913 conference to be held at Rockford are: president, Dr. F. Emory Lyon, Chicago; first vice-president, Mrs. W. E. Simonds, Galesburg; second vice-president, Col. Henry Davis, Springfield; secretary, A. E. Bowen, Springfield.

#### PLAGUE AND FEDERAL QUARANTINE

More than once THE SURVEY has presented reasons for placing the whole of the quarantine service under federal control. Dr. W. F. Brunner, who was in charge of the United States Marine Hospital Station at Havana from April, 1897, until the flag was taken down from the American consulate, and who later, inspected returning troops, has seized upon the present fear that bubonic plague may enter this country to renew this demand. Dr. Brunner believes the plague is coming—some time. The New York *Times* recently quoted him as follows: "In a case of plague you could not quarantine one state against another. The plague would be apt to last two or three years, and this would kill commerce. Then, too, a transmissible disease doesn't respect a state boundary line. A national quarantine in every port would be our greatest safeguard. What wiped out the San Francisco plague? Only the earthquake and the fire that wiped out Chinatown. We cannot afford to burn up a city, and we had better get to work on a uniform national quarantine service. It is easier to prevent than to cure."

#### NEW SLOGAN: "BAT THE RAT"

Campaigns of individual aggressiveness against animals that are spreaders of disease are likely to multiply, especially since the "swat the fly" program has been so effective. "Bat the rat" is the latest slogan of the sanitarians. The Chicago Department of Health urges the pursuance of such a campaign because rats and their fleas are spreaders of bubonic plague. Unlike flies, they are with us the year round. The timeliness of the suggestion lies in the fact that bubonic plague has been more or less prevalent during the past summer at Porto Rico, Havana and other points near the American seaboard.

#### A NEW WEAPON AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS

At a meeting of the State Board of Health, held in Columbus recently, steps were taken to co-operate with the Ohio Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis in a campaign to secure an appropriation of \$25,000 per year for two years by the approaching general assembly. This appropriation will be asked to enable the State Board of Health to create a division of tuberculosis under its jurisdiction. The division, it is planned, will be in hands of experts and will carry on an aggressive campaign of education, aimed at tuberculosis prevention. The Committee on Public Policy and Legislation of the Ohio State Medical Association will join in asking the next legislature to grant the appropriation.

#### SALE OF MILK IN NEW YORK

The New York City Board of Health has adopted a resolution aimed to strengthen the safeguards surrounding the sale of so-called "dipped" or "loose" milk. Under its terms it will be illegal after June 1, 1913, to sell milk dipped from cans except in approved milk stores under permits from the Board of Health or in stores in which food-stuffs other than milk products are sold in original packages only. It is pointed out that many of the 14,000 places where "dipped" milk is sold in New York are grocery stores where many other commodities are handled in a manner which must necessarily cause much dust. Moreover, the facilities for proper cleansing of utensils, for the protection of the milk from flies and for proper icing are often very inadequate. In too many cases, it is declared, the room where the milk is sold communicates directly with living apartments.

#### CATHOLICS ON SOCIAL NEEDS

Some seventy men followed the course on social questions given at Fordham University last summer. Most of those in attendance lived in Greater New York but a few came from points as far distant as Buffalo and Pittsburgh. The lecturers were Rev. H. J. Maeckel, Rev. J. A. Ryan and David Goldstein, the whole field of social problems, including the labor problem, being covered briefly.

This is the third year in which such lecture courses have been held under the auspices of the German Catholic Central Verein, one being given annually in the East and one in the West. During the three years the course has been given the number of those in attendance has steadily increased from year to year and the German-American Catholics have given their co-religionists of other nationalities an example of constructive work along the line of social study. At the close of the Fordham conference there was formed an organization for continuous study under the name of the Eastern Study Circle.

#### TRAINING SOCIAL WORKERS IN GEORGIA

A training school for social workers proved to be as much needed in the mill towns of Georgia as in the crowded industrial cities of the North. In a recent issue of the *Churchman* Henry Disbrow Phillips, director of the settlement at La Grange, Ga., which has recently opened such a school, tells of conditions among native American textile workers and of the work and influence of his settlement among them.

#### NEW DISTRICT OPENED

Last month, the Charity Organization Society of New York opened a new district, known as the "Jefferson District." It covers the territory between 90th Street and 116th Street east of Central Park and Seventh Avenue. Ruth F. Waldo, formerly assistant district secretary in the Harlem District, has been appointed secretary in charge.



# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 8

November 23, 1912

n.p.

ANNOUNCING  
THE  
SURVEY ASSOCIATES  
INC.



*An adventure in co-operative journalism*

Founded in the '90's by the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York,—entrusted in 1905 to a National Publication Committee,—THE SURVEY has now been turned over by the parent society to an independent organization, open to its readers.

From the start, the magazine and its related activities have been broadly conceived as an educational enterprise, to be employed and developed beyond the limits of advertising and commercial receipts. Over 700 readers contributed \$10 or more towards its budget the past year—twice the number of the year preceding.

With this democratic, convinced backing as a natural membership base, the Survey Associates becomes in fact—what THE SURVEY has long been in spirit—a mutual enterprise.

*Will you join its fellowship?*

This Issue Includes Annual Report Section

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

### Child Labor

National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y.  
25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

### Recreation Bibliography

Division of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City. Pamphlet containing a list of the more formal publications, with annotations, and an extensive list of magazine articles dealing with the subject of recreation. Price 10 cents per copy.

### Tuberculosis

National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M. D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., will be sent upon request. Annual Transactions and other publications free to members.

### Working Women

National Women's Trade Union League, to better industrial conditions through organization and legislation. Information given. "Life and Labor," events in industrial world. Three months for 25c. Mrs. Raymond Robins, Pres., 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

### Prison Labor

National Committee on Prison Labor, 27 E. 22d St., N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stagg Whitin, Ph.D., Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. \$5 a year.

### Child Helping

Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York.  
Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

### Conservation of Infant Life.

American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request.  
Studies preventable causes of death and illness; urges birth registration, maternal nursing, parental instruction.

### Sex Hygiene

Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis. Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y 22 affiliated societies.  
Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

### Mental Hygiene

National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City. Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of the insane, social service in mental hygiene. State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

### Women in Industry

National Consumers' League, 106 East 19th St., New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, Gen'l Sec'y. 87 branch leagues. Reports, pamphlets sent on request. Minimum membership fee \$1.00 includes current pamphlets. Minimum wages boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

### Young Women

National Board, Y. W. C. A., 600 Lexington Ave., N. Y. C. Official magazine: *The Association Monthly*. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge, Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty. The advancement of Christian Social Service. Free literature (all departments).

### The American Seamen's Friend Society

Rev. J. B. Calvert, D.D., pres. George McPherson Hunter, Sec'y.  
The national seamen's society has stations in the United States and abroad, relieves shipwrecked and destitute seamen. Annual membership includes all literature, \$5.00 a year. C. C. Pinneo, Treas., 76 Wall Street.

### Recreation

Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.  
Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

### Mental Deficiency

The American Association for the study of the feeble-minded, publishes the proceedings and papers of its annual meetings in the *Journal of Psycho Asthenics*. Address Dr. A. C. Rogers, secretary, at Faribault, Minnesota.

### School Hygiene

American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M. D., Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M. D., College of the City of New York, New York.  
Yearly congresses and proceedings.

### National Health

Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Executive Secretary, Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York.  
To unite all the government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

### Evening Clubs for Girls

National League of Women Workers  
Hotel Savoy, New York.  
Organizing Sec'y., Jean Hamilton.  
Recreation and instruction in self-governing and self-supporting groups for girls over working age. Monthly magazine—"The Club Worker" Twenty-five cents 1 year.

### Labor Legislation

Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws.  
Official publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.  
American Association for Labor Legislation, Metropolitan Tower, New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

### Short Ballot and Commission Government

The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, President; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters*.

### Municipal Problems

National Municipal League, 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

### Charities and Correction

THE PROCEEDINGS of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. BUREAU OF INFORMATION on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 2, 1913.



# INFORMATION DESK

Continued from preceding page

## Charity Organization

Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.

To study, teach and publish in the charity organization field. Pamphlets on family treatment, community study, relief, transportation, etc., sent free.

## The Church and Social Service

The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service.

For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

## Unitarian Social Advance

The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service.

Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees. Rev. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

## Social Betterment for Negroes

National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, 281 Fourth Avenue, E. R. A. Seligman, Chairman; G. E. Haynes, Director. Develops welfare agencies. Trains social workers. Aids travelers. Supports probation officers. Seeks industrial opportunities. Correspondence invited.

## Home and Institutional Economics

American Home Economics Association, for Home, Institution, and School. Publishes Journal of Home Economics, 600 pp. per vol. \$2.00 per year. Conducts Graduate School of Home Economics. Meeting: Boston, December 31, 1912—Address, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.

## Aid for Travelers

The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex.

For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Secy., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

## Eugenics

EUGENICS RECORD OFFICE, COLD SPRING HARBOR, L. I., N. Y. (American Breeders Assoc., Eugenics Sect., Charles B. Davenport, Sec.). Membership \$2. a year. National repository of data on hereditary family traits. Schedules for family records furnished free. Advice as to suitable matings. Publications at cost. H. H. LAUGHLIN, Supt.

## The Smoke Nuisance

Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement; How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

## Presbyterian Social Service

Bureau of Social Service, The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rev. Charles Stelzle, Supt., 156 Fifth Avenue, New York.

Sociological surveys made. Clearing house for city problems of the Church. "Downtown Church" Labor Temple, New York. Literature free.

## Studies in Social Christianity

Oct.: Growth and Causes of Crime. Nov.: Treatment of the Criminal. Dec.: Prevention of Crime.

See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York City. Price 50c. per year.

## Methodist Social Service

Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature; Bureau of Information, Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; Invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities.

Rev. Harry F. Ward, Secy., 343 S. Oak Park Ave., Oak Park, Ill.

## Negro and Race Problems

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 26 Vesey Street, New York. O. G. Villard, Chairman, Board of Directors; M. C. Nerney, Secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, Director Publicity. Publishes Crisis Magazine. Investigation, Legal Redress, Literature, Lectures, Lantern Slides.

## Probation

National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y.

Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

## Boy Scouts

National Headquarters of the Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Ave., New York City. James E. West, Chief Scout Executive. Local Councils organized in principal cities, towns and counties. Literature on request. Monthly magazine, "Boys' Life" \$1 a year. Memberships: Associate \$3, Sustaining \$10.

## Surveys and Exhibits

Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, 31 Union Square, New York City. A national clearing house for advice and information on social surveys and exhibits and for field assistance in organizing surveys and exhibits.

## City Planning

National City Planning Conference 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at \$5 a Year Includes All Literature.

## Organized Charity

American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City.

To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs, in the United States.

## Church and Country Life

Department of Board of Home Missions of Presbyterian Church. Warren H. Wilson, Supt., Anna B. Taft, Asst., 156 Fifth Ave.; makes sociological surveys of rural populations; conferences, graduate summer schools for country ministers, literature for rural workers.

## Baptist Social Service

Baptist Department of Social Service and Brotherhood.

To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies.

S. Z. Batten, Secretary, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

## Episcopal Social Service

The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

## Congregational Social Service Agency

The Congregational Brotherhood of America, Henry A. Atkinson, Secretary, 19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Ill. Programs and information furnished. Study Course: Speakers' Bureau; Publications. Service available for Institutes, Conferences and Addresses. Correspondence and inquiries invited.

## Immigration

National Conference of Immigration, Land, and Labor Officials, 22 East 30th Street, F. A. Kellor, Sec. Information affecting aliens after admission, especially in reference to labor, land, education, protection and distribution. No matters of admission or restriction dealt with.

## Remedial Loans

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.

Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

## Immigration

North American Civic League for Immigrants, New York-New Jersey Committee, 95 Madison Ave., N. Y. C. Protection, Education, Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants. Printed material furnished upon request. Grace E. J. Parker, General Secretary.



## THE PITH OF IT

**"BETTER** be careful than crippled," said a railway safety expert. He expressed the dominant view of the First Co-operative Safety Congress. P. 222.

**A**MERICA is looking for instruments to develop her citizens and isolated communities into a real "body politic." Is the pageant a tool to her hand? Can it be used in metropolis and village alike? Can it be made to pay for itself? Philadelphia, says William Chauncy Langdon, has by her historical pageant, performed before thousands, answered these questions in the affirmative for the large city. P. 215.

**"BOY WANTED"** shouts the factory to the school and every Tom, Dick and Harry, and now-a-days Sadie and Nellie too, drops textbook and at the age of twelve or fourteen rushes out to a job. Months later, often years, they are right where they started. The remedy, it is being insistently declared, lies in a bracing up of industry and a reconstruction of education. P. 225.

**I**N purchasing what will be the first city farm for inebriates in the United States, New York chose 800 acres where agricultural and industrial occupations will be supplemented by direct contact with nature. P. 209.

**T**HERE is a factory in New York where molten lead is employed as a tempering agent. Nine men work there. It has been in operation one year and during that time nine men have had lead poisoning. Yet the paymaster asked: "Why! Is lead dangerous?" Some evidence that it is. P. 229.

**SUFFERING** in the Balkans is intense. The sick and wounded will need care for weeks and cholera is adding its horrors to one of the bloodiest of modern wars. Every country involved has appealed to the American Red Cross for aid. P. 212.

**T**HE question "Who owns the church?" is going to be emphatically answered "the whole people," says Rev. Joseph Ernest McAfee, and when the owners take hold religion and politics will no longer be carried in separate sealed compartments. Only this week, as Graham Taylor points out, the federated protestant churches have shown their concern with conditions which affect civic patriotism as deeply as they touch religious idealism. P. 234.

**O**UT of the uncertainty and half-knowledge which shroud the eugenics movement to-day there stand forth a few established facts. On these we must move a step at a time in our progress toward race betterment. Amey B. Eaton, of the Department of Social Science, University of Utah, reviews the leading features of the movement on page 242.

## THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE  
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**VAT-VARNISHING** as a hazardous industry. P. 211.

**T**HE war in Europe has awakened many Americans to the characteristics of a new group of immigrants. Some facts about the Bulgarian in America. P. 212.

**B**ROOKLYN is fast becoming the greater city's biggest problem on the social side. What will Manhattan contribute toward carrying the burden she is shifting, asks Francis H. McLean. P. 246.



# THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

VOLUME XXIX. No. 8

NOVEMBER 23, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### FIRST CITY FARM FOR INEBRIATES

The site for the first municipal farm for inebriates in this country was recently purchased by New York. State farms exist in Massachusetts, Iowa and Minnesota, the last having adopted this method of caring for inebriates only a short time ago. Buffalo is agitating the question of following New York's example, and those who favor the move are hopeful of securing action this winter.

The New York Board of Inebriety, appointed in accordance with an amendment to the city charter passed two years ago by the state legis-

lature, chose a farm of 800 acres in Orange County, near Greycourt, sixty miles from the city. The next act of the board, it is said, will be to fit up buildings for fifty inmates, who will then be used in the construction of new buildings, doing the necessary grading and clearing.

Orange county is in the best agricultural district in the eastern part of the state and the site chosen is declared to be one of the best farming tracts ever devoted to institutional purposes in New York. It has on it 150 acres of black fertile soil, the bottom of an old glacial lake. This is well adapted to truck gardening and commands high prices in the land market. In addi-



WHERE NEW YORK CITY WILL CARE FOR HER INEBRIATES



tion the farm has much tillable and meadow land. There are three sets of farm buildings, an old manor house and one other dwelling, built of brick made from clay underlying some of the lower meadow land, and a lime kiln valuable for agricultural and building purposes. There is some good building sand. The water supply consists of springs, and two-thirds of a 200-acre fresh water lake lies within the property. This adds to the attractiveness of



THE OLD MANOR HOUSE

Built long ago of bricks made from clay taken from lowlands on the farm.

the scenery and offers splendid sloping sites for buildings and cottages.

In accordance with the law creating the board, it is charged with the duty of "providing a hospital and industrial colony for the care, treatment and occupation of inebriates." It is also charged with the general supervision of the problem for public intoxication and inebriety for

the whole city. It thus becomes its duty to provide probationary help to all persons convicted

the whole city. It thus becomes its duty to provide probationary help to all persons convicted



CONTACT WITH NATURE IS NATURE'S CURE FOR BREAKDOWNS

This shows one chance which the farm will give the inebriate. Agriculture and industry in wholesome surroundings will also form essential parts of the treatment.



of public intoxication in the police courts of New York.

The creation of a municipal board with such duties is regarded as an encouraging sign that city and state governments are rapidly realizing the necessity of rational treatment of inebriety and vagrancy as well as of other minor offenses. The effect of the board in New York on the treatment of other offenders is already marked. The chief magistrate of the police courts has already urged the creation of a similar colony to deal with women offenders, such colony to take the place of the present workhouse. The idea that the city must discontinue sending its vagrants and petty offenders to the workhouse and must provide colony treatment for them also is rapidly gaining ground throughout the nation. In New York the site for a state farm for vagrants has already been procured. Since the purchase of the New York farm for inebriates Bailey B. Burritt, assistant secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, said: "The progress in the direction of providing wholesome surroundings, supervision of offenders by men of large ability and kindly human interests, and the provision of occupation for all, though at times seemingly slow, is very real."

#### BEER AND BLINDNESS

Thursday morning, February 9, 1911, John O'Neill and another man went to work in a New York brewery varnishing the inside of vats. Sunday morning, three days later, dawned to find John O'Neill dead and his companion totally blind.

The terrible swiftness with which this calamity made its appearance was due, according to the June, 1912, *Bulletin* of the New York Department of Labor, to the use of wood alcohol in its varnish and to the lack of ventilation in the enclosed vats where it was being applied. The *Bulletin* states:

"These vats were of wood like great casks eight or ten feet high with no openings except a small one at the top a few inches in diameter for the entrance of pipes and an oval opening in the side at the bottom slightly larger than a man's body through which a workman could enter by crawling prone. On the first day the men worked from 7 A. M. to 5 P. M. Thirty minutes were required to varnish a vat, after which the workers had an interval of twenty minutes in the open air. The usual time allowed between working periods was

thirty minutes, but in this instance only twenty minutes were allowed." On the second and third days the men worked only from 10 A. M. to 5 P. M. with the same rest periods as before.

Frank Marshall White in *Fair Play*,<sup>1</sup> tells the story of the tragic death of John O'Neill. The physician's death certificates gave epilepsy as the cause. The deputy coroner, Dr. Weston, was not satisfied and performed an autopsy.

"Your husband did not die from epilepsy, but as the result of wood alcohol poisoning," Dr. Weston told Mrs. O'Neill after he had made the post mortem examination.

"And then the horror of the situation was revealed. It seems that the varnish or shellac with which the insides of the brewery vats are coated may be made either with wood alcohol or with grain alcohol. Grain alcohol costs three dollars per gallon, while the same quantity of wood alcohol costs only fifty cents. It requires about six gallons of varnish to coat the inside of each vat, so that by the use of wood instead of grain alcohol some fifteen dollars per vat may be saved. Hence if a brewery contains several hundred vats, the saving in the use of the cheaper alcohol amounts to a considerable sum. However, while wood alcohol makes just as good a varnish for brewery purposes as grain alcohol, wood alcohol is an active poison and almost certain to cause blindness and death to the workmen inside of the vats if they are subjected to its fumes long. O'Neill had become blind before he sunk into the final stupor on the night before he died, as is shown by the fact that he thought his wife had put out the lights in their living room."

Suit was brought against the brewing company in both cases and each has been settled out of court for "a very substantial sum."

The Department of Labor has issued a pamphlet telling the story of these cases and has sent a copy to every brewer in the state with this accompanying explanation and warning:

"The article is being sent to all proprietors of breweries in this state in order to bring to their attention the danger to employees attending the use of wood alcohol in such work. The case here described would seem to make it clear that both motives of humanity and possible liability for damages ought to lead brewery proprietors to use every means to avoid such apparently easily preventable disasters."

Another way of avoiding such risk is to use vats lined with enamel or glass. Varnishing then becomes unnecessary; the



WOODEN BREWERY VAT

The workman has to crawl through the oval man-hole near the bottom in order to varnish the interior. Some of the vats are ten feet high.

<sup>1</sup>*Fair Play*, April 20, 1912.



interior can be washed out from time to time with a hose, and both the workman and the public are protected. The more progressive brewers are now using these sanitary vats.

#### SUFFERING IN THE BALKANS

The possibility of an early armistice in the Balkan war in no wise diminishes the need of money to care for the sick and wounded. Suffering will continue during many weeks and the troops will in all probability remain under arms in the field throughout a severe winter. Requests for assistance have been received by the American Red Cross from the Red Cross Societies of the four Balkan states and from the Turkish Red Crescent Society. The Greek Red Cross asked that surgeons, nurses and medical supplies be sent. The Montenegrin Red Cross asked for surgeons. The other societies asked for money.

The American Red Cross at first considered seriously the sending of field hospitals fully equipped with nurses, surgeons, tents, medicines, etc. This idea was abandoned, however, because it would probably have been impossible to send a field hospital to each of the contending countries and because, further, the indications have been that the war would be of short duration and the time required for assembling field hospitals with their proper personnel and forwarding them to the seat of war might have delayed the arrival of the assistance until after the close of the conflict.

President Taft, as president of the American Red Cross, early issued an appeal to the people of the country to contribute toward the fund for the relief of sick and wounded soldiers. This appeal reached the press on the night on which Theodore Roosevelt was shot in Milwaukee, with the result that most newspapers omitted its publication altogether and those which did give it space cut it to an inch or two and it was practically lost to the public. Another appeal followed from the International Relief Board of the Red Cross. It was not until the war had been in operation for several weeks that the American people began to appreciate the tremendous hardship and suffering which were resulting from it. All advices, both to the Red Cross and to the press of the nation, indicate that it has been one of the bloodiest and most fiercely contested wars of modern times. The intense spirit of patriotism which has characterized the countries engaged is evidenced by the statement that substantially every able-bodied man in Serbia has volunteered to fight. In the other states the patriotism and valor has been no less notable. Turkey, as the object of attack from four adjoining states and as the losing combatant, has been the heaviest sufferer. Famine has followed in the wake of invading armies

and terrible distress is reported among the non-combatants. To make matters worse an epidemic of cholera has apparently made its appearance among both Turkish and allied troops. Information on this point is fragmentary and unreliable but our embassy at Constantinople has reported to the American Red Cross that the disease has assumed menacing proportions. Press dispatches declare that Turkish soldiers holding the line of fortifications at Tchatalja, in front of Constantinople, suffered heavily from it and that it quickly spread to the attacking Bulgarian troops. An eye-witness is said to have declared that he saw 263 corpses dragged by hooks and dropped into one trench in a single day.

Now that the election is past and the reports of frightful suffering in the Balkan peninsula are being verified it is believed that the response of the American people will be generous. On Tuesday the Red Cross had sent \$41,000. Contributions may be sent to the American Red Cross, Washington, D. C., to Jacob H. Schiff, New York, or to any state or local treasurer of the Red Cross with instructions as to the destination desired.

Queen Olga of Greece has appealed to the Greek newspaper published in New York for aid for the stricken women and children who have been left destitute by the depredations of Turkish troops before abandoning the villages and towns to the conquering armies.

## THE BULGARIAN IN AMERICA

PETER ROBERTS

Secretary International Committee Y. M. C. A.

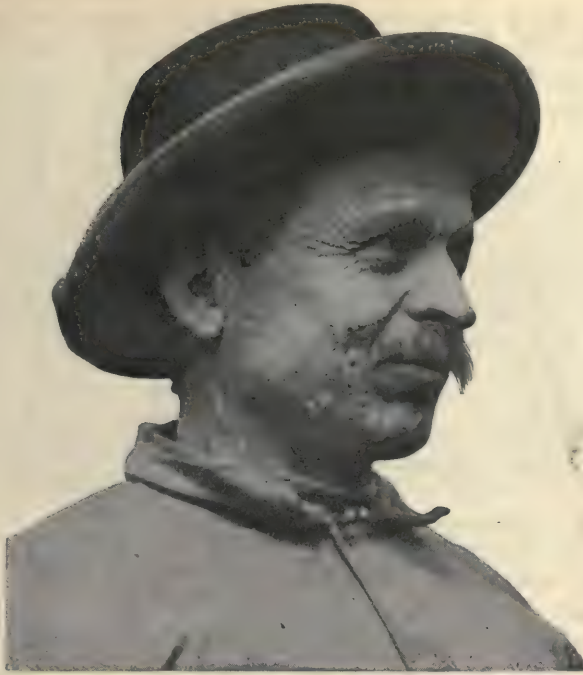
Ten years ago, the Bulgarians in America were few and far between; today, it is estimated that they number about 30,000. They are among the newer immigrants and are subjected to all the inconveniences of a people finding out the nature of a new country. Not all Bulgarians come from Bulgaria; many come from Macedonia. They are brothers, but as among other immigrants, many jealousies and conflicts are found among those coming from different localities. Nowhere in America is the Bulgarian as much at home as in the vicinity of St. Louis. Here some 6,000 are scattered in St. Louis, East St. Louis, Collinsville, Madison and Granite City.

The Bulgarians first settled in this community in 1904 and since then their number has steadily increased until these days of conflict, when hundreds have returned to take up arms against the Turk. With the growth of the industrial plants on the Illinois side of the Mississippi, these people came, and at present they form the bulk of the foreign-speaking labor in the American



Steel Works, the Commonwealth Steel Works, the Rolling Mill, the Glucose Mill, the Stamping Works and the Lead Plant in Granite City. The American Car and Foundry Plant and the Rolling Mill in Madison depend upon them for labor; while they form an essential part of the steel plant and the aluminum works in East St. Louis. The Bulgarians are good workmen and compare favorably with any people coming from agricultural communities to industrial plants.

There are but few women among the Bulgarians in America; hence the stag boarding-house is common among them. In Granite City,



HUNDREDS LIKE HIM HAVE GONE HOME TO FIGHT THE TURK

they live almost wholly in Hungry Hollow. Few of the people live in the city proper. The Bulgarian doctor and lawyer, the two dentists of that nationality, the editors of their four papers and a few business men are found in the city, but the people, as a whole, live in the Hollow. Stag boarding-houses are not clean. Fifteen or twenty men live in a few rooms, cook their own meals, do their own washing and what cleaning they can. There are a few women among the thousands of men. They are more nearly slaves than

anything else, for they keep boarders, run beds double shift when the plants are full handed,



BEFORE-THE-WAR SMILES

A group of Chicago Bulgarians. The emigration of these people is said to be due chiefly to economic oppression.



and prepare meals at all hours. Bulgarian women, though strong, cannot long stand this kind of life—they sacrifice their lives, driven to the drudgery of a boarding-house by the greed of their husbands.

The Bulgarian is fond of social life. There are some saloons among them, but they are not drunkards as many of the Slavic peoples are. The Bulgarian is temperate. In his native country he drinks the fruit of his native vines. Some of this wine is imported to America, but the average Bulgarian in the United States must content himself with beer. He has his coffee house in which Turkish coffee, pastry and cigarettes are sold. Here the Bulgarians spend their leisure time playing cards, pool, and indulging in other amusements.

It was in a coffee house that an editorial was read not long ago for the benefit of the group assembled. The author quoted the words of an American writer who said that the Bulgars were immoral, unreliable, and undesirable. Mirka was of the group. He had seen service in the Bulgarian army and had fearlessly fought the Turk. He asked: "Who says Bulgars are immoral?" and looked for his revolver and knife. His friends restrained him with the reminder

that he was in America now and not in Bulgaria where he could avenge an insult such as the article contained.

The Bulgarians belong to the Greek Orthodox Church, but the national church is independent of both the Greek and the Russian patriarch. They have few churches in America and few priests to minister to their needs. Many of the priests of the Russian, Servian and Greek congregations minister to the Bulgarians for they have the same ritual and the ceremonies are the same.

The Bulgarians are patriotic. The colonies in America have watched with intense interest the rise of Bulgaria into an independent nation, and the casting off of the suzerainty of the Sultan. During the present war the Turkish coffee houses among the Bulgars are the rendezvous of the aliens. The news of the triumphant march of their comrades and the defeats of the Turks are discussed and rejoiced over just as our people read and discussed war news during the Civil War. The Bulgars are a strong people and the future of the Balkans is more in their hands than in those of any other nation in that part of Europe.



AN INDIGNATION MEETING

Not only the Turk can draw the Bulgarians in America together. In the stormy days of 1908, 600 unemployed and starving Bulgarians marched on the City Hall in Chicago and demanded work. They were unsuccessful and the charitable societies had to come to the relief of many.





READING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

## CIVICS

### THE PHILADELPHIA HISTORICAL PAGEANT

WILLIAM CHAUNCY LANGDON

MASTER OF THE PAGEANT OF THETFORD (1911) AND PAGEANT OF ST. JOHNSBURY (1912)  
ASSISTANT IN THE FIELD, PHILADELPHIA HISTORICAL PAGEANT

The glory of Philadelphia was marshalled before the gaze of the assembled thousands who attended the nine performances of this pageant. All who saw it were astounded with the magnificence of the spectacle. It was a revelation. As from a mountain, people saw the history of Philadelphia spread out before them and the grandeur of it. No one who saw it can forget it. In size and kind it was comparable to the Tercentenary Celebration of Quebec and some of the large English pageants, such as York, Oxford and Cardiff.

Five thousand people from all parts of the city and its suburbs, all joyous with the infectious enthusiasm of the pageant spirit came together under the direction of Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer, the master of the pageant, to take part. Although comparatively few knew each other before, all enthusiastically co-operated to do what little or what much they could to realize a pageant that should be worthy of their city. It is important for a city to have among its citizens 5,000 people, men, women and children who would thus give freely of their vision, of their time, of their money, of their work, of their enthusiasm, of their nervous strength, in order to hold forth before their fellow-citizens and their fellow-countrymen the glory of their city.

The location, "In the Field at Belmont," the highest point in Fairmount Park, was worthy

of the occasion. From a grand-stand large enough to seat comfortably in chairs 18,000 people, the pageant grounds extended five hundred yards to the rim of red cedars where lay the farthest entrance, called "The River," just in line with the vista of the Schuylkill, seen over the forest trees of the park. Beyond lay the wide city of Philadelphia, from the center of which, the gleaming water of the river flowing directly toward it, rose the tower of the City Hall from a cluster of high office buildings. The chief requirement of ideal pageant grounds was fulfilled. The city which was the hero of the pageant was fully in view and dominated the scene. All the historical events selected for the episodes were enacted with the city itself as their abiding background.

The pageant opened with the following announcement by heralds on horseback:

"Ye who would learn the glory of your past  
And form a forecast of the things to be  
Give heed to this a city's trumpet blast  
And see her pictured life in pageantry!"

The prologue then proceeded with a dance of 500 or more little fairies or spirits of imagination under their fairy queen and a score or more lovely fairy godmothers. As they vanished the solitary figure of the Knight of Exploration and Adventure rode slowly and silently across the field. Then came Indians, gazing with curiosity and awe at the strange knight, and successively





CARLISLE INDIAN STUDENT ACTORS

the people of the three nationalities—the Dutch, the Swedes and the English—who came to the vicinity of Philadelphia before the hand and the influence of Penn brought good rule and progress out of conflict and chaos.

The episodes comprised the following events: the coming of William Penn; the granting of the new Frame of Government; the sending back of the tea-ship "Polly"; the Declaration of Independence; the battle of Germantown; the Meschianza, (that gay society tournament given under the direction of Major Andre in honor of Lord Howe during the British occupation); Franklin at the court of France; the reception of President and Mrs. Washington at Gray's Gardens; the War of 1812; and the reception to General Lafayette. The finale, a most imposing and gorgeous spectacle, followed the English custom and consisted of an undramatized assemblage of all the people of the pageant in a great tableau centering in the symbolic figures of the City of Philadelphia and the twenty-eight municipal districts. It terminated in a marvelous procession, as the 5,000 people marched by the grand-stand paying homage to the City of Philadelphia as they passed before her.

In the selection of these episodes and in the writing of the pageant book there was apparent no dramatic construction of the pageant as a whole to show the logical sequence of human cause and effect in the development of the city. Rather the series of events were chosen simply for their individual importance as historical incidents and for their adaptability for spectacular presentation. But it should be noticed that a large pageant such as this does not afford its master the largest and freest opportunities in dramatic treatment. The limitations resulting from its size are serious and render the task of the master of the pageant exceedingly difficult. He is for the most part restricted to mass effects. Individual effects are almost impossible. Notably successful nonetheless was the entrance of Benjamin Franklin in the French court scene. On the other hand, the large scale made possible

the battle of Germantown; and the long entrances produced the fine series of approaching and receding processions which with the fine and varied costumes and the flying banners added so much to the epic quality of the pageant.

The direction of the pageant was well organized and thoroughly specialized. In addition there was a heartiness of co-operation among all which made success inevitable. Of many of the employes it could be said that they threw themselves into the work as untiringly as if they were doing it simply for love; and of many of the volunteers it might be said that they could not have worked harder or more devotedly if they had been paid. Many of the arrangements were necessarily quite extemporaneous, but while there was of course abundant need for administrative alertness, all went with remarkable smoothness both on the field and behind the scenes. Endlessly interesting were the arrangements for lighting the pageant grounds; the city of 75 dressing tents back among the trees; the provision for the repair of costumes, for the care of the wigs, for the cleaning of the rifles, for the stabling and feeding of the horses; and the telephone system by which the master of the pageant or the stage manager directed to a nicety the entrance of the performers, the firing of the cannon, or the changing of the scenery.

The use of theatrical scenery in a pageant is, in the opinion of the writer, open to serious question, although it may be that in so large a production, where the human beings are reduced to such slight proportions in the scene, something large like a house is needed to emphasize the different individuality of the various episodes. However that may be, in this instance the pageant was written with scenery in mind and could not have been produced without it. Furthermore, it should be cordially said that the excellence of some of the stage structures, such as Independence Hall, raising its tower sixty-five feet into the air; the Chew Mansion; and the ship of state, Union, made by the people of Philadelphia for the celebration of the ratification of the Constitution in 1787 and used by them again in the reception to Washington, made a strong argument in favor of their general use. All the scenery, the vehicles such as the Washington coach and the Lafayette barouche, and the other properties were made at the Pageant House under the direction of Henry Kabierske, the stage manager, who of course also conducted the rehearsals and had charge of the general dramatic management.

The costuming was notably correct. In order that it might be accurate, all but a few of the 5,000 costumes were made at the Pageant House under the direction of Charles H. Stephens, the artist who had charge of all matters of color



and design in the pageant, and of Mrs. Margaret McHenry, the mistress of the wardrobe. As chairman of the costume committee, Miss Elizabeth McClellan, the authority on American costume, was ready to pass upon doubtful questions of historic fashion; and Charles M. Lefferts lent the aid of his intimate knowledge of military uniforms and usage. In this example of reliable correctness in the costuming, the Philadelphia pageant made a helpful contribution to American pageantry.

The music of the pageant consisted partly of the revival of old music appropriate to the episode, such as the military marches, Brandywine and The State Fencibles March, and partly of new music, both choral and instrumental, composed by Prof. Hugh A. Clark of the University of Pennsylvania. Unfortunately the acoustics proved to be bad, and in consequence the band and the chorus, located in the front of the middle section of the grand-stand, could not be heard at all. The dances were of the formal type. They were planned and trained by Albert W. Newman. The minuet in the French court scene and the pastoral dance in the episode of the reception to President and Mrs. Washington won deserved applause.

The value of the Philadelphia Historical Pageant to the country at large consists in its answer, so far as it went, to the question, Is it possible for a large city to have a real pageant? Can this joyous new form of drama do anything tangible to unite the hundred-thousands and the millions of our great American municipalities in a common pride in their history and in a hopeful attitude toward the future? Bringing it right down to its clearest form, this means, can a pageant pay its own expenses? The whole



GENUINE PRAIRIE SCHOONER USED

future of pageantry in this country comes down to this one practical question. If it cannot pay its own expenses, the pageant as a factor in the up-building of a wholesome American community life is of little value. It is a beautiful luxury, which but few communities can or will afford. But if such a pageant with careful business management can cover its own cost, the pageant is a powerful force, a practical means for the realization of illimitable possibilities in the future. It will do much to help bring about a finer, greater, more democratic life than we have as yet even dreamed.

America began with communities that were merely accidental gatherings of individual people, isolated and self-reliant and independent. America has taken these communities and developed these people into a co-operation in their so-called public affairs, making of them a "body politic." America is now developing them into a social body, getting them together in their daily life and on the common ground of their human interests simply as men and women.

She is looking for instruments to further this work. Is the pageant a tool to her hand? Can it be used anywhere and everywhere, in large cities and in little villages? Will it pay for itself? Or can it be made, with more experience, to pay for itself? So far as this question applies to large cities, Philadelphia has said it can.

It is on account of the final importance of this question that I feel that the supreme service of Dr. Oberholtzer in this pageant has been in ordering and marshalling the work as a whole, as at once a work of art and as a business enterprise. This successful conduct of a great city pageant is a contribution to the development of American life for which the rest of the country owes appreciation. It was a stupendous task, and it could doubtless have been done in many ways, so far as pageant-writing or stage production



BEHIND THE SCENES



are concerned, as many as the number of the people who might have attempted it. Surely unavoidable guess-work and blind-fold decision have strewn the path of Dr. Oberholtzer and his pageant committee with the failure fragments of many hopes and plans and experiments, of which the public cannot be aware. Their path was along no beaten road, but through unblazed forest and underbrush. But the Philadelphia Historical Pageant of 1912 has come through. And there remains—to Philadelphia a vision of a work of art and of history that is hers, and to the rest of the country, to America, the message that the dramatic art of the people has arrived at the gates of her large cities.

CINCINNATI'S BUDGET EXHIBIT

"We know of no event in recent years that has been such a boost to Cincinnati as the Municipal Exhibit, teeming with the multiple interests of a large and well-governed city, giving convincing proof of the value of honest administration and without full of the throbs of human interest."

Citizens generally echoed this declaration of the Cincinnati *Post* and agreed that much credit was due to the Bureau of Municipal Research for organizing and directing the exhibit. It met with hearty response and approbation on the part of the public as evidenced by an attendance on some days of 10,000 visitors.

Every department of the city as well as the Board of Education and certain charitable agencies was represented. Besides a desire to educate the citizens of the city in municipal problems, the main object of the administration was to stimulate interest in an extra tax levy for use in 1913. Under Ohio laws only 1 per cent may be levied directly upon taxable property for all purposes—state, county and city. In addition to this a tax for a sinking fund may be levied and if that, plus the 1 per cent already mentioned, does not equal 1½ per cent, enough more to reach that amount may be levied if the people authorize it in a referendum. The amount of the extra levy requested for 1913 is less than the amount voted a year ago. If the levy had not been authorized by the voters on election day the six main departments would have had their budgets reduced by over \$1,100,000.

Public Health .....	\$ 38,450	3.39	per cent
Safety .....	566,164	49.81	" "
Social Service .....	274,574	24.16	" "
Hospital .....	124,635	10.65	" "
Parks .....	75,807	6.65	" "
University .....	57,212	5.03	" "

Some of the objects for which the money is to be spent are public concerts, a bureau of efficiency, a university night school, seven district physicians to look after poor people who cannot afford their own doctors, ten visiting school nurses, seven dentists to look after the teeth of school children and more tenement house and building inspectors.

Among the popular exhibits were those of the purchasing department which was reorganized in January and has saved nearly \$100,000 for the city by the introduction of real competitive bid-



PICTURING MUNICIPAL SOCIAL SERVICE

ding, the standardization of supplies, better prepared specifications, wholesale buying and careful inspection.

One chart entitled "soap and water," and typifying modern methods in the department, showed how the city used to sell one hundred gallons of water for one cent and then buy it back in liquid soap at thirty cents a gallon; now instead of buying soft soap at four and a half cents a pound, it buys soap chips at five and a half cents a pound, uses its own water at one cent per one hundred gallons and mixes the soap at two and one-third cents a pound, a saving of 55 per cent.

Since January an increased effort has been made to better housing conditions through the tenement house bureau of the building department. The exhibit of this bureau showed numerous photographs of housing conditions in Cincinnati as well as several charts comparing the city with others of approximately its size. From one of these it appeared that in Cincinnati 44 per cent of the families live in tenement houses. Buffalo which ranked next highest has a record of but 24 per cent, while Columbus, Detroit, Indianapolis and Toledo all have less than 10 per cent.

The new Department of Charities and Correction disclosed the fact that in 1911, 60,000 drinks of whiskey were given infirmary inmates to encourage them to work. This has been stopped. The department also issued a special number of the *Charities' Department Bulletin*, of which some 100,000 were distributed. These helped in creating public sentiment in favor of moving the House of Refuge into the country. A straw ballot at the exhibit showed 13,360 in favor and but 136 against. The ballots were printed by the boys in the House of Refuge on a hand press, which was moved to the exhibit.

The Health Department in its exhibit emphasized the subjects of food and medical inspection. A realistic feature was an infant milk station in full operation. The exhibit was an interesting display of big work already done, of bigger work under way and still larger achievement in contemplation.



## SECOND HOUSING CONFERENCE

The Second National Conference on Housing will be held in Philadelphia beginning on December 4. The conference will last three days and will end with a banquet. There will be two sessions a day as well as inspection trips and round-table luncheon discussions. The regular sessions are to consist of two twenty-minute papers. Each will be discussed by four announced speakers before the subject is thrown open to general discussion from the floor for twenty minutes, making about two hours for each session. At one meeting no papers will be read. Instead there will be free discussion of five previously announced live topics. Speakers will be limited to five minutes.

Philadelphia was selected as the place for the conference because the National Housing Association believes that Philadelphia has more to show the housing workers of the country in the direction of constructive effort than any other American city. In its multitude of small houses, the absence of tenements, its economical and advantageous lot units, its system of minor streets, its Octavia Hill Association for improving the older houses, Philadelphia is unique. The opportunity for studying these things at first hand is one that every housing worker is urged to seize.

In arranging the program this year, it was sought to get as far away as possible from New York conditions; to discuss problems that are national; to extend the field of operations so as to include not only the large city and the small town, but suburban and rural sections as well. It was also the aim to have these subjects, so far as practicable, discussed by persons who did not read papers last year and to bring into the announced discussions housing workers from all sections of the country.

The first paper, Health Departments and Housing, will be presented by Charles B. Ball, chief sanitary inspector of the Chicago Health Department. Mr. Ball's long experience in sanitary work in Washington and New York as well as in Chicago makes him an authority on a subject which is receiving increased recognition. This new receptive attitude of health officers toward housing led to the work of Dr. George T. Palmer, whose housing survey of Springfield, Ill., last year attracted national attention. It led Dr. Charles J. Hastings, the medical health officer of Toronto to publish a report on the housing conditions in his city which spurred that Canadian capital to constructive activity. It led Dr. James Roberts, medical health officer of Hamilton, and other health officials to demand and get improvements in their cities. These men will go to Philadelphia to discuss Mr. Ball's paper and to contribute from their experiences.

Other papers that will be presented are: Garden Cities by Grosvenor Atterbury, fellow of the American Institute of Architects and designer of the Russell Sage Foundation suburb, Forest Hills Gardens; Instructive Sanitary Inspection by Johanna von Wagner, whose work in teaching the poorer immigrants a higher

standard of home making has given her a reputation both in the East and on the Pacific Coast; Regulation by Law, by Albion Fellows Bacon, secretary of the Indiana Housing Association and author of the Indiana Housing Law; and Property Divisions, Lot Depths and Height Regulation, by Andrew Wright Crawford, a member of the City Planning Conference who is interested in Philadelphia's development.

A number of the papers deal with the fundamental problems underlying our housing evils and with the most promising methods of solution. Lawrence Veiller, secretary of the National Housing Association and author of the New York Tenement House Law will present a solution for those universal twin problems, room overcrowding and the lodger evil; John Nolen, a city planner of wide experience, will discuss the vexed question of the relation of the factory and the home, giving his opinion as to whether the factory should go to the outskirts, or the people be brought to the center. His opinion must be well supported by fact to stand unchallenged for among those who will comment upon it are Irving Bush, head of the Bush Terminal Company, which has sought to reduce waste of time and effort by putting home and factory close together on the outskirts, and John Martin who has made a thorough study of the value of efficient rapid transit.

But whether the factories go to the outskirts or not there still will be many workmen's homes near the heart of the city and there will continue to be an increasing number erected on the outskirts. John Ihlder, field secretary of the National Housing Association, will discuss the best types of houses for these different locations. His suggestions will be commented upon by Alfred T. White, owner of the Riverside Buildings in Brooklyn; Dr. George M. Kober, secretary of the Sanitary Housing Company, which has built several hundred model workmen's houses in Washington; Charles A. Beck, secretary of the Woodlawn Company of Wilmington, Del., which has erected some of the most successful one- and two-family houses in America; and J. G. Schmidlapp, who is now doing for Cincinnati what the Sanitary Housing Company has done for Washington.

Last comes that most important question, the financing of the small house. This will be presented by one of the leading building and loan association men of the country whose views will be discussed by such men as Frank Bailey, vice-president of the Title Guarantee and Trust Company of Brooklyn; John L. Fry, one of the leading builders of Philadelphia; Alfred L. Aiken, president of the Worcester Savings Institution, whose belief in the small house as a community asset has led him to throw all his influence in favor of the single family dwelling as opposed to the tenement house; and by Lee K. Frankel, of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, who has charge of one of the most interesting social developments in America, the building of good workmen's dwellings by a great insurance company, not as a philanthropy, but as a business proposition.





EVIDENCE OF CARELESS WORKMANSHIP

### A FABLE FOR BUILDERS

To emphasize the fact that defective flues are among the most frequent causes of preventable fire, the National Fire Protection Association has prepared the following:

#### A FABLE FOR BUILDERS

"Last Summer a Good Citizen of a certain town not over a hundred miles from almost Everywhere, built a Wooden house for a Woman and her Children. He built the Chimney of Brick because he had to. The Chimney was able to Stand Alone, so he did not have to prop it with Wood. But the Floors of the house would not Stay Up without props. The Good Citizen saved a dollar by using the Chimney as a support to the floors. He nestled the ends of the Floor Joists nicely in the brick of the Chimney. He covered up the job and got his money.

"The Rains fell and the Winds blew in the most Biblical manner, and Winter came after its fashion. The Chimney Settled a little; and there was a tiny Crack.

"One morning the Woman woke up with Fire All About her. She tried to get to her Children. If she got to them no one Ever Knew it. The Good Citizen who built the house was Not Arrested for Manslaughter. He is building Other houses of the Same Kind for Other women and children.

"He is making his Living by it."

Because fires from defective flues start underneath roofs, back of ranges, under hearths and in other places not in plain view, does not mean that there is anything hidden or mysterious about them or anything which cannot be readily understood. The following recommendations, the association says, if followed, will help to guard from fires the lives and property of every houseowner:

"1. Build all chimneys from the ground up. None of their weight should be carried by anything except their proper foundations. Foundations should be at least twelve inches

wider all around than the area of the chimney and be started well below the frost line.

"2. Build all chimneys to a point at least three feet above flat roofs and two feet above the ridge of peak roofs.

"3. Never build a chimney wall less than eight inches (two courses of brick) in thickness and use only cement mortar up to the first floor and above the roof line.

"4. Build all chimneys large enough to give a separate flue for each fire, using fire clay or terra-cotta tile linings at least one inch in thickness.

"5. Do not run floor joists or other woodwork into chimneys or flues nor allow wood casing, lathing or furring within two inches of chimney breasts.

"6. All floor timbers should be 'trimmed' clear of the hearths and brickwork of the chimney, so as not to be in contact with it at any point."

If these rules are followed the smoke, flame, heat and gases of combustion will not diverge from the straight and narrow path to the outer air by leakage through the sides of the chimney.

### JOTTINGS

#### SCHOOL CIVICS IN NEWARK

Problems of transportation and their solution, city planning, the water supply problem, street paving, city cleaning, sewage and its disposal, the Essex County park system, police department and fire department are the subjects covered in a series of pamphlets issued by the Board of Education for the study of Newark in the schools of the city. These pamphlets on municipal civics are arranged by Frank C. Gilman, head of the Department of History of the Barringer High School. They furnish the pupils and the general public with a short statement on each subject, explaining the importance of the problem considered, the history of its treatment in Newark and the needs still to be met by the city.

#### RICE INSTITUTE STARTS WITH \$10,000,000

Few institutions of learning have begun their existence under such auspicious financial circumstances as the William M. Rice Institute, which opened its doors this fall at Houston, Texas, with an original fund of \$10,000,000 for endowment and maintenance.

Rice Institute was made possible by the gift of William Marsh Rice, a native of Massachusetts, but for many years a resident of Houston. Before his death in 1900, Mr. Rice made plans for the establishment of a nonpolitical and non-sectarian institution to be dedicated to the advancement of letters, science, and art. During the long period of litigation that followed Mr. Rice's death, the trustees called Dr. Edgar Odell Lovett, a professor in Princeton University, to aid them as president in realizing the founder's wishes. President Lovett traveled all over the



world in the interest of the new enterprise, visited the leading educational and scientific establishments, and returned in the summer of 1909 from a year's journey of study that extended from England to Japan.

Meanwhile the trustees had secured 300 acres of land on the extension of Houston's main thoroughfare as a site for the institute. This fall building operations had progressed so far that it was deemed advisable to hold formal dedication exercises and to open the institution to students. The institute will be for both young men and young women. There will be no charge for tuition and no fees.

#### LABELLING SCHOOLHOUSES IN ILLINOIS

Labelling country schoolhouses so that every citizen may know whether his school is up to standard is the device of the Illinois state school authorities.

The schools are inspected as to grounds, building, furnishings, heating, ventilation, library, water supply, sanitation and the qualifications of the teacher. If the essentials of a good school are found a diploma is granted the district and a plate is placed above the door of the schoolhouse, designating it a "Standard School." Already 657 of the 10,532 one-room schoolhouses in Illinois have earned the right to the label.

Illinois does not merely ask that the schools be brought up to standard; the state tells how it can be done. Among the specifications are: An ample playground; improved heating arrangements—a jacketed stove in the corner of the room instead of an unprotected stove in the center; suitable desks for children of all ages properly placed, and a sanitary water supply.

The Illinois authorities do not expect to see this movement for betterment of the one-room schools interfere with the natural development of consolidated schools.

#### NEWARK LIBRARY A SOCIAL CENTER

In the movement for getting the maximum of use out of a city's public educational building, John Cotton Dana of the Newark Public Library enters a claim for his city as pioneer in liberality and extent. In the *American City* he says:

"We have had some or all of the building open for public use every day in eleven years save about twenty-five; and a total of 50 per cent more hours than any other public building in the city, and more than three times as many hours as the schoolhouses. While the building was thus open, the people of the city held in the spare rooms mentioned, in eleven years, about 6,000 meetings, by and for nearly 700 different organizations, with a total attendance of about 180,000. These meetings ranged from boys' debating clubs to the Board of Trade, and covered such subjects as city planning, charity, hospitals, pedagogy, tuberculosis, philosophy, languages, and the world's peace. As long as there was a room unused, any public welfare educational movement, not looking for money profits to any individual, could find free of

charge for its orderly meetings a warm well-lighted and properly janitored room in the library building. On many days ten such meetings have been held."

#### A CITY PLANNING SEMINAR

At the request of the University of Illinois, Charles Mulford Robinson is spending a week explaining to the class in landscape architecture what city planning is and how to go about it. Under Mr. Robinson's direction the students are making a study of the twin cities of Champaign and Urbana, where the university is located. No attempt, of course, will be made to complete a full-fledged town plan for these cities in a week but as far as the work goes it is practical and concrete. The purpose of the special seminar is to stimulate interest in this growing science so that when the students begin their professional careers they may have an intelligent appreciation of the scope and benefits of city planning and of their relation to it as landscape architects to whom the detail work of planning such features of a city beautiful as parks and playgrounds is properly referred.

#### A BOARDWALK FOR CONEY ISLAND

"Keep hammering" is the motto which the West End Improvement League of Coney Island has adopted in its campaign for an immense boardwalk or ocean promenade similar to that which has made Atlantic City famous. Practically neglected by the city the West End section of Coney Island was until recently an area of sand dunes, scattered houses and a few eleemosynary institutions. More recently hotels and bathing establishments have sprung up like mushrooms until now in all this section there is but one street, West Twenty-third, which is physically and legally opened to the beach. The beach itself, also, is encumbered by barriers which prevent people from being able to walk along it for any considerable distance. The carrying out of the plan advanced by the league involves a rebuilding and moral cleansing of the notorious Bowery section of Coney Island.

The general scheme of a boardwalk as proposed by the league is as follows:

1. That the city acquire by condemnation or cession that strip of land lying between the high water line of the Atlantic Ocean and a parallel line 160 feet upland of the said water line and extending from the Dreamland property to West 37th Street, together with all rights to land under water contiguous thereto.
2. That a boardwalk be built sixty feet in width and covering the further upland portion of the area first mentioned.
3. That the land and boardwalk when built be put under the control of the Park Department.
4. That the boardwalk be built of a height above the grade level to permit of a basement story to all buildings abutting on the land side of the boardwalk.
5. That the entire beach be kept free from all obstructions to the view from this boardwalk.
6. That all streets be opened to the boardwalk.
7. That Coney Island be put within the fire limits.





JOSEPH A. HOLMES  
Director United States Bureau of  
Mines.



R. C. RICHARDS  
Chairman Central Safety Com-  
mittee Chicago & North-  
western Railway.



L. W. CHANEY  
Expert on Accident Prevention  
United States Bureau of Labor.

## INDUSTRY

### CAMPAIGNING FOR SAFETY

C. W. PRICE

ASSISTANT TO WISCONSIN INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION

The First Co-operative Safety Congress, held at Milwaukee September 30 to October 5, under the auspices of the Association of Iron and Steel Electrical Engineers was a gathering of hard-headed shopmen and employers awakened to the shame and waste of the old hit-or-miss way of protection against accidents and enlisted in the new movement for the conservation of human lives. To read the program, with the names of speakers and titles of papers, is to gain no notion of what happened at Milwaukee; for it was a meeting of enthusiasm, and enthusiasm cannot be reduced to white paper and cold type.

What I want to do is in some way to suggest the spirit of the congress, the conviction of what can be done and what must be done to save human life, and the splendid spirit of co-operation manifested between employer and employe in this common cause. And then I want to state in a few words the half-dozen fundamental principles which have become the rules of action with all the experienced men who are conducting the campaign for safety in the various industries of the United States.

Just think of a hard-headed railroad attorney, recently appointed to organize the safety movement on a great railroad, saying things like this—even printing them in a book of rules issued as orders and distributed over the entire system:

"Every great and commanding movement in the annals of the world is a triumph of enthusi-

asm. Whether a movement tending toward safety in industrial operation, or, in other words, a movement *for the conservation of men*, is a great and commanding movement depends, perhaps, upon the point of view from which the subject is considered; but if, as to most of us, life is the most precious of our possessions, any movement for the preservation of life ought to be a great and commanding one, and should be enthusiastically supported by every workingman as well as by every employer, and with such support it must necessarily be successful. Human lives and human limbs are of much more importance than money."

The author of this is Ralph C. Richards of the Chicago & Northwestern Railway, who presided at the session on transportation. Mr. Richards is the pioneer in railroad safety work. Here are more things he said as he stood before that body of 200 railroad men:

"The golden rule in railroading: It is better to cause a delay than to cause an accident.

"It actually takes less time to prevent an accident than it takes to report one.

"It takes less time to learn to do a thing right than to explain why you did it wrong.

"Every accident is a notice that something is wrong with the man, plan or methods, and should be immediately investigated by the person in charge of the work to ascertain the cause and apply a remedy.

"In case of doubt, adopt the safe course; speed must always give way to safety.

"Better be careful than crippled."



## DEVOTED TO SAFEGUARDING HUMAN LIFE



**DAVID VAN SCHAACK**  
Director Bureau of Accident Pre-  
vention Aetna Life Insur-  
ance Co.



**C. W. PRICE**  
Assistant to the Industrial Com-  
mission of Wisconsin.



**DON D. LESCOHIER**  
Expert on Accident Prevention,  
Minnesota Bureau of Labor.

The Chicago & Northwestern Railway was the pioneer in the promotion of safety on railroads, and since the organization of its work twenty months ago, 145,000 out of a total of 240,000 miles of railroad in the United States have adopted substantially the same methods used by the Northwestern lines and have organized the work of safety throughout their various systems.

Mr. Richards stated that the Northwestern, during the twenty months, has reduced by 29.9 per cent the number of employes killed; the number of employes injured by 31.4 per cent; the number of passengers killed by 36.3 per cent; and the number of passengers injured by 16 per cent.

John Kirby of the Dayton Manufacturing Company expressed the sentiments of the manufacturers present at the Safety Congress when he said:

"The dawn of a new era in conservation is at hand. It is the workman and his family that are chiefly to be considered in this whole matter; for no amount of money will outweigh in value a single human life. A conservative estimate of the economic loss in this country through industrial accidents places it at more than \$25,000,000 each year. This is more than 20,000 workmen could earn in a twelve-months at \$4.00 a day apiece."

You cannot understand the enthusiasm and determination of manufacturers and safety men who are engaged in this work nor explain the sudden and rapid spread of this country-wide movement for safety unless you keep in mind the following two sets of facts which were brought out in the papers and discussions at the congress.

**First.**—The facts concerning the slaughter of industry in the past. The commission of labor in the bulletin of 1908 reported that 35,000 work-

men are killed in industrial accidents each year; or one for every fifteen minutes of every day in the year. And 2,000,000 men are injured each year; or one for every sixteen seconds in every day in the year. Such figures appall the mind and are enough to stir to the depths any red-blooded, human-hearted man, and to fire him with a determination to go out and stop the slaughter.

**Second.**—The facts concerning possibilities of prevention. The experience of a large number of industries during the last five years which have taken up this problem of safety in a business-like way has demonstrated that it is possible to reduce the number of days lost from injury over 50 per cent and to reduce the serious injuries and deaths from 50 to 75 per cent. One safety man in charge of safety work at a steel plant told me at the congress that during the last few years they had reduced the deaths from forty-five to six per year. It is only recently that these statistics have been available, but now the good news is spreading and it is this assurance of what can be done that is so rapidly enlisting manufacturers in this human cause.

Another point which the manufacturers are not unmindful of and which has been revealed by past experience is the fact that this conservation of human life is a good business proposition, that it pays in dollars and cents. While this was mentioned incidentally at the congress, it was the human note that was uppermost. The statement was made over and over that it is the right and humane thing to do, and ought to be done.

Steel was perhaps represented more largely in the exhibit and in the sessions of the congress than any other industry, as it should be, because it has been the pioneer in this safety movement and still leads all others in the efficiency with which it is promoting the work and in the



splendid record it has made in reducing accidents. The steel mills were the first to work out practical safeguards and effective methods of promoting safety, and it was often revealed at the congress that nearly every safety man had received his first inspiration and his most valuable instruction from this industry. I was told by one of the officers of the Illinois Steel Company that they have reduced accidents in their company over 50 per cent during the last eight years. The Wisconsin Steel Company of the International Harvester Company, in one year, with 1,300 employes, reduced serious injuries from fifty-five to eighteen, deaths from four to one, and the hours lost on account of injuries from 92,000 to 49,000. These figures are especially significant because in this industry probably more than in any other there is a larger area of hazard which cannot be covered by any mechanical guard and which must be reached through educational methods.

Out of the experience of these and other industries has come this interesting fact, mentioned in the congress: that not more than one-third of the reductions which have been made in accidents have been accomplished through the use of any mechanical guard or mechanical equipment and that two-thirds have been accomplished by other means, which the safety men call organization and education. Under organization and education are included:

*First.*—Rigid and constant inspection by inspectors and foremen, and by committees of rank-and-file workmen who are given time off each month with pay to make inspections of the shop.

*Second.*—Careful instruction of the workman in regard to the dangers of his occupation, especially of new men and of non-English-speaking men who are not familiar with machinery and with modern factories. The best instruction is furnished by the foreman in his own department, but books of rules, bulletins and warning signs posted on the walls have been found valuable.

*Third.*—Proper supervision of men engaged in dangerous work.

*Fourth.*—Discipline of men who refuse to cooperate in promoting safety. Some industries lay men off two weeks, which helps to wake them up to the realization that the company means business in this work of safety.

*Fifth.*—Booster meetings of foremen and workmen to keep up the interest and enthusiasm in the work and to discuss accidents which have happened and ways and means of preventing them.

*Sixth.*—"Boost for Safety" buttons, worn by workmen, caps inscribed with "Safety First," photographs of accidents posted on bulletin boards, bulletins circulated among the workmen

describing accidents which have happened and suggesting what might have been done to prevent them, prizes offered for departments which make a good record in reducing accidents and for workmen who are especially active. The one indispensable thing is to secure the co-operation of the employes.

These were the things, rather than mechanical guards, which were emphasized in the numerous papers read by safety men from different industries.

I have not the space to speak of the splendid work of the government, especially the safety work in coal mines, nor of the notable humane work of the National Red Cross Association, which was presented at the federal session; but I want to speak of two things more or less new and significant.

The campaign for safety by the National Association of Manufacturers was outlined at the allied associations' session. This association is organizing exhibits of safety devices, stereopticon and moving-picture exhibits, which will be included in a train which is to tour the country and visit the various manufacturing towns for the purpose of giving the manufacturers the benefit of the best experience along the line of preventing accidents. Lectures will be given, and everything will be done to awaken and instruct the manufacturers.

At the states' session, the plan of promoting safety in Wisconsin, which has been adopted by the industrial commission, was outlined. This plan is a radical departure from the plans adopted by practically all of the states, and is made possible largely by the fact that a commission, with full power to establish standards, has been appointed. This commission from the first has taken the position that in order to accomplish what is possible to accomplish along the line of preventing accidents, the co-operation of manufacturers must be assured. The standards or orders which have been formulated and issued have been worked out by committees made up wholly of experienced manufacturers and factorymen. Exhibits, including some thousand photographs of the best safety devices which have been used in various industries, have been taken over the state and shown in all of the manufacturing towns. A monthly bulletin is issued which is a medium through which the commission is able to place before the manufacturers the best information in regard to the causes of accidents, new and efficient types of safeguards, and the most effective ways and means of organizing to promote safety in shops. William G. Bruce, secretary of the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association of Milwaukee, declared at the congress:

"The manufacturers have been convinced that the commission is working along lines which



have been demonstrated by some of the large companies to be practical and efficient and, therefore, the co-operation of the manufacturers throughout the state is assured."

The next Safety Congress will be held in September, 1913. A council has been appointed with Fred. C. Schwedtmann of the National Association of Manufacturers as chairman, and L. R. Palmer, chairman of the 1912 congress, as vice-chairman. A committee of safety inspectors has been appointed to arrange for the features of the program which will be of special value to shop men and which will include informal ex-

perience meetings and visits to a number of industries where good safety work is being done.

This council and this committee will proceed at once to make a card index of all the safety men connected with the various industries over the country and endeavor to induce them to attend the next congress. A special effort will be made to reach the small manufacturers who have done little along safety lines and are unfamiliar with the best methods. The exhibit in 1913 will include a large number of machines in operation with various types of safety devices to cover the points of danger.

## EDUCATION AND WORK: A TWILIGHT ZONE

WINTHROP D. LANE

On the last day of last January John Pannello, aged fifteen years and five months, graduated from a public grammar school in New York. On the twentieth of February he got his "working papers" from the Board of Health. In school he had been fond of arithmetic and from childhood had wanted to become a bookkeeper. But the class room had become irksome to him, and his parents, financially comfortable, had just "taken it for granted" that he would go to work after graduation. He received no answer to his first application for a job—that of office boy in a place where he hoped that he might work up to a position as bookkeeper. So during the first three weeks after leaving school he spent his mornings looking for work and his afternoons gathering bits of wood with another boy and selling them around the neighborhood for kindling.

His efforts finally got him a job as errand boy for a dyeing and cleaning establishment. Five dollars a week were the wages, and tips amounted to a dollar or two extra. At the end of one week the boy who had had the job before came back and John was fired. He thought that if he could have stayed there five years he could have "got ahead."

After a day's hunt he saw a sign, "Boy Wanted," and was taken on by a firm manufacturing ladies' hats. Here he swept the floor, ran errands and helped to pack. At the end of two weeks, during which he had been paid \$4 a week, he left because "a feller who had been there four years was getting only \$6 a week."

Before leaving he had been lucky enough to get a promise of a job with a millinery firm. At first his work consisted in "going for stuff to the first floor," then he ran a crimping machine, and next was detailed to "get the cord downstairs for the men who make rugs." After a week and a half of this, during which his wage was \$4.50, "another feller said 'come along and learn car-

penry,'" so John got a job at loading and unloading wagons for a firm that made wooden boxes. He was soon allowed to sandpaper the sides of boxes with a machine, and then was put at cutting out sides for boxes with a circular saw. One afternoon he reversed the elevator suddenly and burned out the fuse; so he hurried home, afraid to meet the elevator man. When he learned next day that the boss was going to move to Staten Island he decided to quit, though he was getting \$5 a week. He had been with the firm two weeks.

During the next three weeks John did five different kinds of work for a manufacturer of jewelry and notions. He was making \$4.50, but when a man said, "come along, I've got an office job for you," he quit. The "office job" consisted in acting as shipping clerk, running errands, answering the telephone and sweeping the floor for a manufacturer of artificial flowers. He is still there, getting \$5 a week. He doesn't think much of the work. "What can I learn there?" he asks.

This story is true in all but the name of the boy. The situation of which it is typical, a situation in which masses of children find themselves today, has given momentum in several countries of Europe and America to a movement which has variously manifested itself in the employment agency, the vocational guide and the vocational educator. To focus their experience upon the problems which the situation involves, a hundred or more men and women came together in New York for four days at the close of last month in what was called the Second National Conference on Vocational Guidance. Nine meetings for discussion were held under the auspices of the Central Committee on Vocational Guidance, a New York organization.

### *Methods of Attack*

Throughout this conference two methods of attack upon the problem were uppermost in the



minds of the speakers. One was that of the "placement bureau"; of those people who, seeing untrained children enter occupations for which they are ill suited and from which they derive neither education, chance of advancement nor adequate income, believe that the most pressing duty in their behalf is to guide them individually into the most advantageous positions which can be found for them. The other method was that favored by those who said in effect: "Fundamentally it is wrong that any untrained child, without knowledge of industrial processes or skill in the use of tools, whose aims are vague and aptitudes unknown, should be allowed to work. It is an aggravation of this wrong to allow such a child to take a job which will not supplement previous education, or open the way to skill and independence. Yet children are going into just such work today. Therefore, we are but tolerating an intolerable situation when we accept school and industry on this basis and try to put each individual into the best job available for him. Our task is two-fold. We must reconstruct our system of education so that it will fit youth for the work which it will have to do; we must also study the processes and needs of industry so thoroughly that every child shall have the maximum of information on which to base his choice of work. Then, perhaps, we must go even farther and reorganize industry in such a way that it will hold positive cultural values for those who devote to it their full energies of mind and body."

Possibly the greatest service of the conference was that it brought into sharp conflict these two points of view. To the layman it appeared clear that the interchange of ideas had by the final session secured a wide agreement with the second viewpoint, without withdrawing acceptance from the first. It was still contended that thousands of boys and girls must not be allowed to pursue their hit-or-miss entrance into vocations and placement was pointed to as in itself one method of getting at the desired facts about industry.

### *Questions Raised*

When Cyrus C. Miller, president of the Borough of the Bronx, New York, and member of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, declared that the city would be ready with funds the moment anyone brought forward a convincing program for vocational training in the schools, his challenge went unanswered. It was recognized that the movement is still in its infancy. Meanwhile some definite questions have been raised:

Shall industrial training aim to fit children for particular trades, or shall it educate them in elementary processes and underlying principles?

Shall it begin early in the child's school life,

or at the age of fourteen when so many now break away from the prescribed curriculum?

Shall it be grafted on the present elementary courses, or be taught in separate institutions?

Can industry be prevented from compelling the schools to give just enough training to meet industry's immediate needs, and no more?

Is it advisable to raise the compulsory school age two years, or with the curriculum in its present state, is this simply prescribing a larger dose of something already seen to be inadequate and unsuitable?

On the other hand, will raising the age limit, by throwing back upon the schools thousands of boys and girls who now go to work as soon as they can, force the schools to a quicker adjustment of education to needs?

Wherein is the problem of vocational training for boys different from that of vocational training for girls? In asking this question Kate E. Turner, assistant principal of Erasmus Hall High School for Girls in Brooklyn, declared that before girls are offered either guidance or training, society must make up its mind whether they shall be encouraged to look upon their vocations as permanent or only as temporary makeshifts until marriage. The modern trend toward co-operative housekeeping and economic independence for women, she suggested, is not sufficiently recognized by the schools; yet these things are constantly in the mind of the young girl.

### *Why Children Leave School*

Though these questions may not be answerable today, light has been thrown on not a few dark corners. For example, attempts have been made to learn why so many children leave school as soon as the law permits. A recent inquiry of the federal government conducted in six cities proceeded upon the basis that any family which had a *per capita* income of less than \$1.50 a week would need outside assistance to keep its children in school. It was found that in 25 per cent of the 524 families studied the income was below this amount, and it was therefore concluded that 25 per cent of the children in this group left school because of "economic pressure" within the home. Findings of the Vocational Guidance Survey of New York (now called the Vocational Education Survey and a part of the Public Education Association) which corroborated this study were made public for the first time at the conference.

Under the direction of Alice P. Barrows, a group of 302 children who had just applied for their employment certificates was intensively studied the past winter. With 20 per cent of these, economic pressure within the family was determined to be the dominant reason for leaving school. Yet this pressure did not always



amount to real need to the extent that the family would have required outside help if the child had remained in school. Sometimes a special necessity, such as sickness, death or unemployment had arisen to drive forth the younger members; sometimes the pressure was more anticipated or feared than real; and occasionally there was simply a strong ambition to "get ahead" which called into service the small earning capacity of those just passing fourteen.

The conclusion was therefore generally accepted at the conference that the necessity for increasing the family income is not the large factor which it has usually been supposed to be in causing the yearly exodus of children from the public schools. The real reasons are often bound up in the one word, adolescence. Miss Barrows concluded from the study made by her staff that besides the economic causes, other reasons grouped themselves under two heads, the parents' attitude and the children's attitude. Of sixty-nine boys who left one school 32 per cent were found to have dropped out either because their parents simply took it for granted that all fourteen-year-old children should leave, or thought such a course better in the cases of their children. Forty-three per cent left chiefly because they disliked school, were discouraged or retarded, or because they felt the natural impulse to activity which comes at some time to every healthy boy.

#### *What Kind of Training?*

To more than one speaker the fundamental question before the conference was what kind of vocational training shall be provided. To answer it requires the co-ordination of the knowledge of the psychologist, the expert in pedagogy and the industrial technician; for you must know what children can learn, what they need to learn and how it can be taught.

Yet the conference was not without its suggestion that prevocational instruction in the purposes and use of tools, training in manual dexterity and in whatever elementary processes may underlie modern trades must be made as vital a part of the school curriculum as reading, writing and arithmetic. These must be kept free from exploitation by industry, for their primary purpose is to educate and not merely to prepare plumbers, blacksmiths and machinists to follow a single calling. Indeed, it was declared that geography and history can be more effectually taught in conjunction with manual arts. A social policy in education must be worked out which will recognize that not a third nor a half, but, within a very small fraction, the whole of our youth go directly into occupations where neither geography nor spelling nor a knowledge of history aid them in acquiring proficiency.

#### *Where Attempted?*

Has such training as this been attempted? Some said no, because nowhere have the objective facts which must determine the form and scope of such a system been collected. Some pointed to Germany and her compulsory continuation schools, which enforce further education calculated to fit the child who is leaving school for industry. But it was objected that America cannot appropriate an exotic scheme suited to another nation's traits and customs, but must painstakingly work out her own. Frank V. Thompson, associate superintendent of public schools in Boston, said that Edinburgh, Scotland, had pointed the way and added that Boston is about ready to take over Edinburgh's plan. There, in accordance with an empowering act of Parliament, the school board and the board of trade have jointly created machinery to accomplish the following six objects:

1. To advise young persons as to the pursuits for which they are by ability, taste, character and education suited.
2. To induce the young worker to take advantage of all educational facilities pertinent to his work and to advise him as to the various steps in his industrial career.
3. To keep the system of further education in real touch with the industrial needs of the locality.
4. To advise young persons as to the opportunities which exist in the various occupations.
5. To collect and promulgate general information in regard to industrial conditions.
6. To bring together the employer with a specific position to offer and the young person suited to and desiring such a position.

The first four of these functions are performed by the educational authorities and the last two by the board of trade, or labor exchange officers.

While it was admitted that these efforts in England and Germany have emphasized the view that the giving of such training is a national responsibility and must be under the supervision of the state, it was pointed out that so far neither country has conspicuously gone back of the age at which the child leaves school. Neither, apparently, has proposed that the elementary schools themselves shall equip the child with a knowledge of himself and of industry sufficient to enable him to choose wisely and begin auspiciously an occupation containing promise of further development and advance.

The real solution of this problem for America, said some, is being worked out in Gary, Ind. The details of the plan by which William A. Wirt, superintendent of schools, is there keeping children in the class room for more years than other cities find it possible to keep them, and the system of trade training by which he is seeking to



turn out youths equipped to enter industry advantageously, were not given from the platform; and the story is too long to find a place in this report. Let it be pointed out, however, that most of those at the conference felt the need of more systematic knowledge both of the requirements of industry and of its teachable elements before a definite program can be agreed upon.

Amid doubt as to what kind of training shall eventually be found suitable, there was no hesitation in characterizing the usual trade training of the present day as either inadequate or of an improper sort. The "manual training" given in many high schools came in response to the demand which this conference voiced, but it was declared that it begins too late in the curriculum and touches only a small part of children who enter industry. Technical schools, on the other hand, are too advanced. The "trade schools" now found in larger cities usually do not admit persons below sixteen and too often aim to prepare for particular vocations.

#### *Raised Standards in Industry*

But if there is need of a changed front in education there is need also of raised standards in industry. We must determine what sorts of work shall be allowed to go on in the world—this was the challenge put to all who create wealth. If a vocation be found which dwarfs bodies, stunts mentality or in other ways prevents that self-expansion which is the right of every worker, then that vocation must alter its methods or cease to exist. Edward L. Stevens, associate city superintendent, New York, formulated seven questions which he would ask of every occupation into which children are sent: Is it healthful? Is it enduring, that is, not likely to be replaced

as soon as proficiency has been gained? Is it non-seasonal? Is it moral? Does it present likelihood of promotion? Is it educative? Does it pay a living wage?

It is for two purposes, then, that we must study industry. First, to determine what standards industry may be compelled to live up to; second, to discover what must be the industrial content of the new education, how much and what kind of technique must be taught.

#### *Individual Aptitudes*

But suppose you have re-made educational systems and reformed industry to your liking, what will it profit you if you can not discover the individual aptitudes of children? At this point the vocational analyst enters. How he will work, and to what extent he will be able to guide children into callings for which they have natural talent, are still, it was felt, questions not fully answered. Success may lie in the direction of self-analysis; that is, teachers and advisers may be able to induce young people so to look in upon themselves that they will come to a satisfactory gauge of their own talents and limitations. Henrietta Rodman, of Wadleigh High School, New York, told of her success in employing this method. Another hint of possibilities ahead was contained in Prof. James E. Lough's account of experiments made at New York University, where Mr. Lough is professor of psychology. Students were asked to go through simple operations to ascertain what degrees of the habit forming power they possess. This was regarded as determining to a large extent their likelihood of success in typewriting, stenography, telegraphy and other occupations demanding a large capacity to make slight movements rapidly.

### FUNCTION OF VOCATION BUREAUS

Among a dozen practical booklets on the subject of vocational education, published by the students and committee of the High School Teachers' Association of New York City, is *Wage Earning Occupations for Boys and Girls* by E. W. Weaver, chairman. In Mr. Weaver's opinion the function of such bureaus should be:

- 1, To study the needs of groups of employers, one or more at a time, and to encourage these employers to formulate definite standards of requirements.

- 2, To make available to schools and their students information in regard to the standards of requirements as they are formulated by successive groups of employers.

- 3, To assist schools in organizing special classes in which workers, or prospective workers, could make specific preparation in the shortest possible time for given lines of work. Such special courses of study to be given in continuation classes or in the final years of the regular school work.

- 4, To disseminate information in regard to the vocational training resources of the community; to maintain a bureau of information and advice; and to encourage the extension and the addition of facilities for practical instruction along lines in which the facilities of the community are inadequate.

- 5, To set on foot measures for placing employers, in touch with the responsible representatives of those schools whose students are most likely to be best qualified for their service, so that the information which the schools have of the qualification of students may be made available to employers who are seeking recruits for their service.

- 6, To maintain a registry of students of a high degree of promise; to find for them suitable employment, advise them in regard to subsequent educational courses, shift them about from one form of specialized employment to others along the same line of service, to the end that they may secure a larger and wider experience than that which it is generally possible for them to get in the specialized work of the shops and the offices.





GRINDING COLORS IN A PAINT FACTORY

## THE LEAD WORKERS

SOME SAMPLE  
LEAVES FROM THE  
LIFE HISTORIES  
OF NINETY-SEVEN  
WORKMEN.

There is a factory in New York where molten lead is used in considerable quantities as a tempering agent. Nine men are regularly employed there. It has been in operation one year and in that time nine men have had lead poisoning. When inquiry was made about these cases the paymaster asked in surprise:

"Why! Is lead dangerous?"

Edward E. Pratt and his assistants who made the study of occupational diseases for the New York Factory Investigating Commission are under the impression that it is. For they found 376 cases in New York occurring within three years, and this, Mr. Pratt estimates, could not have been over half of the number that actually did occur.

One of the most striking facts to be gleaned from the report is the ignorance and indifference which were manifested by foremen and company officials, as well as workmen, with regard to the dangers incident to the handling of the various forms of lead and the precautions which should be taken.

"There are all grades of indifference," says the report, "from the employer who told the commission with gusto and pride that he had provided buckets which the men could fill with cold water in which to wash, but which the men said they actually furnished themselves, to the employer who really has taken considerable precaution but who does not enforce the measures which he knows are best."

In a thorough examination of 109 cases it was found that sixty-two ate their lunches in the workroom, twenty-two reported that they had

not been in the habit of washing before eating their lunches, and forty-five who did wash used only cold water. The investigations showed that in many cases only cold water was provided and in some cases none at all. Only seventeen of the 109 reported that they had been given any instruction regarding the hazard of the occupation, or with regard to hygienic measures; seventy-three reported definitely that no instruction whatever was given; ten reported that instructions were posted in the work place, and seventy-six reported a total lack of even the posting of instructions.

A long list of recommendations is offered. These include the licensing of the industries, the physical examination of employes each month, close supervision by the medical inspector of factories so that a man once having contracted lead poisoning may not again be employed in an industry in which lead is used without "the specific and written consent of the medical inspector of factories." Suggestions are further made with regard to ventilation and the providing of an abundant supply of hot and cold water for bathing.

The investigators got fairly complete occupational histories from ninety-seven men and these are published in the report. The following are typical cases selected from this list. "It has not been our aim in presenting these cases," says Mr. Pratt, "to draw forth all the harrowing and pathetic details. . . . We have sought rather to present in story form the plain, bare facts and to allow the reader to draw for himself the conclusions which inevitably follow."



CASE No. 85—PAUL T—:

**I**S a native of Wurtemberg, Germany, and has been a painter since he was ten years of age. He, like many another young German, has had the "wanderlust," and has wandered in Germany, Switzerland, France and Africa (Tunis). In the latter place he met his wife, and they were married in 1892. One year later he came to the United States (1893).

He had his first attack of lead poisoning in Paris, where he was doing some fine interior decorating, which he described as Louis XIV style. He had been working long hours, from 6 a. m. to 11 p. m. It was after this time that he went to Tunis, and later to Paris, and finding no work there came to the United States. He immediately found work in a large apartment house that gave him employment until the following spring. He then got employment as a house painter and decorator at the Hotel V—, where he remained twelve and one-half years. Here he did painting and decorating work of the finer sort and had charge of a large gang of men who were under his direction. When the hotel went out of business, he did several jobs for small houses in Jersey. His first attack in this country came when he was working at the Hotel P—. A strike had delayed the work and when the men came back they were pushed to the limit. While working on the decorations in one of the large banquet halls he was stricken with lead colic and was disabled for four weeks. His work from that time forth became rather irregular, although he worked for one or two firms. Most of his work was of a fine grade and he did considerable work in private houses where it was necessary to use white lead, to sandpaper and to stipple the work. Last March he got a job at the new F— Theatre, where he was employed on the interior decorations. He held this for a couple of months, and then got a job doing some exterior painting. After a short illness, he found work at the G— Club House. Here he was engaged on the big banquet hall and was working steadily and very hard. The work was of the very finest quality, and he had just about completed it and was ready to varnish when he "keeled over." He says he does not know how he got home, the attack was so sudden and so complete. Since that time (July 1) he has been out of work, almost wholly incapacitated. His left hand is almost wholly useless (he uses both hands in painting and is left handed), and his right is partially affected. His knees and ankles are also swollen and give him considerable pain. He says that after he had his last attack his whole body seemed to be stuck with pins and needles. He has always been scrupulously clean and has worked carefully and taken good care of himself.

CASE No. 51—CHARLES G—:

**A** YOUNG Scotchman, 31 years of age, gave up the sea some eight years ago and settled down to life as a caster in a tinfoil factory. Here his job consisted of melting up lead pigs together with tin and some other ingredients which make up tinfoil; then ran the molten composition into a mould, forming a slab of the metal about two feet square and one inch in thickness. This slab was then taken to the rollers where it was rolled thinner and thinner as desired. After working here for eight years he was taken with a sort of paralysis of the hand, the fingers—especially of the right hand—closed tightly and he found it impossible to open them without assistance. When seen at the hospital he had been there only a week, but showed decided improvement.

At the time of the attack he was earning \$15.00 per week. He described the room where he worked as well ventilated by two large exhaust fans and as clean and well lighted. He was instructed as to the dangers of the work, and was told to wash thoroughly and to rinse out his mouth before eating. It is also evident that the man took precautions. It is evident, therefore, how very careful employers and employees must be to avoid lead poisoning.

CASE No. 8—SAMUEL B—:

**T**HE neighborhood, about two of the plants which are located near together, is filled with lead poisoning cases. One can hardly walk without stumbling into them. A map dotted with a red pin for every case would look like the tuberculosis map of the New York "Lung Block." Thus the three cases just recounted were all found at the same address, and in the same apartment.

While searching another house, only a block away from the place where the last three cases were found, for a man whose record we had, but who seemed to have moved and left no trace, the present case was located. Samuel B— is a huge, pallid-faced youth, with only a few words of English at his command. His wife, smaller, bright-eyed and vivacious, acted as interpreter, and when she had done this service, piloted the investigator two doors further up the street, to the home of a fellow workman of her husband's, who had been down with the colic just the week previous.

In July, 1907, B— came to America, and at once went into the employ of the white lead company, where he became a stripper. A stripper's duties are to stack the lead buckles in jars over weak acetic acid, and stack these jars in tiers in long rooms, the floors of which are spread with tan-bark.



#### CASE No. 5—PETER P—:

THREE months, August, September and October, 1910, were enough to give Peter P—, a "mixer" for a white lead company, a dose of lead poisoning severe enough to make him leave the industry. He is now picking up a precarious living as a longshoreman on the Brooklyn docks. His total weekly income averages about \$7.50, but his health is safe, and at any rate he received only \$8.85 from the lead company.

Coming fresh from the farms of his native Lithuania, P— landed here in 1909. He is a well-built, bright-eyed, intelligent man. Only the bar of language prevents his making his mark in America. For a few months after landing he worked as a longshoreman. Next he was on the payroll of a large sugar company.

P—'s third American job was a bad one. From some time in August, 1910, to the end of October, he stood for ten hours a day, nine hours on Saturday, over a great iron mixing bowl, in which oil and white lead were being kneaded to make the white lead to be used for ship-building and painting. The workers have to pour in the in-

gredients, supervise the mixing process, and take out the finished product. Before the three months were up, P— was incapacitated. Severe cramps and colic and a slight headache fastened on him and kept him from work. This and the consequent weakness lasted two full months, at the end of which time, being again able to work, he became a farm hand on the outskirts of Brooklyn. Here, in a little place on R— Street, he did chores and tended live-stock from December, 1910, until the following May, for \$18 per month and his keep. In May he returned to the docks, where he now is, as described above.

The effect of the lead poisoning, which was so diagnosed by the company's doctor, seems now to be gone, except that P— complains that he is not as strong as before the attack. He looks, however, perfectly well.

P— says no instructions for care or cleanliness were ever given him in the lead shop, and that he never saw any instructions posted. The company provided a hot and cold water supply, and a doctor, but took no other precautions for their men.

#### THE LEAD WORKERS

(See page 229)

When the corrosion has suitably advanced, after one hundred days or so, the stripper takes down the stacks and empties out the white lead which has formed in crumbly cakes and powder. B—'s pay for this work was \$9.60 per week, for fifty-nine hours. He was given only the inadequate time of half an hour for dinner. He lost no time through slack work, but every year was incapacitated from one to two weeks.

The nature of the incapacity was the usual one with lead workers; severe cramps, colic, constipation, vomiting and loss of appetite. B— has been in this place now for four years, and has had four separate attacks, all with the identical symptoms. These attacks came from eight to sixteen months apart, and lasted each from five to fourteen days.

"No!" was the answer of both B— and his wife when asked about warnings or signs in the factory. He does not eat there, coming home to dinner. At meals he drinks two glasses of beer per day; he chews almost continuously, and every day smokes from five to ten cigarettes. Two cups of coffee make up his breakfast. He "sometimes" washes before eating, in cold water, and does not change his clothes either in the factory or at home. He is clean-shaven.

#### CASE No. 81—FRANK B—:

A VERY peculiar case is that of Frank B—, a young painter living on the lower East side. Apart from one severe attack of lead colic in 1903, he has had no apparent disturbances. But for the past ten years, beginning six years after he took up the trade in his boyhood, all the finger nails of both hands have been in a pitiful condition. They are blackened, corroded, and in many cases eaten away half way to the quick. He has several times had them treated, but their condition remains unimproved. One physician told him plainly they would never improve until he stopped painting. "What shall I do?" he said, "painting is all the trade I know." In addition to the corroded nails, his fingers frequently have spells of numbness or paralysis, during which it is impossible for him to hold or wield a brush.

He got the union scale of wages (\$22) for forty-four hours' work. The time lost by B—, due to his plumbism, is slight, being only a day or a half day at long intervals, but he reports from eight to twelve weeks lost yearly, due to slack time. "They rush us to death on the job," he declared, "and then worry us to death by making us hunt for a new one."

B— is unmarried. He was born in Roumania in 1879, coming to this country before his tenth year. No instructions were ever given him as to the insidious and far-reaching poison he was working with, or how to guard against it, nor were any such instructions posted in any place he worked.





SHOVELING WHITE LEAD INTO SEPARATOR—A VERY HAZARDOUS JOB

*(The Lead Workers, continued)*

**CASE No. 45 - SADIE G—:**

**S**ADIE is an intelligent, neat, clean girl, who has worked from the time she got her working papers in embroidery factories. In her work she was accustomed to use a white powder (chalk or talcum was usual) which was brushed over the perforated designs and thus transferred to the cloth. The design was easily brushed off when made of chalk or of talcum, if the embroiderers were not careful. Her last employer therefore commenced using white lead powder, mixed with rosin, which cheapened the work as the powder could not be rubbed off and necessitate restamping.

None of the girls knew of the change in powder, nor of the danger in its use. The workroom was crowded and hot, the stampers' tables were farthest from the windows and the constant use of the powder caused them to breathe it continually and their hands were always covered with it.

Sadie had been a very strong, healthy girl, good appetite and color; she began to be unable to eat, had terrible colic, but con-

tinued to go to work in spite of the fact that she felt miserable. Her hands and feet swelled, she lost the use of one hand, her teeth and gums were blue. When she finally had to stop work, after being treated for months, for stomach trouble, her physician advised her to go to a hospital. There the examination revealed the fact that she had lead poisoning—which was unaccountable as no one knew that her work had involved the use of lead until some one who had been on the job also recalled hearing the manager send a messenger out with money several times to buy a white lead powder.

Sadie was sick in the hospital for six months—(losing \$10 per week). She said her employer bought off several of her witnesses, but before the case came to trial two years later several of them also became ill and consequently decided to testify for her. The employer appealed to the girl's feelings and induced her, on the day of the trial, to accept \$150. He said that he had had business reverses and consequently would be unable to pay in case she won. Her lawyer was suing for \$10,000.



## DANGEROUS TO BE CARELESS; PERILOUS NOT TO BE

Carelessness in factories is not guilty of all the things with which it is charged. If a man is too careful he is bound to get hurt because of his awkwardness. He must avoid that danger by learning the motions so well that they become automatic and he does not have to think about them. Then he is likely to get hurt whenever the machine balks. This leaves him in something of a dilemma, but it appears to be the truth, for it is a conclusion reached by the Federal Bureau of Labor after a careful study of accidents in the metal trades.<sup>1</sup>

Out of 517 accidents studied, 234 were charged to carelessness on the factory records. The report disputes this classification in the case of two groups of workers—those who were careful and those who were care-free.

The first group was the larger and consisted of workers who had been in the shops less than a week. Of these the report says:

"The faltering learner is in constant danger. Not only are his movements apt to be awkward and imperfectly co-ordinated, but the very intensity of his care is in itself a source of danger; strained attention leads to action by anticipation. . . . Mangled fingers, a lost hand, or greater mutilation may result.

"This would certainly be attributed to carelessness by any foreman in any factory. But is it so? . . . A normally organized nervous system has simply done what it must under the circumstances, and disaster results. . . ."

Naturally the more nervously constructed the worker, the greater the danger. Hence the new women workers form the larger proportion in this group.

The other disputed group of accidents can be classed roughly as due to "taking risks." The analysis of underlying causes in this group is extremely important.

"As practice continues," says the report, "the tension gradually subsides and the worker attends less closely, but is vastly more safe. The operator may look at other things, may speak with a companion, or do things which indicate that attention is no longer concentrated to so painful a degree upon the work. At the same time the rhythmic movement of the hands keeps on and the output of the machine continues. This condition is often described as one of carelessness. The term is exceedingly misleading in this connection, since it implies that the worker is taking a risk in a blameworthy fashion. In becoming thus, in a measure, detached from the machine, the worker does the only thing which can relieve the relatively great danger which assails the beginner.

"In his case danger intrudes at two points, at neither of which can he be said to sustain a responsible position toward the result. A very large number of mechanical processes involve a

series of operations. . . . For example, in the operation of the stamping press, the adjustment by the fingers of the object to be formed is followed by a movement of the foot releasing the treadle. Gradually the two motions assume a direct relation of cause and effect, with no intervening volition. . . . Suppose the worker has reached this stage of his development. Some roughness in the work, some failure of the machine to do its work exactly may delay or disturb the first motion . . . and the execution of the second may, probably will, give rise to danger. . . . But once started the successive motions are beyond the worker's control.

"Another disturbance of the usual cause of events may occur through the special senses. . . . After the series of motions starts, the worker sees something wrong with the machine. This may, usually will, start an entirely new series of actions, but does not stop the one already started. Here again comes in the inevitable movement of a nervous machine. In an entirely involuntary way he reaches to adjust the disordered machine. . . . He will press the treadle and at the same time put his hand under the die."

From accidents due to these causes, women are the most frequent sufferers. - The reason being that they generally work on the lighter and therefore swifter machines.

If then, the care-free automatic manner of working is best for both worker and product, the manufacturer for his own and the workers' protection should provide such safeguards that the operatives working automatically will be automatically protected to so complete an extent that accidents are impossible. In a few of the metal works visited an approach to this condition of automatic safety was found.

## JOTTINGS

### HAT MAKING BEFORE AND AFTER

Among the most effective unions of women workers in the United States is the Hat Trimmers' Union which is at its strongest in Newark. *Life and Labor* sets forth in "before and after" columns what organization has done for the hat trimmers:

#### BEFORE ORGANIZATION

Low wages.  
No limits to working hours.  
Home work.  
Discharge in dull season.  
No protection from insult.  
No pay for extra work.  
Worker had to provide silk.  
Worker had to furnish cotton and needles.  
Favorites received easy work.  
No heed given to workers' grievances.  
Doors locked; no fire protection.

#### AFTER ORGANIZATION

50 per cent increase of wages.  
52 hours a week.  
No home work.  
No discharge; fair distribution of work.  
Worker respected.  
Extra pay for extra work.  
Employer provides silk.  
Employer provides cotton and needles.  
No favorites; fair division of easy and hard work.  
Conferences held and grievances adjusted.  
Open doors; fire protection.

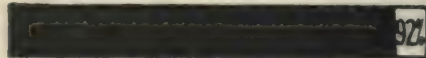
<sup>1</sup> Federal Report on Woman and Child Wage-Earners in the United States, 19 Vols. Prepared under the direction of Charles P. Neill. Volume XI, Employment of Women in the Metal Trades, by Lucian W. Chaney.



## THE CHURCH— The Source of Supply of Social Reform Workers—

Results of a recent study  
involving 1012 persons.

### PERCENTAGE OF CHURCH MEMBERS



Associated Charity Workers.



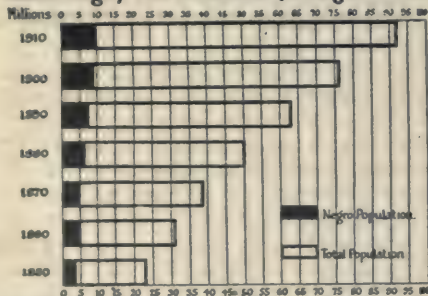
Social Settlement Workers.



General Social Workers.

## THE NEGRO.

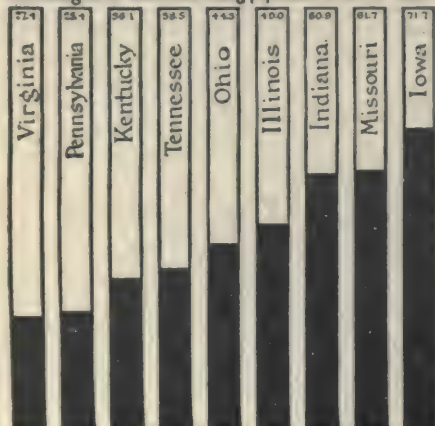
Proportion between Total Population  
and Negro Population in the United States.  
Relative decrease of Negroes as compared with  
Whites largely due to unsanitary living conditions



In sixty years the total Population increased about four-fold.  
The negro population increased about two and two-thirds-fold.  
Actual increase negro population from 1900 to 1910 - 994,300.

## LOSS OF POPULATION IN NINE GREAT AGRICULTURAL STATES

Percentages of counties losing population from 1900 to 1910



## CHURCH AND

EDITED BY

## OWNERSHIP OF WEALTH IN THE U.S. AND GROWTH OF SOCIALISM

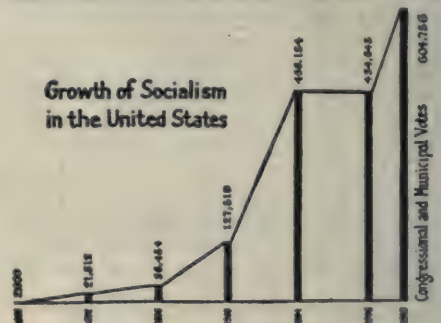
POPULATION

WEALTH

0.5% OWNS 70.5%

25.0% OWNS 25.3%

70.5% OWNS 4.2%



## HOME MISSION WEEK: ITS PLEA FOR THE PUBLIC FUNCTION OF CHURCH WORK

GRAHAM TAYLOR

There are cheering signs all along the horizon that both the churches and the body politic are recognizing the public function of religion, and are depending, as never before, upon its fulfilment for the support and progress of state and church. This indicates no reversion to any organic union between church and state. More and more in other lands, as always in America, the state-church and the church-state are realized to be disadvantageous alike to civil and ecclesiastical interests.

But signs multiply that the churches are re-awakening to their quasi-public functions and their semi-official status, and that the body politic is increasingly aware of its dependence upon the religion of the churches for its stability and progress. No more emphatic recognition of this fact has ever been given by the churches than by the preparations made for the observance of Home Mission Week, November 17-24, by the federated protestant churches. When the representatives of their 22,000,000 members, 60,000,000 adherents, 215,000 organizations, 162,000 ministers, and \$1,300,000,000 worth of church property put forth their appeal calling upon church members and citizens alike to support the work of the churches for the home land what facts and fig-



## GRAHAM TAYLOR

Cities of 200,000 or more, including territory lying within ten miles of city limits —

Metropolitan  
Districts  
4,717,592 acres

Total land surface  
for United States-  
1900,947,200 acres

Metropolitan  
Districts  
99.088.851

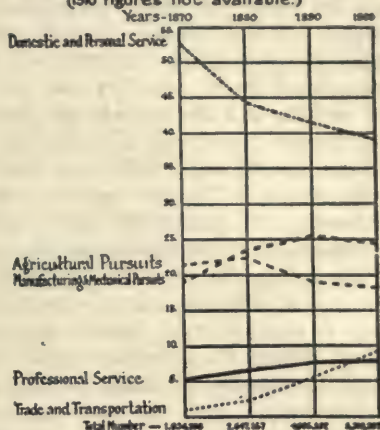
Total for  
United States-  
81,972,266

One-Fourth of the population in the United States lives on  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the total land area.

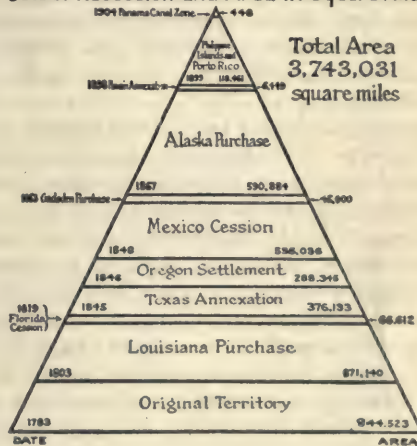
ures, what motives and persuasion did they use? Outsiders who have not kept up with the times, as well as some belated insiders, might expect the appeal to have been made to denominational sectarian zeal, to ecclesiastical pride, and to the worthier, but narrowly individualistic, concern for the loss of souls. This probably would have been the burden of the appeal if it had been made by denominational mission boards two or more decades ago, before it was possible for them to federate in their "home missions council" and to issue this present joint appeal. But now it is evident that the church and the community are too conscious of each other's existence and of the community of interests between them to allow any such appeal to misrepresent them.

This deepening and broadening social consciousness characterizing the dawn of the twentieth century finds expression, as profoundly significant as it is prophetic, in the "twelve poster pointers," some of which are here reproduced. Only two deal with ecclesiastical statistics. The eight shown are devoted to conditions in the body politic which concern civic patriotism as deeply as they involve loyalty to religious ideals and motives. Four touch on population problems, dealing with its movement from country to city and from shore to shore, and with the relative growth of the Negro race; one deals with the expansion of territory, one with illiteracy in

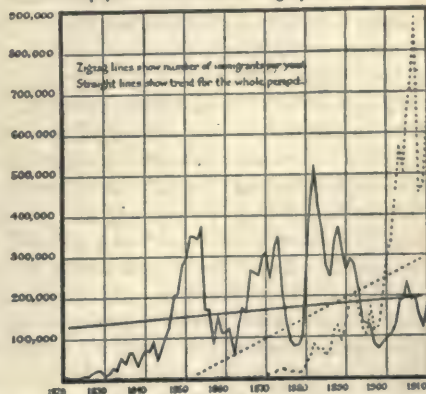
\* Percentages in each occupation group 1870-1900  
(1910 figures not available.)



## Date of Accession and Area in Square Miles



— shows proportion from Germany, Great Britain, Ireland, Scandinavia  
..... shows proportion from Austria-Hungary, Italy, Russia





Cuba, and another with the economic aspects of the liquor problem, relating the total of wages paid and the cost of raw material to the proportion spent for bread and clothing and for intoxicating liquor. Two visualize significantly the percentages of women and children employed in each occupational group, together with the ownership of wealth and the growth of Socialism. These charts show the trend of American social and religious conditions. "What are you doing to meet the situation?" is the question asked of the churches by the Home Mission Council.

Surely this type of church appeal heralds the dawn of a new day, but it is the dawning again of the old Sun of Righteousness, with healing in his wings. It is no less the light of understanding arising within the common mind—understanding of the complex relations of man to man in modern society. It is the movement of the common heart to realize the undying hope of social justice and human brotherhood. It is the movement of the common will to find and apply some adjustment of the disturbed relationship and dislodged classes, caused by the most revolutionary force ever introduced into human affairs, except the gospel, namely, the modern industrial system.

It cannot be denied and should not be forgotten, however, that America owes the rise and spread of much of this light which now illumines the common day to the churches and synagogues of religion. Their pilgrim fathers and pioneer priests, circuit riders and frontier missionaries, their Sunday schools at the cross roads, home mission churches and synagogues, with their little congregations and reserve funds, have led the way in which town government, county institutions, state legislatures have followed and found support. There have been no more germinant units of civic politics than these pioneer home mission churches around which the New England town meeting arose and our western towns have grown up. Their preachers and pastors have been the pioneers, their Sunday schools have been the couriers, their superintendents, and college presidents have been the statesmen on the advance line of our civilization. First among the social agencies for raising the abject, restoring the subject and assimilating the alien elements of our American cosmopolitan population are the missionary schools, institutions and personal ministries of the churches among the neediest Negro, Indian and immigrant peoples.<sup>1</sup>

Across the frontiers in the rear, as well as in the vanguards of our civic and social progress, those who constitute the rank and file doing the remedial, constructive work in philanthropy and for social justice as well as those who lead them, are largely recruited from among those who are either members of the church and synagogue, or

have been inspired and partly trained by them for such service. One of the diagrams brings out the fact that of a thousand social workers recently tabulated 92 per cent of those connected with associated charities, 88 per cent of those connected with social settlements and 71 per cent of all others are church members. This should mark the beginning of the end of that distrustful spirit and non-co-operative attitude between church and community which has been so disastrous to both. It should assure the community that it pays to support the churches—that it pays to support them more largely than they have been supported. The church also should be encouraged to go on "watering the roots," putting the under-pinning out of sight, underneath everything, recruiting more kinds of ministry, even at the expense of having fewer ministers of one kind, and building better than she knows. Certainly her experience in so doing in foreign lands proves how well warranted is her adventure of faith in casting her bread upon the waters. For after many days it is returning not only in the new Japan, the new China, the awaking India, the emerging Africa and in the freedom of the Balkan peoples and the restriction and reconstruction of the Turkish Empire, but after many days the churches will yet regain at least their co-operative unity as a return for their world work in foreign missions.

While it is to the credit of the churches that they have put their social ideals and efforts into life rather than into literature, however imperfectly, unevenly and slowly they may have done so, yet the social literature of the church grows apace both in value and in volume. The official reports and papers presented by foreign, home and city missionary executives and agencies are becoming more statesmanlike. This is more indicative of progress even than the rapidly increasing monographs written by church scholars in the fields of social research and constructive effort. It is equally significant also that each new constructive effort puts forth literature of its own, or republishes other social literature for its own use. The seven volumes of *Men and Religion* Messages contribute to social literature the notable congress addresses and the still more original reports of commissions on Social Service, Boys' Work, The Rural Church, The Church and the Press, together with new emphasis upon the social significance of Bible study, evangelism, missions and Christian unity.<sup>1</sup> The set of eleven volumes previously published by the press of the Young Men's Christian Association, under the title of the *Men and Religion Library*, significantly includes such monographs as Devine's *Misery and Its Causes* and Rauschenbusch's *Christianity and the Social Crisis*. The religious press is also being permeated by the

<sup>1</sup>H. Paul Douglass, *Christian Reconstruction in the South*. Pilgrim Press.

<sup>1</sup>Messages of the Men and Religion Movement, Association Press, 124 East 28th Street, New York.



social spirit which radiates from a few papers edited with keen social intelligence, insight and outlook.

No "leading question" has ever been more incisively put both to the church and the community, predicating the identity of their interests,

than Mr. McAfee raises in these columns: Who Owns the Church? From whatever point of view answers may be given, they one and all must admit the claim which the community has on the church to be at least equal to the claim which the church has on the community.

## WHO OWNS THE CHURCH?

JOSEPH ERNEST McAFEE

Church property in the United States aggregates at least a billion and a half dollars. This makes no reckoning of the immense values invested in adjunct institutions which the churches directly or indirectly control, such as schools, hospitals, orphanages and the like. The operation of church plants proper requires an annual expenditure of \$250,000,000.

Who puts up all this money? Who owns this vast investment?

The answer is immediate and simple for one who understands and accepts American principles. There are 35,000,000 members in the American churches. The proprietorship resides in these thirty-five millions. The policies of the various denominations differ widely. In some the rank and file of the membership have little or no voice in the details of administration. Those who administer are "representatives" of the people, often perhaps very remote in their representation, but it is unthinkable that an American institution should be administered by agents or agencies not even remotely responsible to the people whom they represent. Whatever may be the traditional theories of church polity, Americans do not deliberately accept a system which puts them and their property at the uncontrolled disposition of a hierarchy.

And fundamental American principles carry us a step further. The church is a public institution. It is supported by the public, is designed to serve the public, and belongs finally to the public. Not even these 35,000,000 members are the absolute owners of the accumulated church property. The American church is not, of course, a state institution. Americans are tenacious of this distinction. But the church is in most commonwealths specially protected and encouraged by the state and is often granted favors which no other institutions enjoy under the law. In many regions its property is exempt from taxation. Certain kinds of business, otherwise recognized by the law, which tend to interfere with the effective conduct of the church's work, are prohibited from encroachment upon zones occupied by churches. Other semi-public institutions grant the churches valuable favors. Ministers are generally carried at half fare on the railroads. In large sections of the country the railroads furnish certain leaders of the church annual passes, and thus carry them free,

of course, at the expense of the traveling public.

Thus by final reckoning the church is a public institution; it belongs to the community. The actual cash required for its maintenance is often supplied by the community at large. Comparatively few church buildings have been erected by the contributions alone of the actual members of a particular society. Even the money immediately required for the annual operating expenses often comes from the community. Almost every church receives regular and substantial subscriptions from persons not enrolled as members. In some cases this source of revenue supplies the major part of the support. The merchants and influential residents of the town, regardless of their immediate church membership, are canvassed regularly in some communities. The churches are treated as public institutions, at least for advertising purposes. The next time you ride through any of the boom-sections of the country, where the attractions of the towns are set forth on flaming boards at the railroad stations, observe the uniformity with which the three, six or twenty churches are mentioned near the head of the list, by way of attracting new residents to the community.

Who then has the final right to control the immense investment of money involved? Not the thirty-five million members. The American churches belong to the whole American people.

To this extent they are on a footing with the railroads. It is remembered that, a few years ago, a prominent railroad president made certain dogmatic declarations about the absolute rights vested in those whom an inscrutable providence had placed in charge of the railroads of the country; it is also remembered what a storm of protest went up from the whole American people, and how vehemently his claims were repudiated. Not even the stock-holders absolutely own the railroads. Their officers and directors have not the right to run them as they may choose. The railroads belong finally to the whole people, the whole people support them, and more and more stringent laws are enacted to compel them to serve all the people impartially.

The same principles are applicable to the churches. In the case of all such public and semi-public institutions the stake of the whole people is now generally recognized. No citizen can walk the street before a church and say, "You are no concern of mine"; nor can any



church frown down upon the humblest passer and say, "Go your way, I am none of yours."

### *The Exercise of Proprietorship*

Yet no branch of the American church operates under a method by which those who own the church control its policies and activities. Perhaps there are some who believe that the church is all the better off because this is true, but their conviction is beside the point; the fact remains, whether the result is good or bad. It may be insisted that the activities of some branches of the church do accurately express the popular will, but if that is true it is much of an accident, for in none is the machinery of administration scientifically adjusted to guarantee that issue. When King Edward VII died, an eminent British royalist declared in a memorial address that if England were a republic their popular king would undoubtedly have been elected president. The notion may have convinced the royalist of the virtues of the monarchical system, but probably is not convincing to the thoughtful republican.

Furthermore, there is much evidence that those who own the American churches do not discover in the churches' activities the expression of their will. This is perhaps not revealed so clearly by criticism of the church as by indifference to it. The criticism may seem to leave nothing to be desired in the way of criticism, either as regards volume or animus. But violent as such criticism has often become, an unconcerned or flippant indifference is far more conclusive evidence that the people do not take their ownership seriously. The vast majority of even nominal members are abysmally ignorant of what is going on in their own branch of the church, not to speak of the other branches. Hundreds of thousands, perhaps millions of church members themselves do not from year-end to year-end cast a vote or in any conscious manner exercise their franchise for or against any policy of the church. Certainly multitudes of those not even nominal members go from year-end to year-end unconscious of the church's existence, except as it is accidentally called to their attention.

The growing volume of criticism may well be taken as an evidence of renewed vitality in the public's consciousness of the church. The people are at least taking notice. In a democracy sluggish indifference is perhaps more to be feared than riot. But once the public consciousness is stirred, the public will insist upon finding expression in the public institutions. What will happen when the people, both in and out, who own the churches, awaken to full consciousness of their proprietorship? There is much politics in the churches already. There is much discussion of who shall have this office and who shall

have the other, much debate as to whether theological conservatism or radicalism shall control the standards of thought; there is much heated argument as to radical or conservative measures of administration. But relatively a very small group of disputants generate all the heat, and even the most vital issues are as if they did not exist in the thought of the large majority of the people.

### *When the Owners Take Hold*

In civic affairs Americans insist upon voting directly for their presidents. They have to all practical intents discarded the electoral college which the framers of the constitution with determined zeal thrust between them and their franchise. But no private member of a principal branch of the American churches voted directly for the officer or officers who control the policies or in any large way execute them in his church. The direct election of Senators is certain to win out,—has already won out, though apparently insuperable constitutional barriers intervene. But who ever heard of direct elections by the people in the churches? Even the petty offices of the local congregation usually get filled by a process incomprehensible to the average church member. What a far cry it would be for the people of the churches to claim an ecclesiastical initiative and referendum and recall! And yet a great mass of the American people are clamoring for these prerogatives of democracy in civil affairs with a seriousness and determination which is bound to win still further victories for such policies, whatever may be the final verdict as to their value. The contest is at least evidence of the seriousness with which the people take their civil democracy.

It becomes an interesting question how long the very same people who are seriously bent upon these prerogatives in civil affairs will remain oblivious to the manner in which they are shut out from exercising them, or anything like them, in the church. One wonders how long the thoughtful American will contentedly carry his religion and his politics in sealed compartments. Ecclesiastical and civil ideas can surely not long surge through the same brain without at least a slight admixture. And when the admixture takes place some interesting things will happen. This article is not intended to add a single rivulet to the torrent of criticism pouring out upon the church nowadays. It aims merely to point out facts. But it certainly will be fun to live through the next decade—or two or three—and to observe and have part in what will happen when the American people come to comprehend who owns the church and who has a right to control it.

Such an analysis as this may seem cold and impassive. What is the church, anyway? A pile of brick and mortar, which can be assessed at



so many dollars? Who cares that the real estate upon which church buildings are erected is estimated at a billion and a half of dollars? Land and buildings are not the church, and the church is not they; the church cannot be bought and sold! All of which may in certain connections be worth declaiming, to be sure, just as it has sometimes been found important to declare that the brain is not the mind. But, all the same, no one can quite comprehend how the mind can function apart from the brain. It may be desirable frequently to magnify the "church invisible," but to become a vital force in human society the church commonly finds it convenient if not necessary to assume an intensely visible and tangible form. And though this "form," in the subtle analysis of some, may not be veritably "the church," yet the most of the people are so severely pragmatic as to associate the "form" indissolubly with the substance. In any event the question is not less interesting, Who owns the churches, and, upon claiming proprietorship, what will the owners do with them?

#### FRESH FROM THE FIELD

From the correspondence which immediately sprang up in response to the announcement of this department last month new sources of information and suggestion are opening to us which we hope to share with our readers. One way to do this will be to quote excerpts which show the way the winds of the spirit are blowing. From old Mexico a business man pauses to write:

"Something must be done for the betterment of the poor and ignorant masses here. There is a special need for work in public playgrounds and recreation. It will have the support of good citizens here. A street boys' home was started, with beds for 200 boys and provision for meals. Teachers from public schools give free instruction at night. It is a good sign that Mexicans as much as foreigners are interested in this work. In the turmoil of change that is going on politically, I hope to see a better social order worked out."

An Ohio correspondent suggests an inquiry into the work being done to train boys and girls in the principle and practice of social service, particularly by the Sunday schools. We shall be glad to have other correspondents answer this inquiry by citing practical endeavors being made to this end.

A New York correspondent informs us of the organization of the Laity League for Social Service by the New York Federation of Churches. One of its first interests is to find effective methods of dealing with the social evil in New York. Another reports the very significant utterances at a social welfare conference which crowded the Cathedral of St. John the Divine to its utmost capacity. Mayor Sague of Poughkeepsie made a deep impression by his terse description of "the church coming to her-

self, the spirit of Christ acting through the church in social service." He wanted such an answer as the early Christians might have given to his question "what the cathedral means to the toilers of the city, the tired, underpaid women, to all those of the numerous throng who find life hard and dull, to the idle, the vicious, to those who prey upon their fellows?" On the same occasion Winston Churchill broke away from his campaign for the governorship of New Hampshire to speak of the modern spirit of the churches as a closer relationship to every-day life. Bishop McCormick of western Michigan thought that the complexity and confusion which the church meets in dealing with labor is no greater than labor meets in dealing with the churches. The unionizing of labor is a plea for church unity. Only "christianized labor and democratized Christianity can win the world for justice, righteousness and peace."

#### JOTTINGS

##### ROMAN CATHOLIC SOCIAL ADVANCES

Roman Catholic churches and societies in Chicago are advancing their social work vigorously. Perhaps the most significant movement is the devotion of a parochial school building to the social work of a neighborhood center. St. Malachy's church has taken the lead and set a high standard in dedicating its new school to this purpose. This action is the more noteworthy because the opening of public school buildings as social centers has not been favored in some church quarters.

The fifteen Catholic charitable organizations recently established the Catholic Federation of Charities of Chicago, which is expected to include as many as 200 Catholic institutions and societies. At the call of Cardinal Farley a similar step was taken in New York, where the central organization is to be known as the United Catholic Works.

The Polish Roman Catholic Union of America, numbering 60,000 members, laid the corner-stone of a great new building on the west side in Chicago, which is to be the national headquarters. It is to cost \$132,000, exclusive of the site, and will occupy a prominent corner at the juncture of Milwaukee avenue and Augusta street. Besides providing ample offices, it will include a library, two halls and club rooms for the use of the 270 parish branches in Chicago, where the Polish population now exceeds 350,000.

##### JEWISH COMMUNAL DIRECTORY

Modeled in a measure after the "Kehillahs," or Jewish communities of the old world, and designed as a special authoritative and representative body of the Jews in New York, the Jewish Community, or Kehillah, of New York City was organized in 1909 by representatives of 500 organizations. In this the third year of its existence it issues the first annual number of the Jewish Communal Directory. Its 140 pages contain a list of 3,300 Jewish organizations, classified according to the purpose of each group and arranged alphabetically.



## HEALTH

THE reference Miss Eaton makes in her article on the eugenics movement on page 242 to the widely divergent opinions among scientists as to the inheritance of acquired characteristics, brings to mind a lively controversy that has been raging ever since the time of Darwin and that has had a profound effect on both sociology and moral science as well as on biology.

As is well known, Darwin believed that both through sexual selection and through adaptation to environment a gradual physical modification took place in the animal, and that this was handed down by inheritance. The most conspicuous opponent of this view has been Weismann, who holds that no outer influence can alter the germ plasm, and that only accidental variations inherent in the germ plasm are passed on to the offspring.

To take a concrete illustration, Darwin believed that the eyeless fish and crustaceans of subterranean rivers had reached this condition as the result of a gradual atrophy and disappearance of the eyes and optic lobes caused by lack of use, this change increasing from generation to generation. Weismann holds that from time to time accidental variations occur, and that when this variation happens to render the animal better fitted to his environment, as would be the case with eyeless individuals born in the darkness, these individuals are better able to propagate their kind. Their offspring inheriting this accidental variation hand it down and gradually displace the descendants of the normal but less well-adapted crustaceans.

Obviously, the time required by the Weismannian hypothesis would be aeons longer than that required by the Darwinian, but even if we accept the enormous lapse of time which this system of evolution demands, there are certain variations hard to explain by it. For instance, most dogs turn round and round in a circle before lying down to sleep. This is explained as a relic of the time when they were beasts of the jungle and were accustomed to tramping down the long grass to make a bed for themselves. As a gradually acquired habit, this is easily understandable, but it is hard to conceive that dogs born from time to time with this tendency should have had so enormous an advantage over their fel-



*Courtesy of Life and Labor.*

WHY THE BABIES ARE AT REST

lows in the struggle for existence as to succeed in displacing them altogether.

For many years Weismannism held sway, and was almost unquestioningly received by biologists and made the basis for ethical and sociological theories by medical men and economists, who did not know enough to examine it critically. Of late, however, there has been a strong tendency away from it and back to Darwinism. This is due to the revival of experimental work, a real return to the methods of Darwin, the secret of whose greatness was that he

never theorized without putting every step to the test of observed facts.

Peter Kropotkin gave in the November and December issues of the *Nineteenth Century* of last year a most interesting review of these recent experiments on the response of animals to environment and the influence of environment on the germ plasm. He says that these biologists have established one important fact, that besides the accidental, indiscriminate, indefinite variations of which the cause is utterly unknown, and which in their bulk must be kept within certain narrow limits, there is variation which is definite, discriminate, greater in its effects, and to a very large degree adaptive. It is impossible to give descriptions of the observations on which this statement is founded, for it would take too much space, but by way of illustration mention may be made of the rapid adaptation of certain lowland plants to Alpine conditions, an adaptation appearing in the daughter plant and showing more clearly still in the granddaughter; and also the changes in the sense organs of crustaceans, which are kept in the dark for several generations and then restored again to the light. The articles will well repay reading, and the impartial student will do well to read also the contrary view as expressed by Sir Ray Lankester in the September number of the same review.

\* \* \*

IN the report of the conference of the American Academy of Medicine, New Haven, 1909, there is an article<sup>1</sup> on the relation between large families and infant mortality, which confirms the position Miss Fiske takes on this ques-

<sup>1</sup>Excessive Child-Bearing as a Factor in Infant Mortality. By Alice Hamilton, Hull House, Chicago.



tion in her article entitled *Where Race Suicide Does not Prevail* on page 244.

An inquiry was made into the histories of 1,600 families in the neighborhoods of Hull House and the University of Chicago Settlement and these families were divided into two groups—the first including those with four children and less than four—the second those with six children and more than six. Families with five children were omitted. The results, calculated on a basis of 1,000 births, were for the small family group, 118 deaths under three years of age, and for the large family group, 267. The rate increased as the size of the family increased, as can be seen by the following table:

#### INFANT DEATH RATES IN LARGE FAMILIES

Families of 4 children and less 118 deaths per 1,000 births;				
"	"	6	"	" over 267
"	"	7	"	" 280
"	"	8	"	" 291
"	"	9	"	" 303

In discussing this paper, Dr. Theodate Smith of Clark University, gave a summary of the results of an inquiry into the history of the marriages of Harvard and Yale graduates, extending back over two hundred years. Apparently large families and an amazingly high infant mortality went hand in hand in early days in New England. Seven out of thirteen children dying in infancy, or even nine out of ten were not unusual instances. Following up the histories of 323 women it was found that many of their children were defective and did not live to maturity or did not marry, and that these very large families tended to be extinguished by the fourth or fifth generation.

\* \* \*

FOR the last few years, we have all been shocked and alarmed by successive epidemics of poliomyelitis, the so-called infant paralysis, which have appeared in widely separated places, have spread mysteriously without following the usual laws of contagion, and have caused death or hopeless crippling in children and grown people. Facts have been reported which seem to show that the contagion passed from person to person, and again other cases were reported occurring sporadically in remote country districts. That the disease is caused by a germ seems most probable, but exhaustive researches have failed to discover it.

No disease can be prevented or controlled unless we know how it is carried, and it is extremely difficult to discover the mode of transmission when the infectious agent has not been discovered. In the case of poliomyelitis, we do not know the virus, we only know that it is small enough to pass a filter which holds back the ordinary germs of disease. Other diseases caused by a filterable virus have been found to be conveyed from the infected to the healthy through the bites of insects, as for instance yellow fever, and it is natural that the minds of investigators should turn to the possibility of insect-borne infection in poliomyelitis. The investigation of

recent epidemics by the Massachusetts State Board of Health brought out evidence in favor of this mode of infection. The summer and autumn months are the season for epidemics, not the winter. It is a disease of the country and small town, rather than of the city.

Dr. M. J. Rosenau of Harvard reported at the recent International Congress of Hygiene in Washington<sup>1</sup> the results of his experiments to show whether or not the biting stable fly (*Stomoxys Calcitrans*) is a possible transmitter of the infection of poliomyelitis. He caused these flies to feed on the discharges of monkeys infected with poliomyelitis, and then caught the flies and imprisoned them in cages with healthy monkeys whom the flies then bit. At the time this report was made he could not speak with absolute positiveness of the result, because there had not yet been time enough to show whether the diseased spinal cord of the second series of monkeys would carry the virus to a third series.

\* \* \*

THIS missing link in the chain of evidence has just been supplied by Anderson and Frost, who report that they were able to transmit poliomyelitis from diseased monkeys to healthy ones through the agency of stable flies and to transmit the infection to a fresh monkey by injecting an emulsion of the cord of one of the animals infected by the flies.

In the early days of bacteriology, Robert Koch declared that in order to prove that a certain germ is the cause of an infectious disease, three postulates must be fulfilled: First, the infectious agent must be found in an enormous number of cases of the disease; second, this infectious agent, when obtained in pure culture, must be capable of producing in animals the disease in question, and third, it must be found again in the bodies of the experimentally infected animals. Of course, in the case of an invisible filterable virus it is much harder to fulfill Koch's postulates, because the presence of the virus can be proved only by its effect on a susceptible animal. Anderson's and Frost's experiments seem to have proved that the virus can be carried by the bite of the stable fly.

It is hardly possible to exaggerate the importance of such a discovery. Time was when the prospect of an outbreak of cholera or of yellow fever filled people with blind, unreasoning terror, now it simply rouses health authorities to vigorous preventive measures. During the last few years, parents have fled panic stricken from localities where poliomyelitis had appeared, because they knew of no way to shield their children from the infection. It remains, of course, for further work to determine whether the bite of this fly is the usual or the only method of transmission of this disease, but in the meantime the confirmation of Rosenau's theory will undoubtedly result in efforts by health authorities in cases where poliomyelitis has prevailed to isolate carefully all suspected cases and to eliminate the stable fly.

<sup>1</sup>See *Health and the Nations*. By Ira S. Wile, *THE SURVEY*, November 2, 1912, p. 147.



# THE EUGENICS MOVEMENT

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The meeting of the First International Eugenics Congress in London in July brings to the attention more concretely the rapid growth of the new science of eugenics. Opinions differ widely as to the value of the meetings and some even agree with Peter Kropotkin that eugenics should not yet be dignified with the title of a science but that it is only a group of ideas, generalities and desires of a few people.

AS THE SURVEY has already stated, the congress proved to be rather an "exchange of views and mutual instruction than a scientific body equipped to work out a platform of concerted action." Yet to some, as to Prof. Raymond Pearl who writes in *Science*, the congress seemed a great success from every point of view, with an almost entire lack of the sensationalism and hasty generalization as to the solution of fundamental social problems which had been expected by the general public. No attempt was made toward a technically scientific congress since such a policy seemed unwise. In the eugenics movement an earnest attempt is being made to show that science is the only safe guide in respect to the most fundamental of social problems, "but if science wishes to lead, she must speak the same language as those she expects to follow her." The personnel of the attendance was of the highest rank, and from an international point of view, the congress seems to have given a valuable opportunity for a full discussion of eugenic problems as they appear in different civilizations and communities.

The reports as a whole seemed to show that in no country is research work in eugenics being carried on more widely than in America. An account has already been given in THE SURVEY of the aims of eugenics and a statement made as to the establishment of the eugenics record office at Cold Spring Harbor, Long Island, N. Y., in October, 1910. The work has been developed rapidly since that time, two more summer classes of field workers have been trained by Dr. Davenport and many more institutions in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, New Jersey and other states have since added such workers to their staffs and are now carrying on investi-

gations into the family histories of their patients, be they feeble-minded, epileptic or insane. The eugenics record office has published its findings in a series of bulletins, and two memoirs are shortly to appear. In these we undoubtedly get as thorough and scientific work as can be found anywhere in the treatment of eugenic data.

In addition to the work of the record office, many states are carrying on independent work in eugenics. For instance, in Virginia the State Board of Charities has been undertaking an investigation of their feeble-minded with a view to persuading their legislature to provide them a home for the feeble-minded where adequate custodial care can be given. On the ground that efficient government contemplates not only the immediate happiness of the people but also considers the citizens of the future and therefore is concerned for the improvement of the race, the New York State Board of Charities a year ago established a Bureau of Analysis and Investigation with special reference to eugenics, and an outline of its field and purpose may be found in THE SURVEY for September 21, 1912. In New Jersey, a eugenics bureau is also in process of formation and in Utah a state eugenics society is being planned. Other states are showing their interest in single phases of the movement and hardly one is not engaged in some eugenic work.

The literature of eugenics is growing apace. In England besides the works of Galton, Pearson, Bateson, and the Eugenic Memoirs, we have the writings of the Whethams' and Havelock Ellis's recent book, *The Task of Social Hygiene*, as well as six short studies called *Tracts of the Times*. The earlier studies in America included Dugdale's *Jukes*, Winship's *Jukes-Edwards*, and later we find Kellicott's *Social Direction of Human Evolution*, Davenport's *Heredity in Relation to Eugenics*, Jordan's *Heredity of Richard Roe*, Goddard's *Kallikak Family*, Kellogg's *Beyond War* and others touching other phases of the subject.

The eugenics movement is thus seen to have strong scientific backing in this country and abroad, but it is unfortunate perhaps that the



social worker looks with distrust upon the biologist and that the latter fails to appreciate the devoted and scientific work of the former. There is therefore emerging a new figure, the eugenicist, who is seeking to harmonize the two viewpoints, to show each the deeper value of the other, to attempt to co-operate with both and to lead both on to broader programs and concerted action.

Possibly no one is fitted to present the new position as adequately as does Havelock Ellis:

"The great movement of social reform during the nineteenth century has moved in four stages, each of which has reinforced rather than replaced that which went before; (1) the effort to cleanse the gross filth of the cities and to remedy obvious disorder by systematic attention to scavenging, drainage, the supply of water and artificial light as well as by improved policing; (2) the great system of factory legislation for regulating the conditions of work and to some extent restraining the work of women and children; (3) the introduction of national systems of education and the gradual extension of the idea of education to cover far more than mere instruction; and (4) most fundamental of all and last to appear, the effort to guard the child before the school age, even at birth, even before birth, by bestowing due care on the future mother. . . . Social hygiene may be said to be a development and even a transformation of what was formerly known as social reform. In that transformation it has undergone two fundamental changes. In the first place it is no longer merely an attempt to deal with the conditions under which life is lived, seeking to treat bad conditions as they occur without going to their source, but it aims at prevention. It ceases to be simply a reforming of forms and approaches in a comprehensive manner not only the conditions of life but life itself. In the second place, its method is no longer haphazard but organized and systematic, being based on a growing knowledge of those biological sciences which were scarcely in their infancy when the era of social reform began. Thus social hygiene is at once more radical and more scientific than the old conception of social reform. It is the inevitable method by which at a certain stage, civilization is compelled to continue its own course and to preserve, perhaps to elevate the race. . . . Eugenics constitutes the link between the social reform of the past, painfully struggling to improve the conditions of life, and the social hygiene of the future which is authorized to deal adequately with the conditions of life because it has its hands on the sources of life. On this plane we are able to concentrate our energies on the finer ends of life, because we may reasonably expect to be no longer hampered by the ever-increasing burdens which

were placed upon us by the failure to control life, while the more we succeed in our efforts to purify and strengthen life, the more magnificent become the tasks we may reasonably hope to attempt and compass."

In *THE SURVEY* for February 18, 1911, the editor took up a discussion of this new scientific viewpoint and in the light of it examined the current ideas of social workers and philanthropists with a view to testing them and presenting squarely the issue of whether the latter accept and utilize as they should these newly established ideas of heredity. He concludes that we may still consider the environment as the main field for the social worker but that we must accept the warning of scientists that heredity is a social fact. Is this a broad enough acceptance of the newer ideas or in the light of present work must we go further and admit that heredity and environment must equally demand the attention of every fair-minded person who is concerned with the greatest development of the individual and of the race?

That some of the broadest minds of the day are differing on these very issues is illustrated by a comparison of two articles in the *Popular Science Monthly* for 1910 or by a comparison of Dr. Davenport's book with the latter of these two articles. In April, 1910, Dr. F. A. Woods of Harvard writes: "Experimentally and statistically there is not a grain of proof that ordinarily environment can alter the salient mental and moral traits in any measurable degree from what they were pre-determined to be through innate influences." And from Dr. Davenport's book we learn that some scientists believe that many physical traits and many mental and moral characteristics are inherited; that there are definite unit characters in the germ cell which determine at birth whether or not an individual shall have possibilities of development along certain lines. In his chapter on the Geographical Distribution of Inheritable Traits, Dr. Davenport emphasizes his belief that the germ plasm is the source of the majority of human traits, be they for good or for ill. His opinion is corroborated by a psychologist writing in the *Eugenics Review* for July, 1912.

On the other hand in the *Popular Science Monthly* for October, 1910, Simon N. Patten writes on the Laws of Environmental Influence and tells us that "physical traits do not correspond to the virtues and vices emphasized by society. Social traits change from environment to environment, from group to group and even from family to family. The motives for adopting a virtue come to the individual through social influences. It is more reasonable to assume that the virtues a man cherishes are due to the society of which he is a part and not to the



germinal determinants that make up his heredity."

Such are the opinions of masters who look at the problem from different sides of the field, the one teaching the biologic lesson, the other the economic interpretation of history. Is it not these two conflicting viewpoints which the eugenist must seek to harmonize and correlate before the best results can be attained? The eugenist admits frankly that he has as yet no definite platform of concerted action with the object of proposing immediate legislation, but he asks attention for his viewpoint nevertheless and begs that it be given a more thorough and careful attention by all who are engaged in social and educational work.

The present need in eugenics is for greater knowledge, for a more careful intensive compilation and study of facts. As the charity organization movement has sought to correlate the social forces at work in our cities, may not state eugenic bureaus be formed gradually in all our states (as already in New York and New Jersey) which shall seek the co-operation not of biologists and social workers alone but of all who come in touch with the bio-sociological forces in the state—physicians, psychologists, educators, legislators and especially parents of all classes in their homes? Such bureaus should certainly consider first the work with defectives

but is there not also a broader constructive work which they can also carry out gradually? Eugenics is already being taught in some of our leading educational institutions and its wider extension in the educational system is strongly advocated by leading educators as by G. Stanley Hall.

Extremists in the eugenic field urge immediate legislative action but many scientific eugenists await further knowledge first. Consideration for racial welfare is of vital importance but if it comes too quickly or at the expense of individuals, it is not likely to be sound. Many concur with the opinion of one of the leading eugenists of England, Dr. C. W. Saleeby, in his belief that in the long run individual and racial welfare cannot be opposed to each other but are identical. Voluntary certificates of health before marriage and voluntary sterilization of those pronounced unfit by specialists are strongly to be urged. Except in the case of undeniable defect, we cannot go further except to ask for a consideration of the eugenic viewpoint in all social work, be it purely relief giving, be it working with children or families, be it even more broadly constructive. And so may we not build deeper and on a scientific basis that charity, spirit of brotherhood, sympathy and love of humanity which alone can give true value to any social work?

## WHERE RACE SUICIDE DOES NOT PREVAIL

ANNETTE FISKE

Much has been said and written these last few years upon "race suicide" and the possibility of remedying the "evil." The chief, if not the only, remedy suggested has been the encouragement of indiscriminate increase in the size of families. Ex-President Roosevelt has been prominent in advocating large families and the parish priest is usually an advocate of the birth of more children. Is such advice needed, however, among those who have small incomes with which to meet the high cost of living? What is the effect of a large number of children upon such families?

Those who know conditions, as district nurses and social workers, agree that the poor have far too many children as a rule. Where six or seven children are living there have often been three or four deaths. Miscarriages are numerous and are considered by the mothers as hardly worth mentioning. For a woman to bear nine or ten children is common; and fourteen or sixteen are far from rare. One Italian woman of twenty-seven, who had had nine children, expressed the general feeling of these mothers when she said she hoped she would have no more. Except for the rare exceptions, the mothers would be satisfied with two or three children.

When a family must live on \$9 a week or even less and there are seven, eight, nine, or even more children to be clothed and fed, what can

the home conditions be? People talk about the crowded quarters in the North End of Boston and of the breaking of the rules of the Board of Health regarding space per individual, but can conditions be otherwise with the present cost of rent and food? What wonder if an unskilled workman, having numerous mouths to feed, and having to pay from \$10 to \$16 a month for three rooms, lives with his entire family in one of them, rents one out for \$3 a month and allows still others to sleep in his kitchen for \$2.50. At best under normal conditions such families by skillful management may keep even in their money affairs, but if sickness comes, they are forced into debt. Weeks and months may pass before they are able to clear themselves, if indeed they ever succeed in doing so.

The mother's health and that of her children merit consideration. Even where the husband earns \$15 or \$20 a week, if the woman bears a child yearly,—and this is frequently the case,—she soon becomes a physical wreck. Under such conditions the children's health suffers from lack of care. Seven children in nine years or six children under six, the youngest two twins, (examples I have in mind), meant a severe drain upon the mother's system. It is essential that more time, say two or three years, should elapse between consecutive births to allow the mother



adequate time for recuperation. She may thus be enabled to nurse another child without detriment to herself, nor will the other children suffer neglect. These mothers know nothing of the hygiene of pregnancy or, if they do, are unable to follow it. They must work up to the last minute, and must begin again as soon as their strength permits, frequently the day after the child's birth. The housework must be done, the children must be fed and some need the nimble fingers of the mother to dress them. The mother must keep at work while power is forthcoming. The care at the time of confinement is most defective, so that it is not strange that ill-health and discouragement are prevalent. One mother, a sensible little woman, with a husband earning \$10 a week, bore three little ones less than a year apart. After the birth of the third baby, she felt miserable physically and mentally. Unable to get any rest, housed up constantly, she became desperate. What wonder that she meditated suicide or at least an abortion if she were to become pregnant again. Possibly she was not as good a manager as some; but mothers must be taken as they are and to increase their burdens beyond their strength in no way makes them more efficient.

Another woman, very capable, with a husband whose irregular work pays well, has had seven children in nine years and is worn and wan. Each birth places her between life and death. Weakened, house-ridden by the demands of her family, hopeless of better conditions in the future, is it strange that she does not care whether she lives or dies?

A third woman, only thirty-eight years old, has had sixteen children. Thirteen, including three sets of twins, came within fourteen years. Seven died. The doctor finally said that her health demanded that she have no more children.

Some of the social effects of such rapid child-bearing were disclosed by a study of 225 families in which the children were either numerous or followed each other at too short intervals, such as three children born in four years. The youngest child in each of these families was taking milk from a milk station in Boston or vicinity or in Fall River. Some were still nursing when the data were gathered. The mothers were, therefore, still within the child-bearing age, the majority being from thirty to thirty-five although the ages varied from eighteen to forty-five. Many of the mothers looked older than they were and few were in really rugged health. With thirty of these families I have had personal acquaintance. Undoubtedly some children have been born and died of whom I have no knowledge, while miscarriages are seldom mentioned unless specifically asked for. As a well-known worker said of a family in which births were recorded for 1892, 1893, 1895, 1897, 1899, 1901, 1906, "there were doubtless some deaths or miscarriages between 1901 and 1906."

The nationalities of the families were largely Italian, Irish and French-Canadian. The weekly income of a majority was from \$6 to \$10 a week. In some cases it fell as low as \$6 or \$7; rarely it rose to \$15 or over.

## CHILD MORTALITY IN LARGE FAMILIES

No. OF CHILDREN IN FAMILY.	No. OF FAMILIES.	AGE OF OLDEST CHILD.	TOTAL No. CHILDREN BORN.	No. DEAD.
3	4	3 years	12	4
4	3	8-5	12	5
5	8	8-5	40	13
6	12	16-8	72	22
7	57	14-8	399	78
8	61	20-8	488	82
9	36	29-11	324	82
10	13	22-13	130	25
11	12	-14	132	46
12	7	24-15	84	31
13	7	24-14	91	27
14	2	21	28	7
15	1	23	15	9
16	1	21	16	12
18	1	23	18	8
Totals... 225			1861	451

It is obvious that only fifteen families (6.6 per cent.) had five children or fewer—while thirty-one (13.7 per cent.) had over ten children. The rapid child-bearing is sufficiently indicated by comparing the number of children born per family with the age of the oldest child. When two figures are used it indicates the difference between the ages of the oldest children in those families.

The total mortality of 451 out of 1,861 equals 23.7 per cent. though the age at death was not accurately ascertainable.

The total number of families with the varying number of children is too small for statistical purposes but there is a suggestion that the larger the number of children, the higher both the absolute and relative mortality. This is in accordance with the general experience of those who have investigated large families. Another reason for presenting the figures without long discussion is the fact that it hardly seems fair to compare the mortality of families with three children under three years and those with seven children under eight to fourteen years, if the mothers are still within the child-bearing age. For a careful study it would be desirable to have the families complete in the sense that further children could not enter to disturb percentage calculation. It is sufficient to note that on the basis of the figures presented the average number of children born was over eight and the average number dying was two. It is probable that most of the deaths occurred under two years in accordance with the general curve of infant mortality.

The effect of rapid child bearing is not apparent from the tabulation, but the appearance of the broken mothers and weakened children pleads for more rational intervals between consecutive births if children are to be numerous. A brief reference to the details of some particular families may be of value in showing the difficulties for family development in the face of many children born at short intervals.

Three children—One young mother of eighteen, who had been married at fifteen, lost her first baby, had one living fifteen months old and another had just come. Mrs. C. had had three children at intervals of about two years but lost them all through improper feeding.

Four children—Mrs. A. had four babies and



three miscarriages in eight years. All of the babies were prematurely born because of the mother's kidney trouble and two of them died.

Five children—In one family the youngest were twins, born when the next older child was less than eleven months old. These twins weighed about three pounds each and lived only a few weeks. In another family the father of five living children made only \$6 or \$7 a week.

Six children—Of Mrs. M.'s six children, the oldest was eight years and the youngest five months. She lost two. Her husband abandoned her suddenly before the last baby came.

Eight children—Mrs. S. had eight sons in ten years and was a physical wreck. Mrs. Sh. and Mrs. G., though like Mrs. S. they had lost no children, were also worn out, while Mrs. T. was enervated. Mrs. V.'s oldest child was nine years old and she had lost her last two babies of marasmus at the age of two or three months. Soon after the death of the last she found herself again pregnant. She is a woman who gets up the day after the baby is born and does all her own work. Needless to say, she looks nearly twenty years older than she is, though in fairly good health. In this case both father and mother told me they thought too frequent births was one reason why the last two children had died. "They," meaning the priests, "keep telling us to have children," the father said to me, "but it seems to me the children cannot have good health when they come so close together and it is hard to raise such a large family."

Nine children—Five were still-born in one family. Mrs. H. lost two though she was more intelligent than the average and had given them good care. Mrs. P. lost six. Both she and her husband are consumptive, and she is a miserable physical wreck. Her youngest child is a few months old. Mrs. S., whose oldest child was sixteen and who was expecting another, was in fair health, but she seldom got out of doors.

Ten children—Mrs. R., whose oldest would have been fourteen if it had lived, had lost two and she expected another baby. Her husband works away from home and sends her only \$8 a week.

Twelve children—In one family where the oldest was twenty-four there were two deaths, while in another, where the oldest was only fifteen, there were seven deaths.

Thirteen children—One woman had thirteen children in fourteen years and a half, of whom three died. The father earned \$6 a week.

Fourteen children—Mrs. V., aged thirty-three, had had fourteen children, the oldest twenty-one and the youngest two-years. Of these three died in early infancy of cholera infantum. All but the youngest were rachitic.

"The children come fast, usually as fast as nature will allow. As the family increases there is more demand for food and clothing, but the family income does not increase to meet the demand upon it. In fact, it is more likely to decrease, as the woman grows weaker with child-bearing and child-raising and is less able to supplement the income by outside work. In many families the man patronizes the saloon every night in the week and spends half his earnings

on drink." Such are the conclusions of a district nurse in the northern country districts near Canada and such are the conclusions of most nurses working in the poor districts of the city.

Poverty and large families go hand in hand in more senses than one. Life becomes cheap, though these parents cling to their children with strong affection, unwished-for as they may have been. Who can wonder that with such small incomes and with only the mother to attend to the house and household, the addition of each child is dreaded? Only more work and care and possibly sickness is in store for the mother. The husband who spends much on drink or gambling is not to be wholly condemned. To come home after a hard day's work to an untidy house full of children, whom the mother has scant time to train, is not calculated to encourage rest and relaxation. A good manager is necessary to care for a lot of children besides keeping three or four rooms neat, and it is not strange that the weary and discouraged mother becomes careless. Fretfulness and nervousness prevail and life is far from cheerful. Drunkenness is a common vice among these fathers, and though one can hardly call one effect and the other cause, the discouragement consequent upon having a large family and a small income leads to drinking, and lack of self-control in one line of conduct tends to lack of self-control in other lines.

Among these families, the work of a friendly visitor and district nurse is needed above all others. The mother's health should receive attention before the child comes. Let her be taught the simple rules of good health and the father persuaded to put her in a position where she can follow them instead of being subject to overwork and disease. She needs to be instructed in the care, especially the feeding, of the baby. The importance of breast feeding must be emphasized. Better training in housekeeping should be given to the daughters. But the situation reaches deeper.

Large families are good where the parents have good health and are able to give the children proper food and education. Parents with tuberculosis or some other serious disease should not bring miserable defective children into the world year after year, nor should parents give birth even to innumerable healthy children for whom they have no means of providing either physically or in the way of education.

I am not criticizing the poor. I know what they have to contend with—continuous days of labor spent in a struggle to make both ends meet and with small share of enjoyment of a healthful kind. But better fewer citizens than an increase of weak ones. The welfare of the family should be above personal gratification. Better the spread of newer ideals for childhood—to make one's children above all things sturdy, able and good citizens, than the preachment of frequent children. Women can teach the mothers the ways of health, can interest the daughters and sometimes the sons in wholesome home pleasures, but to persuade the men to be wise in their fatherhood, this is a work for men. Who will show the way?



# SOCIAL AGENCIES

## WHAT WILL NEW YORK DO ABOUT BROOKLYN?

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

GENERAL SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIETIES FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY

New York has been held these many years as the city of lost opportunities. To the just-budding city awakening to social and civic responsibilities, it has furnished an inexhaustible store of warnings. For him who is trying to guide newer communities aright, the most useful of weapons has been the costliness of New York's hindsight, particularly the slow progress in housing reform with its terrific toll in disease, and the amazing expense of letting in a little sunlight and green in congested neighborhoods where small parks and playgrounds were not thought of until it became necessary to tear down valuable buildings to make room for them.

There is clearly facing the city today a new problem which requires foresight, or again hindsight will be a tremendously costly luxury. This problem concretely stated is: Will the business community of the Borough of Manhattan recognize its equal responsibility toward the proper development of progressive social agencies in all the residential and manufacturing boroughs of the city? More particularly, will it recognize that there is need of taking a greater-city view in this respect regarding the newer parts of the city? So far as the Bronx is concerned, it has in social development been the complement of Manhattan, both being part of the old city. There is as yet little need of wider attention being given to the Borough of Richmond. Queens is another story. It must first have an internal awakening and coalescence and develop a borough spirit.

Brooklyn is fast becoming the city's biggest problem on the social side, and to solve it there is need for the concentrated attention of the business interests of the city. No one will dispute that Manhattan, as the years go by, will become more and more the exclusively business and commercial center of the city, and that Brooklyn will become the greatest residential and manufacturing section.

Some interesting figures regarding schools have recently been made public. The school registration for the present term as given out by City Superintendent Maxwell shows a total of 272,212 for Manhattan and 254,097 for Brooklyn—Brooklyn is second by 18,115. But in 1906 the average daily attendance for Manhattan was 228,857, and for Brooklyn 175,517, a difference of 53,340. In 1911 the average daily attendance for Manhattan was 243,641, and for Brooklyn

216,971, a difference of 26,670. Thus from 1906 to 1911 the increase was 6.45 per cent for Manhattan and 23.61 per cent for Brooklyn.

These school figures give the most emphatic evidence that, so far as the life of the people is concerned, Brooklyn will soon become more important than Manhattan.

Turning to total population, the census shows that from 1900 to 1910, Brooklyn grew from 1,166,582 to 1,634,351, an increase of 467,769; while Manhattan grew from 1,850,093 to 2,331,542, an increase of 481,449. In the last years of the decade Brooklyn was growing much more rapidly than Manhattan, and in the year following the census the increase in Brooklyn was 129,584, as compared with 96,618 in Manhattan, according to the estimates of the Department of Health. The average percentages of increase during the decade were 2.6 for Manhattan and 4 for Brooklyn, but during the last year the increase in Brooklyn was over 7 per cent, and this ratio will be still further increased when the tunnels which have been authorized are bored under the river.

Joseph Cacavajo, an engineer whose estimates are used by the Brooklyn *Eagle*, believes that 1915 will show the high-water mark of Manhattan's population at 2,633,000, with 1,975,000 for Brooklyn. His estimates, and those of another careful estimator, Walter Laidlaw, secretary of the Federation of Churches, for succeeding decades commencing with 1920 are:

	MANHATTAN	BRONX	BROOKLYN
	1920		
Cacavajo .....	2,500,000	950,000	2,500,000
Laidlaw .....	2,410,933	862,323	2,320,364
	1930		
Cacavajo .....	2,500,000	1,600,000	3,500,000
Laidlaw .....	2,132,365	1,438,088	3,074,315
	1940		
Cacavajo .....	2,250,000	2,400,000	5,000,000
Laidlaw .....	1,495,778	2,158,221	2,895,935
	1950		
Cacavajo .....	2,000,000	3,250,000	7,000,000

From 1902 to 1911 inclusive the number of plans for new-law tenements filed with the Tenement House Department were: Manhattan 5,376, Bronx 5,162, Brooklyn 13,813 and Queens 3,643. The total of tenement buildings and apartments registered in the department is:

	NEW LAW	OLD LAW	TOTAL
Manhattan .....	4,674	36,546	41,220
Bronx .....	3,881	4,021	8,802
Brooklyn .....	9,694	37,203	46,897



Nothing is shown here as to relative sizes of tenements, but the figures are offered as showing that Brooklyn today has more tenements to be watched than Manhattan.

These are but a few indications of one important fact—that in the gradual pushing out of population from Manhattan, fan-shaped Brooklyn, with its focus against Manhattan and opening toward Long Island and New England, will become the home of an increasingly larger proportion of the population of the greater city.

What this gradual ascendancy of Brooklyn in city affairs means politically has been already sensed. Manhattan will concentrate more and more of the wealth, but no matter how great that concentration may be, it will be governed by the masses of Brooklyn where the votes will be. It is fashionable now to reduce social consideration to terms of enlightened selfishness. To follow that fashion in this connection, what Brooklyn is and what Brooklyn will be is of the utmost importance to the business interests of Manhattan, because politically Manhattan's ascendancy is on the wane. The attempt of one important political society to stretch its tentacles across Brooklyn Bridge indicates a sagacity which has not been evidenced as yet by Manhattan's business interests in the social field.

I have tried to show that as the financial, trade and commercial center, Manhattan must be interested equally in the social field in all the boroughs and particularly in Brooklyn. Now if it had happened that in the different boroughs there lived fairly equal proportions of all kinds of resourceful men, one might say that there was no need of considering the city-wide social responsibilities of the trade center. Each borough having its fair share of the resourceful, the more resourceful, and the most resourceful, would look after itself. But even if that were so, it would not be a fair view. There is, and has always been, the greatest temptation for the Brooklyn man with a Manhattan office to become more interested in Manhattan's than in Brooklyn's social agencies. They are for the moment larger, they are closer to him during his working hours, Brooklyn is only his sleeping place. Furthermore, there are the many who reside in suburban places; what of them?

Cogent as are these reasons for Manhattan to view its social responsibilities as a center from which to supplement local resources rather than to consider that it has only the responsibility for the old city, there is now added another and overwhelming reason. There has been for many years a trend of the more resourceful away from Brooklyn. Witness, for instance, the remarkable transformation which is taking place in that fine old residence section, Brooklyn Heights, where apartment houses and boarding houses are taking the place of the splendid old homes. Witness the

almost complete transformation of Williamsburgh from a quiet residence section to a new East Side. Witness the tide flowing on until it is now beginning to lap around the Bedford section. There are, of course, many resourceful people left and others have come in to the newer sections, but proportionately to increase of population, social resourcefulness, that is, surplus of means and of leisure available for altruistic work, has decreased.

The surplus wealth is going to Manhattan in much greater proportion than to Brooklyn. Such sidelights as these are not uncommon, for instance, in the social field; in Manhattan the hospitals receive about one-half of their support from private resources, in Brooklyn about one-fifth. It is not claimed that the people of Brooklyn are supporting their social agencies to as just an extent as they should. There is constant need of propaganda. But on the other hand, it is unjust, unfair and impossible for them to carry the whole burden. The center of the city must help.

Brooklyn is the problem of the city.

It is interesting to note in merest outline, the growth of social agencies in Brooklyn and in Manhattan and Bronx taken together. The New York Charities Directory shows the following:

	MANHATTAN AND BRONX	BROOKLYN
General relief societies.....	41	8
Day nurseries and kindergartens....	101	88
Nursing and care of sick in their homes .....	45	9
Asylums, houses and cheap lodgings for children.....	39	25
Children's societies.....	8	7
General hospitals.....	39	22
General dispensaries and out-patient departments .....	45	27
Relief hospitals, homes and societies for cripples.....	37	3
Vocational and special education....	50	16
Social settlements and neighborhood houses .....	58	17

Here again we are offering the relative numbers without reference to importance or worth. Still the comparison is significant. Anyone who knows the social field in Brooklyn will unhesitatingly affirm that private social effort is far less developed than in Manhattan, and that the agencies are continually and increasingly embarrassed by lack of support. Meantime the social problems grow.

How will the commercial core of New York grasp this problem which so vitally concerns it? And how will those wealthy and philanthropic residents of Manhattan who are no longer in business view it? Will they, with foresight, commence to support and interest themselves in the private social agencies of Brooklyn as they do in those of their own borough and of the Bronx, or, with hindsight, will they wait for the deluge? The deluge may be anticipated. Will it be? Have the lessons of the last thirty years been learned or not? Is it not time for a Greater New York social spirit?



## A SECOND ETHICAL CULTURE MEETING HOUSE

MARY E. BALCH

Executive Secretary Society for Ethical Culture of New York

The new meeting house of the Ethical Culture Society recently dedicated in St. Louis is the second of the kind in this country. In England, the West London Ethical Society likewise meets in a building of its own. The American societies in Brooklyn, Chicago and Philadelphia, the German societies, and most of the English societies meet in hired halls.

The New York Society, the parent organization, was founded in 1876. All those since established, both here and abroad, have the same essential purpose. This is to promote a spiritual conception of human progress and to infuse it into the educational system, into politics and into social reform. The aim is to spread the conviction that the kind of inner experience, which is called ethical, is the highest of which man is capable and that in it he touches the divine.

It is contended that the ultimate higher ends, which all material improvement must subserve, should be kept prominently in view throughout efforts at reform. Two reasons for this are given: first, because the end is likely to be forgotten wherever the means are constantly emphasized without explicit reference to the end; and, second, because the material improvements desired—the shorter hours, the larger income, the better housing, and all the rest—are likely to be achieved much more surely if the appeal for them is made in the name of the spiritual quality of the human beings affected, rather than if made in the name of their physical needs.

## JOTTINGS

### MORAL NURTURE OF YOUNG

One of the suggestions at the Second International Congress for Moral Education, which met at The Hague, was that the next congress consider to what extent it may be legally and practicably possible for school authorities to exercise censorship over school neighborhoods. This was but one proposal in line with the general purpose of the meeting, to consider aims and means in the moral nurture of the young. The first congress was held four years ago, impetus having come from the International Union of Ethical Culture Societies, of which Felix Adler is chairman. It was the first time in the history of education that men and women from Europe, Asia, Africa and America had come together to discuss this subject.

In spite of differences in race, religious belief and ethical customs there was general agreement at this second gathering that the task of moral education is enormous and that inadequate steps have so far been taken to meet its challenge. Clergyman and layman testified to a widespread consciousness that church and school, home and state, have somehow failed to live up to their full responsibilities. The reasons for this were differently assigned, according to the convictions of the accuser. The clergy put the blame upon the growing infidelity of the times.

On the other hand Dr. Mouton, a Netherlands physician, conceded that in his country moral principles have grown lax in spite of the fact that only 6 per cent of the population are not recorded as church members. Some of the difficulties sounded familiar to American ears. An educator from Barcelona, speaking of the moral dangers of city streets, referred to the moving picture show in terms that might have applied to New York or Chicago. He recognized the good in this form of amusement but deplored the extent to which it excites taste for scenes of passion and violence and gratifies "nervous inquietude and superficiality."

### BROOKLYN WORK OF PEOPLE'S INSTITUTE

A Brooklyn committee of the People's Institute of New York has been organized to conduct a series of Sunday concerts and lectures in the Commercial and Manual Training High Schools. The committee includes three trustees of the institute and seven additional local members. A secretary and treasurer will be appointed. All funds raised in the borough and by collections at the meetings, which it is hoped will be self-supporting, are to be devoted to extending the Brooklyn work. The project is an outcome of the experiment conducted last year under considerable difficulties at the Commercial High School by Edward W. Ordway. This was so successful that it helped to win over the Board of Education to the broader use of the school plant. Besides a number of noted speakers, the musical program includes a recital by Mr. and Mrs. David Mannes and concerts by the Darmreuther, Olive Mead and Kaltenborn String Quartets, the Brooklyn Choral Society and other musical organizations. Music and open discussion will be a feature at each of the lectures.

### A CROWDED PENITENTIARY

By order of Governor Hadley, sixty convicts under twenty years of age, will be transferred from the Missouri penitentiary to the state reform school. A dormitory there for this purpose has been completed, and the newcomers will thus be separated from the still younger offenders. There are today 2,455 convicts serving time in the Missouri penitentiary. No prison in any civilized country contains so many inmates, it is declared.

### COTTAGE HOMES DEDICATED

The new cottage homes of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Asylum have been dedicated at Pleasantville, N. Y. Seventeen of these, accommodating thirty children each, an administration building and a number of school buildings in which vocational training is given, occupy a beautiful stretch of land in which there is ample provision for playgrounds and recreation. Ludwig M. Bernstein is at the head of this institution.

<sup>1</sup>The four volumes of European papers may be had from Attle Dyserlnuck, 78 Bilderdijkstraat, The Hague; the American volume from the American Committee of the International Moral Education Congress, 2 West 64th Street, New York.



## JOTTINGS

### A EUGENICS FIELD WORKER

Mrs. E. H. Harriman has contributed \$1,000 and George F. Baker \$250 toward the salary and expenses of a eugenics field worker for Orange and Rockland Counties, New York. The work is to be carried on under the joint auspices of the Eugenics Record Office at Cold Spring Harbor and the New York State Charities Aid Association, which maintains county agencies for dependent children in these and eleven other counties in the state. Mrs. Harriman has for some time been interested in the scientific investigation of significant family histories. A large amount of material of this sort is now on file in the offices of the county agents, and it is thought that if this could be supplemented by further investigation, correlated and interpreted, it would undoubtedly become of great value.

The association estimates the expense of carrying on the field work for one year at \$1,800. Florence Givens Smith has been appointed to carry on the work. Miss Smith has had experience both as agent of the Philadelphia Society for the Protection of Children from Cruelty and as the Columbia County agent for the State Charities Aid Association.

### INVESTIGATIONS ON REQUEST

In response to demands which have come during the past two years for competent and trained investigators, the Department of Research of the Massachusetts Women's Educational and Industrial Union has recently established under its supervision a Bureau of Investigation to conduct social or economic inquiries for or in co-operation with individuals or organizations. The work will be under the supervision of the director and assistant director of the department. The investigators composing the staff will be graduates of colleges who have had training in investigating and interpreting results. Where expert knowledge is required, such as a knowledge of medicine, the department will secure the co-operation of experts.

In addition to doing the field work of investigation the bureau is prepared to interpret data previously collected and to prepare reports.

### PROGRESS OF INCOME TAX AMENDMENT

That the income tax amendment will become law before March 4 now seems likely. Thirty-four states have ratified the amendment, which will vest Congress with the right "to lay and collect taxes on incomes from whatever source derived, without apportionment, among the several states, and without regard to any census or enumeration."

Adoption of the amendment by three-fourths of the states is necessary. Thus the assent of only two more states is required.

### BOY SCOUTS AIDING CONSERVATION WORK

Following a conference between Governor Dix of New York and leaders of the Boy Scouts of America, the scouts of New York state are planning to co-operate in the state conservation policy. It is proposed that the state shall furnish scouts with literature designed to interest and inform them in regard to the conservation, good roads and similar movements. The scouts, on their part, will furnish the names and addresses of those scout masters who are willing to respond, with their most experienced boys, to the summons of the fire warden to aid in putting out forest fires. Boy scouts will also be liable to be called upon to aid in tree planting and other works included in the reforestation plans of the state. It is believed that the educational side of this plan will show that the boys can be made useful in many other ways to the conservation movement.

### A SOCIAL MUSEUM IN THE WEST

The Commonwealth Club of California, through R. S. Gray, chairman of its library committee, has inaugurated a movement looking to the organization and establishment at the Panama-Pacific International Exposition of 1915, and perhaps its ultimate retention in San Francisco as a permanent exhibit, of a so-called Social Museum, an exhibition in comprehensive form of the things that have been and are being done toward the betterment of living conditions and the advancement and perfection of the human race.

### COURSES IN SOCIALIST THEORY

Among the courses offered for the season 1912-13 by the Rand School of Social Science, 140 East 19th Street, New York, are American History and Government by Max Schonberg; Economics by Algernon Lee and John Spargo; Socialist Theory and Policy by the same lecturers, and Social Problems and Reform Movements by Meta L. Stern, John Spargo and others.

### DATE OF NATIONAL CONFERENCE

The fortieth meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction to be held in Seattle, Wash., will convene Saturday, July 5, 1913. A bulletin of the conference announcing this fact contains a list of all the state conferences of charities and correction and kindred organizations in the country.

### DIPLOMA FOR INFANT MORTALITY EXHIBIT

Because a line of type was misplaced in THE SURVEY for November 2 it was not made clear that one of the sixteen organizations to receive diplomas of superior merit for exhibits at the recent Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography was the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality.



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# THE SURVEY

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*Drawn for The Survey by J. B.  
Whiting, South Bend Tribune.*

**DRIVE THE BIG BULLY FROM THE STREET**

**The Shop Early Campaign Is On**

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



# A Thousand Times in a Thousand

## OUR CUSTOMERS LAND SHOWS INCREASES

### Did You Ever Hear of a Better Record For an Investment Company?

**A**T the bottom of this page we give you absolutely convincing testimony of the great advances made in our Brooklyn lots since they were sold to the public all over the United States, in fact, all over the world. These examples are only the smallest fraction of the number we could give you, and these are only as a drop in the bucket to the number that will be shown five years hence when the enormous subway system of the City of New York is completed.

Remember, please, that the City of New York is building a system of transportation at a cost equal to that of the Panama Canal, and which, when constructed and built in accordance with full plans will be in easy access of every lot in the Greater City of New York owned and controlled by Wood, Harmon & Company. The City expects to make all its vacant land worth millions more than it is to-day, in order to furnish money to build more subways.

We guarantee to give you a lot for \$890 within five minutes' walk of one of the subway lines laid out by the City, and approved by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment and validated by the Mayor. No such proposition will ever again be offered to the public, and the supply of \$890 lots is strictly limited. Will you not write for particulars? To-day.

## New York City Lots \$890 \$10 DOWN \$7 Monthly

**You do not want to know what one person out of a hundred has done, but  
You do want to know what one hundred people out of a hundred can do.**

The following one hundred illustrations of the prices at which we sold lots and the value at which they are now assessed for tax purposes are not selected cases, but are the first one hundred accounts taken from the first three properties we opened in Brooklyn.

The valuations of a city Tax Department are generally accepted as conservative. We consider this evidence the best we can give. If there is any better, we do not know what it is. We give the ledger pages so that any one who wishes can verify this statement either now or five years hence.

Ledger Page	Customer	Purchase Price	City's present assessed value	Per cent. increase	Ledger Page	Customer	Purchase Price	City's present assessed value	Per cent. increase	Ledger Page	Customer	Purchase Price	City's present assessed value	Per cent. increase
	Oak Crest					King's Oaks					The Lindens			
100	Mrs. Margaret A.....	\$540	\$2,000	270	100	Mr. Frank E. J.....	\$890	\$2,300	150	108	Mr. Clarence L.....	\$890	\$800	175
101	Mrs. Kate C.....	980	8,700	481	101	Miss C. Florence T....	1,008	2,300	118	102	Mrs. Elsie M. L.....	660	1,600	175
102	Mr. Frederick Wm. S....	530	2,400	361	102	Mr. A. W. F.....	1,780	2,300	57	104	Mr. Edward C.....	310	800	158
103	Mrs. Sarah J. R.....	880	5,000	468	103	Mr. George H.....	1,220	2,300	66	105	Mr. Eugene W. S.....	660	3,500	430
104	Mrs. Dehila D.....	340	1,500	341	104	Patrick L. S. & Thom				106	Mr. P. J. K.....	660	1,600	142
105	Mr. Thomas F. C.....	440	2,500	468		as M.....	1,580	2,000	64	107	Mr. James R.....	660	1,600	175
106	Mr. Ira F. B.....	340	1,500	341	105	Mr. Edward D.....	840	2,400	185	108	Mr. Alvis O.....	380	1,300	215
107	Mr. William J.....	880	3,000	240	106	Mr. Henry K.....	880	2,300	159	109	Mr. Julius R.....	230	800	175
108	Mr. A. H. & R. J. P....	580	6,500	563	107	Mr. Frank E. J.....	880	2,300	159	110	Mrs. Mary C.....	310	800	158
109	Mr. Samuel A.....	440	1,500	240	108	Mr. Joseph D.....	1,240	2,600	109	111	Mrs. Carrie L. E.....	230	800	175
110	Mr. Edward J. B.....	450	1,750	288	109	Mr. Anthony E. S.....	1,150	1,400	119	112	Mr. John T.....	190	650	189
111	Mr. Warren A. L.....	890	2,800	215	110	Mr. Peter F. P.....	1,340	2,000	120	113	Mr. David B.....	730	2,000	177
112	Mr. James H. B.....	680	3,000	341	112	Mr. Horace G. K.....	940	2,400	185	114	Mr. James B. G.....	880	1,600	175
113	Mr. John H. K.....	680	2,800	311	113	George R. Jr.....	988	2,300	127	115	Mr. Gustave A.....	750	1,300	57
114	Mr. Gaspare P.....	350	900	172	114	Miss Eva C.....	1,340	2,900	116	116	Mr. Melvin A. C.....	465	1,200	158
115	Mr. M. P. D.....	100	600	215	115	Mr. Peter McK.....	1,340	2,000	122	117	Mrs. Ida Emily C.....	465	1,200	158
116	Mr. Gaspare P.....	330	900	172	117	Miss Mabel P.....	1,330	2,400	79	118	Mr. Edmund J. L.....	310	800	158
117	Mr. John G. V.....	270	1,000	270	118	Mr. Alexander C.....	880	2,300	159	119	Mr. Charles Taylor M.	620	1,600	158
118	Mrs. Kate G.....	330	900	172	121	Mr. Charles G.....	1,240	2,950	120	120	Mr. Charles M.....	780	2,400	196
119	Mr. Nathaniel R. W....	880	3,000	240	122	Mr. James M. C.....	780	2,300	188	121	Mr. Alfred B.....	170	550	223
120	Mr. William G.....	330	900	172	124	Mr. Louis E.....	880	2,300	159	122	Mrs. Maggie D.....	310	800	158

\*Customers' Accounts in our ledgers always begin on page 100.

We cannot get all of the first hundred names on this small page, but on request we will send you the record of our first one thousand customers showing, without exception, how the property of each and every one has increased, the average being 178 per cent.

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Beginning with his boyhood, when, as he says, going to church was to him, while not a hardship, "certainly not an enjoyment," he tells, in a delightfully intimate and personal way, the two ministers who most influenced him; what led him to turn from the law to the pulpit; his varied experience as a minister; the churches in which he has preached; the folks he has found in church.

Out of this wonderfully ripe experience he tells what his half-century in the pulpit has taught him about some problems of the church and the people; wherein the church fails to reach the people and wherein the people fail to understand the church; what a church has a right to expect of its minister; what makes a great minister; what is the place of the minister's wife and what he believes will be the church of the future.

In the first article Doctor Abbott answers, as it has never before been answered, the question, "Why Should I Go To Church?" This will begin the series

## IN THE JANUARY LADIES' HOME JOURNAL

The Curtis Publishing Company, Independence Square, Philadelphia



## THE PITH OF IT

**L**AST winter the New York legislature enacted a law limiting to fifty-four hours a week the employment of all women in manufacture. This law is similar to existing statutes in Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri and Ohio. California and Washington in 1911 enacted eight-hour laws for women in factories and many other occupations. As soon as the New York law went into effect on October 1, candy manufacturers decided to test its constitutionality. A test case was brought in Brooklyn, where William Hoelderlin had himself arrested on October 7 for violating the law. He was released on a writ of habeas corpus. The case was adjourned by Magistrate McGuire, and it probably will be argued next week before Judge Abel E. Blackmar of the Supreme Court, Second District.

**B**OARDS to fix wages arbitrarily, just as the Interstate Commerce Commission fixes rates, is one of the proposals of the Board of Arbitrators in the wage controversy between the locomotive engineers and the railroads east of Chicago. In their report made public November 24, a wage increase is granted which is estimated at \$3,000,000 in the aggregate instead of \$7,000,000 which would have been the annual increase if the engineers' demands had been granted.

**A**LMOST unnoticed in the out-of-town press, a dramatic battle against the segregation of commercialized vice had recent setting in Chicago. At public hearings held by the City Council the forces of representative citizenship were practically unanimous, declares Graham Taylor, in opposing segregation and in rallying to the summons of the Vice Commission: "Constant and persistent repression of prostitution the immediate method; absolute annihilation the ultimate ideal." P. 254.

**I**N spite of the suggestion that only appropriation bills will be considered during the congressional session which opens December 2, there are hints of an intention to amend the Federal Workmen's Compensation Act. The main criticisms are that it does not include all government employes and that the compensation is not liberal enough. P. 251.

**L**AST week the first loan shark to be jailed in New York County was sentenced to sixty days and fined \$250. A fortnight before a court had ruled that borrowers could recover twice the amount of all usurious interest actually paid over. With such blows as these delivered in what has long been regarded as the very citadel of extortion, there is good reason to believe, thinks Arthur H. Ham, that hard times await the very leeches who live by the adversities of others. Pp. 251 and 256.

**B**AKERY products, sanitation of tenements, vaults, the city's milk supply, and the heating and ventilation of street cars are the subjects of five bills which are being urged by the St. Louis Council of Civic Organizations. P. 252.

## THE SURVEY

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### EDITORIAL GRIST

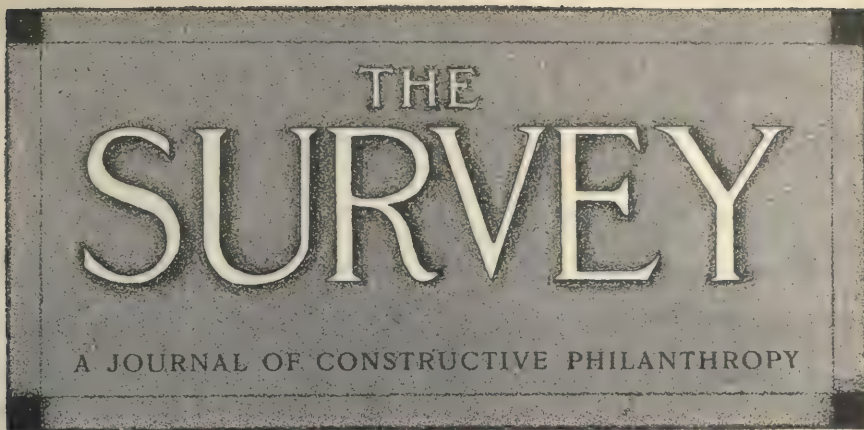
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**I**T was declared at a recent gathering in Pennsylvania that the last legislative session had granted sixteen millions in subsidies to charitable and correctional institutions. Nearly half went to bodies under private management and six millions went to organizations doing only local work. This was one bit of evidence which brought proposals for radical changes in the system of state aid and in the powers of the Board of Charities. P. 252.

**M**EN who have worked for the company twenty years and women who have worked fifteen may retire at sixty on the pensions to be inaugurated January 1 by the American Telegraph and Telephone Company, the Western Union, and the Western Electric. No pension will be less than \$20 a month. P. 253.

**B**ACK of and connected with nearly every one who enters a reform school or a hospital for insane is a family. Yet our institutions, says Alexander Johnson, have been regarding the inmates as individuals, when in reality they are but parts of the larger units constituting society. We must have a clearer conception of what we are dealing with. P. 257.





VOLUME XXIX, No. 9

NOVEMBER 30, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### CONGRESS AND COMPENSATION

In spite of the semi-official announcement of leaders of both houses of Congress that there will be practically no legislation or attempt at legislation this winter other than the consideration of appropriation bills, there are indications that a determined attempt will be made to amend the federal Workmen's Compensation Act before March 4. This act became effective August 1, 1908. It applies only to artisans or laborers employed in certain specified branches of the public service, or in certain hazardous occupations under the government. By its terms any workman covered by the act who is injured in the course of his employment is entitled to receive for one year thereafter, unless able to resume work sooner, the same pay as if he continued to be employed except where the injury is due to his own negligence or misconduct.

The main criticisms directed against the present act are that it does not include all government employes, and that the amount of the compensation is not liberal enough. The solicitor of the Department of Commerce and Labor, who has been making a special study of the matter, urges the necessity of extending the law, and cites in this connection the fact that over 17,000 accidents were reported under the act during the first three years of its operation, whereas only about 8,000 claims were filed, due to the limited scope of the law. The secretary of commerce and labor is on record as favoring the enlargement of the scope.

It is thought likely, therefore, that the Com-

mittees on the Judiciary of the House and Senate will be asked to consider this legislation early in December.

### NEW WEAPONS IN THE WAR ON LOAN SHARKS

On November 8 the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of New York handed down the decision which Mr. Ham in his editorial on page 256 declares ruled "that usurious loans are void as to both principal and interest and if usury has actually been paid the borrower may recover twice the excess paid in all transactions within a period of two years." This is the latest prop to be removed from the loan shark's structure of chicanery and extortion.

The case grew out of a loan made to one Alexander Dunscomb by a lending concern which called itself the Royal Company, and whose directors were Mark and Philip Sugarman and Frank C. Stratt.

Dunscomb had borrowed \$47.50 and had paid the company \$2.50 a month for twenty payments. He used to go to the office each month, give them his salary of \$50, and receive back \$47.50 of it—making him a new loan, they called it. Finally Dunscomb refused to pay more and the Royal Company sued. Dunscomb brought a counter-suit to recover double the amount of usury he had paid. The Municipal Court allowed him double the amount of the last payment he had made. His counsel appealed on the ground that this was inadequate relief and the result was the reversal by the appellate division, granting recovery of double the sum of all payments.



The establishment last July of a usury bureau in connection with the district attorney's office, as mentioned also by Mr. Ham, is another weapon that has proved effective in the war on usurious lending. This bureau can bring criminal prosecution only. In a recent report to District Attorney Whitman, Franklin Brooks, who has been in charge of the bureau, urges the establishment of a civil legal aid office to work in conjunction with the usury bureau. Such an office, says Mr. Brooks, could defend all victims civilly with the result that the money lender might be made to lose the amount of his loan by proof that it is tainted with usury and therefore void.

#### FIVE BILLS FOR PUBLIC HEALTH

A campaign to create public sentiment in favor of five bills for the protection of public health is being carried on in St. Louis by the Council of Civic Organizations. This body, comprising eighteen of the leading organizations which are working for civic improvement, has a membership of 8,000. It proposes to discuss these bills before all the social and business associations of St. Louis. The measures, which have already been introduced into the municipal assembly with the approval of the board of health, are as follows:

For the wrapping of bakery products in clean paper.

For the sanitary care of tenements and for running water on each floor of such buildings.

For the abolition of the 20,000 vaults in St. Louis within five years.

For regulating the city's milk supply to insure absolutely clean and pure milk.

For the proper heating and ventilation of street-cars.

As the result of an investigation of the cost of wrapping bread in sanitary paper, it is declared that when the bread is handled in small quantities, this cost would be less than one-eighth of a cent a loaf. When handled in large quantities, the cost is much less. The bill provides that all vehicles in which bakery products are transported must be clean and sanitary.

The tenement house bill has been introduced by the Real Estate Exchange, which represents the owners of property that would be affected by the bill. The measure provides that there must be one sink to furnish running water on every floor of a tenement house; that all parts of the house shall be kept in good repair and that tenants must keep them clean; that a caretaker must be employed for each house of eight families or more; that common hallways shall be properly lighted; that cellars shall not be used for living purposes and that buildings shall be properly ventilated.

The vault bill is considered by the council to be one of the most important in the group. Its framing at this time calls to mind the notoriety given to St. Louis vault conditions two years ago when a group of housing and civic experts attending the National Conference of Charities and Correction toured the city with newspaper reporters and elevated the facts about privies to the front pages of next morning's dailies. Investigation shows that there are 20,000 vaults in St. Louis, each one a source of disease-breeding germs. They are known to be one of the principal propagating sources of flies and many cities have already abolished them.

The cost of eliminating the vaults will be approximately \$75 each, or \$1,500,000 for the entire lot. The bill provides for the displacement of 4,000 vaults each year, so that there will be no financial hardships upon owners.

The milk-supply ordinance is intended to give the city greater control over the milk supply, and to provide more adequate means of inspection. The civic organizations declare that the milk furnished St. Louis is notoriously bad, reaching this conclusion from reports of the Board of Health and the state pure food commissioner. To provide for the adequate inspection of dairies, the ordinance creates the office of chief milk inspector with thirteen deputies.

The demand for proper heating and ventilation of street-cars is based upon the fact that these are the most congested spaces in which people congregate. Foul air spreads disease. The bill provides that the air in the cars must be changed six times an hour by an efficient system of ventilation and that the air coming through the inlets must be of a temperature of at least 60 degrees. It requires a temperature of not less than 55 degrees in cars at all times.

#### STATE SUBSIDIES IN PENNSYLVANIA

Constructive recommendations for the abolition of state aid to charitable and correctional institutions, purely local in character and under private management, were made at the Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Correction which met recently in Wilkes-Barre. Papers and discussion alike deprecated the extent to which state subsidy had been abused in Pennsylvania and urged the need for reform.

This was the most pronounced symptom of a general feeling that the present State Board of Charities can not hope to be effective as long as its powers are merely advisory. The demand was for more state supervision over charitable and correctional institutions having a state-wide function, particularly over children's agencies.

A report on the question of state aid showed that at the last session of the legislature more than \$16,000,000 had been appropriated in sub-



sidies to charitable and correctional institutions. Nearly half of this amount was distributed among 273 agencies under private management, 263 of which were local in sphere and received more than \$6,000,000. These appropriations were not made on a per capita basis. One hospital under private management was shown to have obtained a larger subsidy than the Eastern Penitentiary, one of the two state prisons, which has on an average 1,400 convicts. Another speaker declared that the annual report of a certain institution receiving state aid showed a surplus over its current expenses of \$43,000.

Fault was found also with the method of passing an appropriation bill in excess of the money available and then allowing the governor to reduce the individual subsidies as it seemed to him necessary. It was thought unfortunate that neither the governor nor the legislature should pay any attention to the recommendations of the State Board of Charities in regard to appropriations.

To remedy this situation the suggestion was made that all correctional and charitable institutions be divided into three classes: those operated by the state; those privately managed but having a state-wide sphere, as for example children's aid societies; and those under private management and local in character—hospitals, children's homes and the like. The recommendations were that none of these agencies should receive subsidies except at the suggestion of the State Board of Charities. State managed institutions should receive first consideration. Their executives should submit budgets to the board, which ought then to prepare a special appropriation bill.

To the second class of agencies it was recommended that subsidies be granted only for maintenance and only upon the condition that the state be adequately represented on the boards of management. A sliding scale of decreasing payments was advocated for local institutions. This scale should be so arranged as to end state subsidy of this nature by 1920. Such subsidy could be gradually replaced where necessary by municipal or county support.

In this connection belongs the recommendation by the conference section on the care of normal dependent children that the state issue yearly licenses to children's aid societies and other placing-out agencies. There was also a call for an investigation of the whole field of children's work and children's institutions in Pennsylvania by a commission employing a traveling executive. The hope was that such a commission would eventually develop into a state board of children's guardians such as the one in New Jersey.

To help in the carrying out of these various recommendations a number of delegates to the conference urged at a special meeting the inauguration of a state charities aid association.

A committee was appointed to inquire into the feasibility of establishing such an organization and, if conditions should prove favorable, to put one into the field as soon as possible.

Among various laws proposed was one calling for the establishment of county hospitals for tuberculosis. This reads that upon petition of a number of the voters of a given county the proposal for the building of a tuberculosis hospital can be placed upon the ballot and voted upon at a special or regular election.

#### PART TIME SHACKLES FOR PRISONERS' LEGS

One of the plague spots of Birmingham, Ala., has been removed. A new city jail has been erected, where now in clean, sanitary quarters are housed the prisoners who formerly lived in the midst of vermin and disease germs. The movement to get a new jail was started five years ago but died from public apathy. Citizens of Birmingham regard the revival and successful completion of the undertaking as due in large part to the effectiveness of their new commission form of government, aided by the aggressive enthusiasm of the state prison inspector, W. H. Oates.

One of the reforms instituted at the new jail is the unshackling of the prisoners' legs at night—the manacles still being kept on during daytime.

#### A PENSION PLAN FOR 175,000 EMPLOYEES

The \$10,000,000 fund that has been set aside for the 175,000 employees of the American Telegraph and Telephone Company, the Western Union, the Western Electric and associated companies, will provide one of the most liberal of the voluntary compensation and pension plans now in existence. Male employees twenty years in the service may retire at sixty years of age or they may be retired at fifty-five, after twenty-five years of service, at the option of the company. The pension age of female employees is five years less than that of male. The amount of the pension will depend upon the previous pay received, but in no case will it be less than \$20 a month.

Accident benefits for either temporary or total disability will be full pay for thirteen weeks and then half pay for the remainder of total disability, or until the employe is able to earn his livelihood, up to the limit of six years. Sick benefits, graded according to length of service, are provided. In case of death from accident three years' wages up to \$5,000 will be paid. In case of death from sickness the benefit will be either one year's or a half year's wages according to length of service, up to \$2,000. Where the benefits provided in state laws are more liberal, those benefits will be paid and in case of accident, if the legal liability is in excess of that offered under the plan, the employe may at his option elect to receive legal damages.



## COLLEGE STUDENTS AND SOCIAL SERVICE

Students of the Massachusetts Agricultural College at Amherst have resumed for the winter their social service in the nearby communities in the Connecticut valley and the hills beyond. That the college has put so much energetic wisdom into extension work the result of which is not immediately commercial is in the minds of many people typical of the institution. It is declared to have successfully injected a religious and social spirit into agronomy and animal husbandry.

The method is simple. Regular students, endowed with an aggressive but tactful spirit of neighborliness go to small towns, there they coach athletic teams and teach clean living and true sportsmanship to boys. Foreigners are taught English and, later, civil government. They hold religious services of a virile and unaffected sort, organize debating societies, give musical entertainments, and supervise agricultural contests.

One of the strongest elements in this activity is the team work developed by the members of the groups of four or five students in their three-day campaigns in the small towns. The usual plan is for the group to visit the schools on Friday afternoon, lead a meeting that evening, hold a town athletic meet on the village common next day, and give a concert and entertainment Saturday evening. On Sunday morning the students speak in the churches of the town, and conduct a mass meeting for men and boys in the afternoon.

Such work as this calls for men of versatile talents and ability. While the work is good for the communities into which these teams go, the greater benefit, possibly, is that rendered to the members of the teams themselves. They freely give their time and effort, and they receive a laboratory training in the religion of service which means as much to them as the technical education they receive at Amherst.

One of the greatest benefits of this activity has been its aid in bringing to a head the belief that every community should have a definite policy, if not a program, involving co-operation in such fields as education, religion, recreation, sanitation, communication, transportation and town beautification. So insistent has been the demand upon the extension service of Amherst college for help in outlining such a policy that E. L. Morgan, of the University of Wisconsin, has been made community field agent to meet this need. Mr. Morgan will assist communities in the investigation of social, economic, and educational conditions and in the organization of forces to improve them.

Corresponding urban work is being resumed by other colleges. Its surprising growth in the

last few years is shown by the fact that in Massachusetts and Rhode Island alone over a thousand students have in each of the past two years voluntarily rendered effective community service of one type or another.

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### ROUTING THE SEGREGATIONISTS IN CHICAGO

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The country-wide battle against segregation of commercialized vice, at the discretion of the police, has had no more conspicuous setting nor more significant array of contestants than at the public hearings recently held by the special committee of the Chicago City Council. It will be remembered<sup>1</sup> that this committee was appointed by resolution to investigate vice conditions and to recommend "elimination, segregation or otherwise," just as if the Vice Commission, appointed under the previous administration, had not rendered an exhaustive report and a series of recommendations which cost \$20,000 and a year's work of thirty of Chicago's busiest, best-known, most capable and most representative citizens. However suspicious this circumstance may have been, the committee of nine aldermen gave no indication that they were previously committed to any policy which they might be expected to recommend. For publicly and by personal invitation they invited persons holding any and all points of view to present their opinions at the hearings. And as they did so, the committee gave the fairest, freest and most patient hearing to all sides.

The large council chamber in the new City Hall was thronged by remarkably representative groups. Not only were the specialized agencies and the "special interests," directly involved in the vice war, represented by their executive officers, attorneys and influential backers, but there were present some of the most distinguished men and women, representing by their speech or silent presence the Roman Catholic, Jewish and Protestant churches, the philanthropic and civic societies, universities and professional schools, medical and legal professions, business, social and labor circles. Some unnamed, but not unknown, special interests had representatives conspicuously present and prominently placed on the program of each session. Unlike those who opposed segregation, these "dark horse" advocates of the *status quo* absolutely refused to name those whom they claimed to represent, except by the title of organizations hitherto unknown, or by designating certain lines

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, October 26, 1912. Fighting Vice in Chicago.



of goods which some of them sold in the red-light district.

The battle royal was on in deadly earnest from the opening of the first session to the dramatic close of the last one, but from start to finish it was overwhelmingly one-sided. One of the sessions was in charge of Clifford G. Roe, attorney for the American Vigilance Association. Another was managed by Jane Addams for the Woman's City Club and was notable both for those who participated and for the profound effect they produced. Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, representing the Juvenile Protective Association, charged that the city became a procurer by maintaining a segregated district in contravention of the state law. Maud Miner, from her experience in the probation work of the New York courts, plead effectively for better treatment of the women victims and for public agencies better adapted to assure it. Virginia Brooks described the transformation in West Hammond from the demoralization attending many years of the segregation policy to the new idea of the city itself, which came with the success of her two years' struggle to overthrow the political and police administration which was in collusion with vice.

From a loose-leaf ledger of a minor disorderly resort, the attorney for the Committee of Fifteen, which is a group of strong business and professional men organized to prosecute panders, proved that the proportion of the receipts paid for protection averaged \$210.51 a week. He estimated on this basis that all the resorts of this district which contained 1,200 women, would aggregate \$2,000,000 a year paid for protection, and yet that each inmate was kept in debt to the keeper in twenty-eight out of thirty individual instances. Father P. J. O'Callaghan, speaking for the church of the Paulist Fathers, demanded segregation for men if required for women, and protested against applying the title "His Honor" to the mayor if by a policy of segregation the chief executive of the city was also constituted its "chief panderer." Rabbi Hirsch with great force argued that if the Russian police could not withstand the temptations to graft in segregating Jews, innocent of any offense other than that of their race and religion, the American people could not escape demoralization under the far worse temptation to sell their discretionary power over the illicit trade in vice. "Not as a fanatic but as a citizen," he cried, "away with this segregation of vice slavery which is not reproduced in the mines of Siberia." Jenkin Lloyd Jones charged that the lust of the dollar or the vote was the only argument for restoring the disorderly resorts to the red-light district, which the state's attorney had suppressed.

The arguments for segregation were extremely weak. Even those that were put forward

by physicians were such as might have been urged with more plausibility twenty-five or fifty years ago, before the diseases of vice and the dangers of infection were known as they now are. A police captain's son read approvals of the policy of segregation from police chiefs in fifteen cities, despite the previous demonstration of the fact that the police have special financial interests, which are regarded almost as vested rights, in the policy of segregation. A liquor dealer had the temerity to assert that there was a larger trade in soft drinks, like ginger ale and soda-water, than in hard liquor and in beer among the disorderly resorts. In rejoinder, a resort keeper's ledger was cited to prove that there was an annual sale of 7,269,000 bottles of beer in the resorts of this one district, at three or four times the price charged for it elsewhere.

But the climax of this game of bluff came at the very close of the hearing. A man hitherto unknown had made a "grand stand play" as the representative of what he was pleased to call "the Chicago Protective League for Women." When challenged to produce the names of its members, or to name its financial backers, as all the other representatives had done, he absolutely refused to do so. Meanwhile, he claimed to have made, with the assistance of the police, which demonstrated the need of segregation, an investigation of conditions in the segregated district. It was based upon the life stories of 1,160 women who he said had been made to believe that they had to register at the office of his "league." He admitted that the inmates of all but four of the houses had yielded to this "bluff"—his own and that of the police. His lawyer had noisily challenged any one to show that his client ever had any connection with the interests invested in the segregated district. At last his own bluff was called.

The chairman of the Committee of Fifteen was recognized as the last speaker at the final hearing. He asked for the privilege of producing documentary evidence to invalidate the claims of the former speaker. Then a note for \$100 was produced, signed by this "protector" of women, made payable to the order of one of the most notorious vice kings then on trial before the Municipal Court and since convicted. When the note was read and its signature was declared to be genuine by a handwriting expert, confederates of the entrapped man scurried together. One of them shouted "forgery." The chairman offered opportunity for explanation. The gentleman aggrieved feebly responded that it would be made "at the proper time and place." The gavel fell. The public hearings ended. The committee went into executive session.

Pending the report and recommendations of the committee there has been a surprising rally of public sympathy against restoring the sup-



pressed disorderly resorts in the former segregated district. All the great dailies have already pronounced against it. The *Daily News* strongly cautions the committee against ignoring the illegality of a return to the former policy, and asks

"What agencies want the lawless dives restored to the city and turned over once more to the supervision of the police? Does public opinion desire it? No. The closing of the segregated district thus far has created no serious problem for this community. On the other hand, it has locked the terrible doors through which unprotected girls, by thousands every year, are lured to slavery and early death."

The *Tribune* urges "Let us go forward, not back, and let us be sure which way we are going." It declares that "the reopening of this district, or any similar district, should not be considered by the authorities for a moment at this time," and adds "now that we are tardily facing this dark question, the conscience and the intelligence of the community demand that it be dealt with not superficially and cynically, but courageously, scientifically and with effect." For the data and conclusions upon which the best policy for Chicago can be worked out, the *Tribune* refers the council committee to the reports of the Vice Commission and of the Committee of Fifteen of New York.

The *Record-Herald* "without much hesitation, associates itself with those enlightened and humane men and women who oppose segregation and advocate rational, gradual repression of the social evil." After roundly asserting the failure, illegality and demoralization of segregation, it urges a report against it and the enforcement of the policies recommended by the Vice Commission, together with additional constructive work in the line of education, prevention and reclamation. "A report against segregation," it declares, "would be a call to service and helpful activity. A report for segregation would be a victory for ignorance, inefficiency and reaction."

The most far-reaching result of these public hearings thus far achieved is the permanently organized federation of all the agencies directly or more indirectly involved. Thirty-three of them, including the educational, rescue, prosecuting, legal, medical and religious groups, have already allied themselves to make common cause, under one plan of campaign, directed by a steering committee, and led by A. W. Harris, president of Northwestern University, and by Walter T. Sumner, chairman of the Vice Commission, as chairman and vice-chairman of the new federation. Notice is thus served of a declaration of war without discharge, which will certainly cause the politicians and the police, the mayor and the city administration, the state's attorney and the judges to reckon

with an organized public opinion such as they have never met before either in the performance or the evasion of their duties. But even better than that, the whole situation promises the assurance of an enlightened, constructive, progressive public policy for carrying on and out the clarion summons of the Vice Commission: "Constant and persistent repression of prostitution the immediate method; absolute annihilation the ultimate ideal"; with the appointment of a morals commission and the establishment of a morals court as the means to those ends.

Meanwhile the report of the City Council committee and its recommendations will be received with interest, and the more so because one of its members seriously asserts, what all his colleagues are now certainly aware of: "The darned thing is loaded at both ends."

## HARD TIMES FOR THE LOAN SHARKS

ARTHUR H. HAM

The loan sharks in New York are facing a distressing situation. Advised by eminent counsel that their schemes for evading the statutes were proof against attack; firmly entrenched with long leases in reputable office buildings; their alluring and misleading advertisements gladly accepted by powerful newspapers; using the courts and the attitude of short-sighted employers as effective instruments in enforcing their outrageous demands, they have for years reaped an abundant harvest of dollars wrung from unfortunate victims. In no city has so much effort been made to check their extortionate practices as in New York, and it is apparent that the effort is now bringing results, for the situation is undergoing a marked change.

The courts recently have ruled that the laws of the state render any person who exacts more than the legal rate of interest on salary or chattel loans liable to fine and imprisonment; that such laws are constitutional; that a greater charge than the legal rate of interest may not be covered by exacting attorney's fees, commissions or by any other device or pretext; that a judgment obtained by confession on a usurious loan may be reopened and reversed with costs imposed on the lender; that usurious loans are void as to both principal and interest and if usury has actually been paid the borrower may recover twice the excess paid in all transactions within a period of two years.

To make matters worse many employers have discontinued their practices of discharging men who have borrowed and are refusing to recognize illegal assignments of wages. Owners of office buildings are evicting their loan shark tenants, and with the exception of the *World*



the daily papers are refusing to print their advertisements.

The district attorney has established a usury bureau under the charge of Franklin Brooks who, as the result of complaints received, has raided many offices and carried off to court proprietors, safes, books and papers in common patrol wagons—it used to be the custom for the loan shark to ride to court in his limousine accompanied by his secretary and counsel. Sixteen of the elect have been held by the magistrates for trial by the Court of Special Sessions during this month, and although they are represented by able attorneys some of whom are influential members of the legislature and high in party councils, it is thought that they can not be saved from real punishment for their insatiable greed and lawless practices.

Strangest of all to relate, the despairing, cringing borrowers have been reading the newspapers and have sought advice from those who have been studying the problem. Men who signed notes, assignments, confessions of judgment, powers of attorney and chattel mortgages in blank without daring to inquire their nature, who have paid interest at 300 and 500 per cent per annum only to find the original debt had increased, who have borrowed from one loan shark to pay another and have been overwhelmingly grateful for a few days' extension on their monotonous payments now have the temerity to notify their task masters that they will pay no more, daring them to proceed against them.

This anomalous state of affairs has caused consternation in the loan shark camp. Many offices have been closed, some are refusing to make loans even to old customers while the majority are quite willing to discount their outstanding claims when offered principal and legal interest. Those who thrive on the adversities of others are themselves getting a touch of hard times.

It is hoped that the district attorney will not be satisfied with a good beginning but will continue his efforts until his part in the campaign has been fully done.

It has been observed frequently that there exists a well-defined demand for small loans to deserving people. It must be said therefore that no amount of publicity or enforcement will bring results of permanent value unless deserving borrowers are afforded adequate facilities for obtaining loans at reasonable rates. In the pawn-broking and chattel loan fields excellent work is being done in New York by the Provident Loan Society, St. Bartholomew's Loan Association and the Chattel Loan Society. The work of these societies must be supplemented by a further investment of honest capital on a reasonable money-making basis and by the organization of

co-operative credit associations among employees.

## THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE FAMILY<sup>1</sup>

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

It is coming to be universally understood that the great work of the associated charities in our cities is not the mere relief of distress, important though that is, but the rehabilitation of family life. More and more we are coming to see that the social unit is not the man or the woman, but the family. More and more we are acting upon our often expressed opinion that the foundation of a prosperous state is family life.

Now we are just beginning to realize that the same principles hold true in institutional work. That when we take an inmate into a reform school, a hospital for the insane, even an almshouse, that inmate is rarely alone in the world. Back of him and connected with him is a family. His condition, which makes necessary the state's or the county's institutional provision, is related in some way to things that have happened with the family that is outside.

Take two particular examples which are constantly occurring: Here is a married woman, mother of a family, who at the age of forty becomes insane. The causes of her insanity are frequently overwork, overanxiety, malnutrition, bad housing—all things which belong to family life. We take her to the hospital for the insane; there we give her every possible care; we spend upon her from five to seven dollars per week, and, in some states, much more. After six months or perhaps a year, or it may be longer, she recovers. She becomes convalescent and she is discharged and goes back, nine times out of ten, to the identical conditions which caused her insanity in the first instance, with the result that it is only a few weeks or months before she is again insane, again a subject for the hospital.

Or take another case. A boy, wayward, so-called incorrigible, is brought to the juvenile court. The judge, guided by the information secured by the probation officer, discovers that the boy himself is not entirely, perhaps not chiefly, to blame; home conditions are often the cause of his waywardness; lack of parental discipline and guidance; associations, forced upon him by the location of the home, which are corrupting. The judge realizes that his so-called home is no fit place, and having no other available home, he commits him to a juvenile reformatory. There the boy does fairly well for a few months, the superintendent feels he might go out on parole, and he is sent back to the very home

<sup>1</sup>An address delivered recently before the Illinois Conference of Charities and Correction.



and the very conditions which caused his waywardness in the first instance.

Now, it will be seen that in both these cases, numerous examples of which might be found in every state, the weak point of the arrangement is the lack of knowledge of the family relationships. The insane woman or the wayward boy are treated as social units, and the family of which they are part is disregarded.

What should be done in cases of this kind? That is best answered by what is being done in some states and cities. With regard to the insane, what is called after-care has been created. That means that before the convalescent patient leaves the hospital, his home conditions are looked into by a wise and careful agent. If they are not such as will conduce to the complete establishment of his sanity, efforts are made to change them. Sometimes this means a certain amount of charitable relief; sometimes it means advice and supervision. Until the conditions of the home are made fit for the convalescent person to return to, he is not sent back. That is to say, efforts are made to treat the insanity of the patient as a symptom of a physical or social disease not only of himself, but of the family of which he is a part.

With regard to the wayward boy, the same kind of treatment ensues. Only a little while ago, when an inquiry was made into the management of the Juvenile Court of Chicago, probably the worst thing that was found to exist was that children who had been taken from their homes because, in the opinion of the judge, those homes were not fit places for them, had then been sent to institutions which had very speedily allowed the children to go back to the same bad homes.

What is needed is a clear apprehension of the fact that we must deal with our defectives, our delinquents and our dependents as parts of the families to which they belong. We must associate our work with them; we must be willing to learn from each other to take counsel together, and above all, we must insist on the fullest possible knowledge of the individuals whom we treat, not merely physically and mentally, but also socially.

When an inmate comes to any of our state institutions from a large city in which there is a charity organization society, the chances are that something is known by that organized society about that inmate. Not only should we have the full record from the court, but we should have the social record which is otherwise available.

Then when the time comes for sending out the inmate, co-operation should be established with the social agency of the city or town to which he is going.

Of course, in very small places, the above

does not apply, but even then something can be done. The township trustee or overseer of the poor can be communicated with, or the sheriff or chief of police will be able to give information. If only efforts are made to establish co-operation of the right kind, it can be done, and the state conference of charities is, of all places, the one where such efficient co-operation might be worked out.

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## THE TREND OF THINGS

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IT was in January, 1911, that, according to Arthur Tracy Cabot in the *Atlantic Monthly*, the Boston Consumptives' Hospital trustees closed the home-school where children with open communicable tuberculosis were segregated. Says Mr. Cabot:

The chairman of the board, who cast the deciding vote which closed the school, when asked how these patients were to be cared for after the closure of the school, said, "At day-camps and hospitals," and declared that it was the intention of his trustees so to provide for them. Under these circumstances it is interesting to know what became of these patients after they were turned out of the hospital school. Drs. Locke and Murphy made an investigation and were able to trace one hundred and fifty-six out of the one hundred and seventy-four cases treated at the school during the year previous to its closure. Of these cases just nineteen, or 10.91 per cent, went to day-camps or hospitals; ninety-one, or 58.33 per cent, went back into the public schools; four, or 2.56 per cent, had died; and the remaining forty-two patients, or 26.92 per cent, had gone back into the community.

These figures give a striking illustration of the far greater usefulness to the community of a hospital school than of a day-camp or hospital. Only a little more than 10 per cent of the children whose parents are willing to have them attend a hospital school are willing to let them go to day-camps and hospitals. The large proportion of these cases which went back into the public schools, at the risk of infecting well children, is sufficient basis for a serious indictment of the city government that subjects well children, put under its care, to such unnecessary risks.

\* \* \*

EDITH RICKERT presents in the *Century* a study of women's fraternities in America. Miss Rickert concludes nothing less than that these fraternities, notwithstanding individual benefits, "are hastening on our 'French Revolution'; they are creating a type that rules by habit rather than by individual power and wisdom: and by their inflexible system of caste they are emphasizing the gap, already more than sufficient for women as for men, between privilege and the working world."



MABEL POTTER DAGGETT, writing in the *World's Work* on the widow's pension, tells this story:

To an official window in one of the city departments of New York recently came a man leading his little daughter. "I can't get work," he said bitterly. "This child can. They are hungry at home. May she have a permit?"

She was fourteen and met the other requirements of the law. So the City of New York gave her the desired legal document, the "working paper," as the children call it. The man and his daughter went out together, the little girl to join the great army of toilers, where the insistent sign of industry, "Girls Wanted—Boys Wanted," always swings in the wind; the father to swell the ranks of unemployed men.

\* \* \*

MEN WANTED FOR THE UNITED STATES  
ARMY. EASY WORK, GOOD PAY.  
A CHANCE TO SEE THE WORLD.

THIS advertisement is made the basis for the following reflections by two frequenters of the Interpreter's House in the *American*:

I wonder whether Uncle Sam is telling the truth—said the Observer. Let's look that list over a little closer.

Private soldiers .....	\$15 per month
Cooks .....	30 " "
Bandmasters .....	75 " "

He is and he isn't—said the Reporter. He doesn't tell a lie exactly, but he shaves it as close as you'd peel an apple. I know something about a soldier's life. Here's his "steady employment" at fifteen dollars per month. Up at six, has breakfast and makes his bed. Drill at 7:30 for an hour and a half. Then a lot of useless routine duties up to about one. Two months a year target practice and special drill. That's his apprenticeship for three of the best years of his life.

What does he get out of it?—asked the Observer.

Exactly—answered the Reporter. What has he to show for those three years that will help him to be successful as a carpenter, a mechanic or a merchant or anything else that is useful? For three years his mind has been turned away from all of those things whereby he might make a living. He has acquired a habit of idleness and a distaste for civil life. Much of the training and knowledge which he previously had have lapsed from disuse. In their place he has acquired the vices of the camp, but he cannot live on those. If a man were receiving fifteen dollars a month and at the same time

a training that would fit him for something useful, well and good; but at what price can a man agree to throw away his future?

"A chance to see the world." No man sees less of the world that is worth seeing than the private soldier. He sees the inside of forts and brothels. He is not stationed where there is much to see, and what travel he gets does not educate him.

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WILLIAM McANDREW, writing in the *World's Work*, advocates classes in "the magazines." He says:

The atmosphere of a school, the intended training place of future citizens, in a republic, the supposed seminary of independent, self-reliant souls who must do their own thinking, takes on the spirit of a military organization in which efficiency depends upon unquestioning obedience. The use of a magazine of current ideas seems a direct remedy for this defect. Timely problems are unsettled ones; otherwise they would not be current. The exercise of judgment is more easily possible because the ideas are almost as new to the teacher as to the others. Here is a situation where happily the teacher does not know it all. There is brought into school the novel and desirable condition of equality of ignorance. In a magazine class I saw the unusual and delightful spectacle of a teacher listening to recitals of things unknown to her. The topic was the article, "A New Element in Strikes," in the *World's Work* for May, 1912. The discussion had centered around the laws for the restriction of the hours of labor of women and children. Two girls from the East Side, members of whose home circles are in the waist-makers' union, set forth with vividness of detail and earnestness of manner the condition of the trade-working woman more effectively than the best-read teacher could dream of doing. The other girls listened and commented with an intentness that only one teacher in a thousand, treating of textbook history, can secure.

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WALTER V. WOELKE gives this history in *Sunset Magazine* of the Harriman Line Club at X:

The club-house threw open its doors in due time and flung the keys away. Like the saloon, it invited the men to come in at any hour, day or night, and make use of their billiard and pool room, play cards at their tables, read in their library, buy cigars twice as good as the saloon *stincadores* for the same price, make use of the dance hall, the café, the rooms and the baths in any way they saw fit. The men responded slowly to the invitation to come and take possession, so slowly at first that the saloon-keepers' grin deepened and became almost sardonic. By and by, however, the grin congealed on the saloon's fat red face. It froze into an



ugly smirk, vanished altogether, degenerated into a snarl when, a few months after the opening of the club-house, seven drink emporiums closed their doors—for lack of business.

But the saloon did not give up without a fight. It bribed cooks in the club café to place dope in the patrons' food, to make them ill and drive them across the street. It offered free drinks galore. It bought attendants at the club, hoping to disgust the men by poor service. When all other means had failed, it bribed every attendant, every employe of the club-house, and called them out on strike one morning, leaving the quarters empty. One foul blow after another the saloon planted below the club's belt, but to no purpose. The club, not the saloon, survived.

Today the town of X is larger than it was. It has a thousand additional inhabitants, but the number of saloons has decreased from *twenty-nine* to *seven*—for lack of business.

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#### THE WEEK BEFORE CHRISTMAS.

'Twas the week before Christmas, and all through the town

The shopgirls and packers were fast breaking down,

While women of leisure lay soft in their beds,

And visions of purchases danced in their heads.

"I never go into those stores with bad air,

But the time of their closing is not my affair,"

Said a lady who shopped in a limousine car

More roomy and lighter than tenements are.

And then as she dozed, there arose such a clatter,

She rang for a maid to see what was the matter.

She saw to her horror a flying machine

Come down through her chimney. Within it was seen

An angry old Santa Claus, dressed like his picture,

Whose face was her Bishop's and doctor's in mixture.

He threw from his tonneau a muff which could purr;

'Twas labeled "The voice of the sweated in fur."

Kid mules which went tapping about the parquet—

It's 11 o'clock, we're delivering yet!

Each purchaser wants all his parcels each night—

And to-morrow they drive us before the day's light.

A phonograph sang with an opera voice

(In Italian) "'Tis Christmas, let all men rejoice!"

But always the weary must pay when they break,

And we can't keep a girl if she makes a mistake.

One hand on her Bible, and one on a check,

The poor lady listened—a terrified wreck—

While the gifts of her nightmare piled up on the floor,

And that horrid Saint Nicholas handed her more!

When she clutched at her Bible, he pulled off his cap

Saying, "That's what I need for the people you trap

Into working for wages on which they can't live.

It's they who need Scriptures on how to forgoe.

But your mean little checks—\$5 here and \$10 there—

For the sweated you doom to a hospital's care

Are the devil's own credit, it's he alone knows

The lives that are ruined by shops that won't close.

If after long hours, girls reel from a store

More dead than alive, to a friend at the door—

Who offers to treat them, and one more goes under—

'Tis you are to blame, with your bargains and blunder.

You patronize shops which are open at night,

Then you open a Rescue and think it's all right.

I tell you conditions don't change for committees—

It will take every woman in each of your cities;

Good hours! good wages! a small dividend

To the octopus owners—then world without end.

Just then came the voices of children at prayers—

"Dear Santa Claus, please send my mother car fares,  
She cannot work late and be walking home, too,"

When away to his children the Santa Clause flew.

MARGARET CHANLER ALDRICH.

[Courtesy of the New York Times. Published by the Consumers League of the City of New York, 106 E. 19th Street.]

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WE have something to learn about reasonable living, it seems, from Darkest Africa. Booker T. Washington tells in the *Century* of an African student who came to study at Tuskegee.

"He did not," says he, "approve at all of our course of study. There was not enough theology, and too much work to suit him. As far as he was concerned, he could not see any value in learning to work, and he thought it was a pretty poor sort of country in which the people had to devote so much time to labor. 'In my country,' he said, 'everything grows of itself. We do not have to work. We can devote all our time to the larger life.'"

\* \* \*

HUGH H. LUSK in the *Forum* advocates a labor copartnership law, and characterizes it as "a law that is founded on the radical truth that labor in all trades is of necessity the partner of capital embarked in those trades, and provides that the partnership shall be acknowledged and acted on by a sharing of profits." Such a law would, in his opinion, in contrast to arbitration legislation, have the "valuable quality of permanency as well as the sanction of justice."

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## COMMUNICATIONS

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### POLYGAMY AND THE EUGENIC PROGRAM

TO THE EDITOR:

IN THE SURVEY of November 2 Dr. Ira S. Wile in his excellent report of the recent Hygiene Congress in Washington states that I there advocated polygamy as a remedy for defectiveness and degeneracy. People who know me personally will not need to be told that I never advocated polygamy, nor euthanasia, nor the Neo-Malthusian Society's proposals for the prevention of conception by artificial means, nor *laissez faire*, nor any practice subversive of our highest standards of morality. All of these I mentioned merely as having been proposed along with other possible and impossible measures, as means for the prevention of these evil conditions which so burden and afflict society. In fact, I advocated no measure whatever, nor did I give reasons for or against any. I distinctly stated that as yet there is not enough data accumulated to warrant conclusions or



recommendations for a preventive eugenic program.

This mere mention of the word polygamy was seized upon by a Washington newspaper reporter and made a sensational feature of its report of the meeting, and from that source doubtless it has spread to many quarters. I trust that you will do me the justice to give this statement as wide publicity as has been given to that which I venture to believe Dr. Wile received, not at first hand but through newspaper sources.

BLEECKER VAN WAGENEN.

New York.

#### PRISON LABOR IN NEW JERSEY

TO THE EDITOR:

IN THE SURVEY for November 2 there is an advertisement by Mr. Walsh of the Committee on Social Service (presumably, of the Democratic Campaign Committee) reading partly as follows: "The following are some of the laws passed by New Jersey during the term of Governor Wilson: a law abolishing contract labor by inmates of prisons; providing that as many of such inmates as possible be employed in agricultural pursuits, and in horticulture and floriculture, and when not so occupied such inmates to be employed in the manufacture or production of goods and articles used by state, county and municipal departments and institutions. This law struck down the iniquitous contract labor system and unfair competition between prison and free labor with one blow."

Now what are the facts? It is true that the law was passed. But it is a dead letter. There has not been one particle of reform or change in prison labor conditions in New Jersey since the law was passed. There is not a single convict employed in the various ways suggested in the statute. In fact, there are about one hundred more convicts employed under the contract system than before the enactment of the statute.

One of the provisions called for the appointment of a commission to install methods of employment to take the place of the contract system. Governor Wilson appointed the following on this commission: S. W. Kirkbride, William H. Tonking, Joseph P. O. Lows, Cook Conkling, Richard N. More and George M. Lamont.

In making these appointments, the governor either showed very little sagacity or else to be slangy, let his advisers "put one over" on him. The contractors could not have wanted anything better. The commission is dominated by Mr. Kirkbride who had always fought the abolition of the contract system and had lobbied in Washington against legislation inimical to the contract system. The result has been that for the year and a half of its existence, the commission has absolutely nothing to show. It has simply been marking time. Since it does nothing constructive and the convicts cannot be left in idleness, the old system keeps merrily on. The game of the contractors and the commission is to hold off till a complaisant legislature can be gotten to repeal the law abolishing the contract

system. The only thing done by the commission is to inspire occasional press items in opposition to any form of labor except the contract system and to yearn for legislation repealing the enactment of 1911 and ending the life of the commission.

I do not for a moment doubt Mr. Wilson's sincerity in the matter but the statement of Mr. Walsh that the law "struck down the contract system and unfair competition between prison and free labor with one blow" is just one delicious bit of pure campaign buncombe designed to gull those who are not aware of the facts.

As to what Mr. Walsh says of a workmen's compensation act, that is a white horse of another color.

New York.

WILLIAM PHILLIPS.

TO THE EDITOR:

You have called my attention to the letter of Mr. Phillips concerning prison labor in New Jersey. The so-called Osborne Bill, passed in 1910, abolished contract labor in New Jersey. The contracts then in operation at the state prison had between three and four years to run. The act did not cancel these contracts, and it was not the intention of the framers of the bill that it should do so. The object of the legislation was to give time for the state to readjust prison industries to the "state use" system so that as the contracts expired the prisoners released from the contracts should find immediate employment under the new system. The legislature of 1912 reorganized the commission as provided for in the original act, and took the appointments out of the hands of the governor and placed them in the hands of the legislature. The original act provided for a commission of five to include two appointive members, the superintendent of the state reformatory, the warden of the state prison, and the commissioner of charities and corrections. The present commission is composed of six members appointed by the legislature in joint assembly in April last.

The legislature made no appropriation for the commission to enable it to carry on the necessary preliminary work of investigation and organization. The commission has had a number of meetings which have been attended at their own expense. The members have, without exception, assumed an earnest and intelligent attitude toward the duties placed upon them. Four of the members have within the past three weeks made a tour of a number of institutions outside of New Jersey for the purpose of acquiring at first hand all available information concerning the employment of prisoners on the state use system, and four of its members were present during the recent congress of the American Prison Association in Baltimore. All this has been done at their individual expense.

Mr. Phillips's prophecy is premature and his criticism unfair. His statements seem to be based upon misinformation or a disregard of facts. No one familiar with the personnel of the commission is likely to believe the statement that they are dominated by the chairman.



The commission has not been in existence a year and a half. They were not appointed until the latter part of April, 1912, and did not organize for at least four months after their appointment, and for this failure to organize earlier the commission was not responsible.

I am sending you this statement in order that Mr. Phillips and those who may read his letter, may be set right.

JOSEPH P. BYERS.

[Commissioner of Charities and Corrections.]

Trenton, N. J.

## "MURDER IN THE FIRST DEGREE"

TO THE EDITOR:

I have just finished your editorial "Murder in the First Degree" with some disappointment. It seemed to me not to go deep enough.

May I assume that the houses of gambling and prostitution in New York have 40,000 patrons? Then let us say 40,000 men voters in New York desire gambling resorts and houses of prostitution. They mean to have them. They vote for people in public office who will see to it that they *do* have them. And to my mind, it is they who were responsible for Herman Rosenthal's death.

How about the rest of the voters in New York? Leaving out the handful of men who are paid to fight vice and degradation, the remainder take this attitude—they say, "While we couldn't take the responsibility and the odium of arranging for and licensing gambling resorts and houses of prostitution, of course the men who want them can have them and will have them. The only thing for us to do is to look the other way. Indulgence of that sort can never be wiped out entirely. Imagine a big city without gambling and prostitution."

Now, may I ask, why aren't there people even more responsible for Rosenthal's murder? New York voters do not want or expect the police to wipe out gambling and prostitution from every nook and corner of the city. Neither do they want to legalize gambling and prostitution by the giving of licenses.

They merely want the police to keep vice out of sight a bit, to attack the spots that fester worst, to pretend that they are doing something for their salaries. *But they don't want it done.* Isn't it a bit absurd to pretend to be shocked over the details of the Becker case? Do the men of New York really expect a police force to connive with crime sufficiently to ensure the maintenance of disreputable resorts, and by so doing, risk losing their positions, their reputations, their very lives? Apparently they do. And at the same time they expect their police to be men of such honor and integrity as to scornfully refuse the perquisites which come their way while conniving with crime. It's a good deal to expect. To my mind the blame not only of the Rosenthal murder, but of countless murders and crimes, rests not so much on the police as on the men voters of New York who do not dare to license and who do not care to suppress gambling resorts and houses of prostitution.

New York.

EMILY H. BURNHAM.

'See THE SURVEY, November 2, 1912, p. 115.

## CONDITIONS AT MUSCATINE

TO THE EDITOR:

The contribution of Harry F. Ward in your issue of June 1, regarding conditions at Muscatine, Iowa, is in substance an indictment of the community at large. It is also slanderous to citizens of Muscatine because untruthful in many of its statements concerning them. Let me cite a few examples: "It (the community) has grown up in sprawling, haphazard fashion; it has not even a paid fire department." The ordinary reader would understand this to mean that Muscatine has no fire department whatever, when in truth it has had for many years a very efficient volunteer department, which has won more premiums than any other department in contests at state tournaments. Again Mr. Ward says: "There is no community consciousness"; "it forms its judgment on prejudice"; "is bewildered because of its ignorance and bitter because of its prejudices." Again, he says: "The forces of law and order are not effective and brutally unjust," etc.

What can be the "consciousness" of a man who goes into a community where a reign of terror has been inaugurated by a group of workers who, having abandoned their jobs, are making use of violence to prevent others from working—such violence as throwing stones, sticks and mud at inoffensive girls, hurling stink bombs in the night into dwellings of these workers and, in one instance, poisoning one of their wells? What, I say, can be the "consciousness" of a man who, seeing this kind of outlawry, forms his "judgment on prejudice" and straightway scandalizes those who are seeking to restore order as "bewildered because of ignorance and bitter because of prejudice?"

There was no question for settlement before the community when Ward made his so-called investigation except that of putting a stop to assaults upon the lives and liberties of peaceable men and women who wanted to work for the wages offered them, and yet because of efforts of the constituted authorities to protect these innocent people, these authorities are assailed in a paper, especially devoted to social justice, as "ineffective" and "brutally unjust," unaccompanied by a single word of condemnation of those who unlawfully attempted to accomplish their purposes. Ward further says: "Muscatine stands bewildered, incoherent, impotent." No such thing. It is a prosperous city. Its factories are running, notwithstanding the "brutal" efforts of certain persons to stop them. Moreover, the Methodist Church (one of those maligned by Ward as having "failed" of duty in the late labor troubles) dedicated a new \$112,000 church last month without a dollar of indebtedness on it.

Mr. Batten's article in the same issue of THE SURVEY gives some real information and is more fair than is Ward's. However, Batten is unjust to Muscatine in attempting to show that it has an "inheritance of roughness" by saying that in early times it had a gang called "Mad Creek Rattlers," who, he gravely declares, were



"always ready to commit any crime up to and including murder." I was a boy in Muscatine at that time and can certify that the "rattlers" referred to were wholly inoffensive. This was an organization of boys to oppose in friendly combats a like organization in another part of the town, and no act of violence was ever chargeable to either organization. It is no wonder that Mr. Batten and Mr. Ward have arrived at some unwarranted conclusions after giving heed to such "old wives fables" as that relating to the "Mad Creek Rattlers."

Evanston, Ill.

JOHN MAHIN.

[Readers of Mr. Mahin's letter should know that the writer is a man of advanced age who has not lived in Muscatine for ten years and whose knowledge of the situation has come to him from partisan sources or from newspapers which were denied access to important facts.

The "so-called investigation" was not made by one man, but by a committee, whose report has been adopted by the Commission on Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches which appointed them.

The courts have not sustained Mr. Mahin's contentions concerning the acts of the strikers, but have sustained the report of the committee concerning the "forces of law and order."

The fact that a church costing \$112,000 could be built and paid for during an industrial conflict of eighteen months' duration in the leading industry of the town, involving the unemployment of a large proportion of its workers, may partially explain the statements of the committee concerning church life in Muscatine.—Ed.]

#### 'THE GAME OF LAW'

TO THE EDITOR:

I read with much interest Mr. Wessel's article, *The Game of Law*.<sup>1</sup> Mr. Wessel's criticisms on the administration of justice in some of the states of this union are just. But in order to form a correct opinion on the subject it should be noted that each state in the union has a judicial system of its own. In some of the states the technical points, which Mr. Wessel criticizes, have little weight. In the New England states generally, in New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin and Kansas and by constitutional amendment in California, it has been provided that no judgment shall be reversed or new trial granted because of technical errors which do not affect the merits. Or, to use the language of Judge Cox, delivering the opinion of the Circuit Court of Appeals in *Press Publishing Co. vs. Monteith*, 183 Fed., 357: "The more rational and enlightened view is that in order to justify reversal the court must be able to conclude that the error is so substantial as to affect injuriously the appellant's rights."

The Supreme Court of the United States in its new equity rules (19) provides: "The court at every stage of the proceedings must disregard every error or defect in the proceedings which does not affect the substantial rights of the parties."

Mr. Wessel calls attention to the delay which sometimes takes place in criminal trials in the United States and particularly to that in the trial of Tucker for the murder of Mabel Page. Allow me to say that I have been engaged as a member of law reform committees for a good many years in promoting the work of reform in the administration of criminal justice, and that I have uniformly found the greatest difficulty to arise from the spirit expressed in the article of Mary Brown Sumner in the same number of your valuable periodical as that containing Mr. Wessel's article. I have no doubt that Giovannitti finds it very uncomfortable to be in jail. But he ought to have thought of that before he committed the crime of which he is charged. Perhaps Miss Sumner would say he is not guilty. But that is the question to be determined by the jury. Certainly people were killed during the Lawrence strike. It is in the interest of innocent, hard-working people that the persons responsible for that killing should be brought to justice. If Giovannitti was not guilty, he was certainly found in very bad company. His friend and associate Haywood was guilty of a murder in Wyoming if we may believe the testimony of his accomplice. Under our system of law he was not convicted of that crime, because in its tenderness for the culprit it forbids a conviction upon the sole testimony of an accomplice. But no one who read the testimony on the trial can have any real doubt of Haywood's guilt. It did not convince the jury beyond a reasonable doubt. On that basis the very merciful law of this country proceeds in dealing with alleged criminals. In such a case the verdict may save a man from prison or from the gallows, but it ought not to reinstate him in the confidence of the community.

EVERETT P. WHEELER.

New York.

#### THE LAWRENCE RECALL ELECTION

TO THE EDITOR:

On page 53 of *THE SURVEY* of October 12, one reads that when "the English-speaking community at Lawrence had a chance to express themselves in the special election for school committeemen," John J. Breen, "who had confessed to planting dynamite to destroy the strikers," was "overwhelmingly defeated." In view of the circumstances it seems that this is hardly an accurate description of the fact. That a man, tried and convicted of a peculiarly vicious offense, should poll a vote of more than 2,200 out of a total of about 6,000 votes is surely cause for considerable astonishment. It is a matter of regret that the citizens of Lawrence—"the English speaking community" which is supposed to represent the defense of the forces of law and order in the present situation—should have left any uncertainty in their condemnation of John J. Breen. That thirty-seven out of every one hundred voting citizens of Lawrence should have expressed a willingness to allow this man to remain a member of their school board does not appear exactly like an "overwhelming de-

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, November 2, 1912, p. 138.



feat." Perhaps, as the Boston *Herald* suggested, "the vote affords some explanation of the conditions which have obtained there."

Boston.

EMILIE J. HUTCHINSON.

#### ARTURO GIOVANNITTI

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read with great interest the brief article, in *THE SURVEY* for November 2, on Arturo Giovannitti. It is of peculiar interest to one who is himself a graduate of a Protestant theological seminary, and who is having his own struggle trying to make what he learned there fit in with new scientific habits of thought and social ideals, to learn that Giovannitti himself once began preparations for the Protestant ministry.

New York.

A. J. MUSTE.

TO THE EDITOR:

Permit me to thank you for the article on Giovannitti. I am no weak sentimentalist but merely a fair-minded woman, wishing to see justice done. Amid all the wild, indiscriminate denunciations of "capitalists," it is well to see an informing and suggestive article like the one referred to. How hard it is for the oft-times cold Anglo-Saxon temperament to appreciate or understand the Latin. How almost impossible it is for us, lacking, as we are, in imagination, to put ourselves in another's place before passing snapshot judgment on his case! Charles Reade's immortal maxim, "Put yourself in his place," was never more needed than in this age of unrest and imperative readjustments.

ANNIE S. CHURCHILL.

Brookline, Mass.

#### A CORRECTION

TO THE EDITOR:

I note that in *THE SURVEY* of October 26, you published under the head of "Communications" the article which I had prepared at your request as part of a symposium<sup>1</sup> of views on workmen's compensation published some time ago. I am very sorry the article was published in this particular form since it would make it appear that I am going out of my way to take part in a controversy now going on in the United States in which I have no direct concern, but which is a matter of life and death to some of your large insurance interests. The article correctly expresses the views which I have urged and which are rapidly gaining ground in the United States but I should not have thought of publishing them in the form in which they appear. I should be glad if you would give this the same publicity as the article itself.

F. W. WEGENAST.

[Counsel, Canadian Manufacturers' Association.]  
Toronto, Canada.

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, May 4, 1912.

## PERSONALS

"Under the competitive system, the struggle is not worth while," said the note left between the leaves of the book he was reading by "One Hoss" Wayland, the pioneer of effective Socialist periodical propagandists in the United States, who died by his own hand this month. Grief for his wife, who was killed in an accident about a year ago, added to twelve years' battle with cancer, to his friends' minds, accounts for his dying mood of pessimism, rather than fear of a pending federal indictment; for Julius A. Wayland, the job printer who fifteen years ago started the *Appeal to Reason* on his own little free press, never before shunned a fight.

With Debs and Warren, the other members of the *Appeal* staff, Wayland attacked the federal courts, not on theoretical grounds but in the way that was more effective, by searching out the professional records of the judges and their decisions in cases where human and property rights were in conflict. He entered upon his longest fight when he undertook to raise a fund through the *Appeal* to finance a difficult liability suit in behalf of a workman, Frank Lane, and carried it from court to court until he got the injured man one of the highest awards on record in accident cases.

To test the legality of the spiriting across state lines of the labor leaders in the Western Federation of Miners' cases, which Justice Harlan so roundly criticized from the bench, the colleagues of the *Appeal* offered a reward to any man who would kidnap Ex-Governor Taylor and bring him within the grasp of Kentucky authorities, and in so doing risked a jail sentence for misuse of the mails. They are now again under indictment, on account of charges brought against the management of the federal jail at Leavenworth.

The Leavenworth exposures led to investigation and reform, and Wayland never looked upon this or the earlier prosecution as anything but excellent propaganda for his cause, in the same way that in his racy journalism he broke from the traditions of the old theoretical tracts of the Socialists. This propaganda is carried on throughout the country by half a million subscribers who pass their paper on to half a million more, and it has been no small factor in the increase of the Socialist vote during the life of the *Appeal* from a few thousand to a million in the election just passed. M. B. S.

\* \* \*

This month Henry F. Burt, for five years head of Pillsbury Settlement House, Minneapolis, became superintendent of Lake Superior Mission, Lake Superior, Wis. Before going to Pillsbury House Mr. Burt had been connected with Sears, Roebuck and Company and prior to that with Chicago Commons.

The Minnesota State Training School for Boys has a new superintendent in the person of Charles O. Merica. The state reformatory has just lost by resignation Supt. F. L. Randall.



Berkel y Greene Tobey has been appointed financial secretary of the Boy Scouts of America, with headquarters in New York. With a budget of about \$100,000 a year, and with scouts organized in practically every city, town and village in the United States, with the publication of a monthly magazine for boys, and the supplying them with scout uniforms, camp kits and other equipment, the organization has tackled a big task in an energetic way under the direction of James E. West, chief scout executive. Mr. Tobey has been financial secretary of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity.

\* \* \*

Sherwood O. Preston, for twenty-six years connected with the second oldest charity organization society in the United States, died last month in New Haven, Conn., at the age of sixty-four years. The New Haven society was founded in 1878, the year after the establishment of the Buffalo society. Mr. Preston came to New Haven as agent in 1886. He was soon elevated to the superintendency of the organization and in that capacity did pioneer work in bringing about effective co-operation on the part of the city charitable societies. Though his occupation previously had been that of a mechanic and he had been little in touch with social conditions, "his practical sense," says Prof. Henry W. Farnam, "at once put him in touch with the forward movements in the administration of charities."

The selection of Mr. Preston's successor is a striking illustration of the changed approach to philanthropic work which has taken place in a generation. Prof. William B. Bailey, a graduate of Yale, has been successively instructor and assistant professor of political economy in his *alma mater*. He has specialized in the subjects of poor relief, criminality and statistics, and was in charge of the last federal census in Connecticut.

\* \* \*

After three years' absence, during which she held the position of Director of the Bureau of Social Research of the New York School of Philanthropy, Pauline Goldmark returned this fall to the New York Consumers' League, to fill the position of Executive Secretary. Mary R. Chamberlain has been appointed to fill the new office of assistant secretary, and with this addition to its forces the league is planning to reorganize its work in the direction of greater efficiency, and to devote special attention to law enforcement, a phase made especially important by the recent shortening of women's hours of labor by the fifty-four hour law.

\* \* \*

At memorial services in honor of David Blaustein, former superintendent of the Educational Alliance and lecturer on immigration at the School of Philanthropy, New York, it was announced that the alliance had decided to preserve the memory of the founders and most active workers of the institution by naming rooms in the building after them. The auditorium has

been named for Isidor Straus, and other rooms for Mr. Blaustein, Julia Richmond, and Morris Loeb.

\* \* \*

Joseph P. Byers, who was recently appointed commissioner of charities and correction of New Jersey, had for two years been secretary of the State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association of that state. C. L. Stonaker, for seven years secretary of the Colorado State Board of Charities and Board of Pardons, succeeded Mr. Byers.

## JOTTINGS

### PUTTING LIFE IN YOUR STATE CONFERENCE

For states which have heretofore had trouble in making their conferences of charities and corrections aggressive and well-attended affairs there may be suggestion in the schemes resorted to in Maine and Minnesota this fall. In Maine an attempt was made to bring all the state-wide social service organizations together so that every source of interest would be tapped. The program was distributed among the Anti-Tuberculosis Association, the Children's Committee, the Prison Association and the Child Labor Committee. Each of these is represented on the executive committee for next year. A movement is under way to make this committee the organ through which the legislative work of all four bodies will be pushed, thus quadrupling the support behind each measure.

Among the penal improvements looked for in Maine now are jail reform, reformatories for women and young men, a farm for inebriates, such as Massachusetts, Minnesota and Iowa have now, and the establishment of juvenile courts. "The jail system of Maine is a disgrace to the state," said E. P. Wentworth, president of the conference. "It is archaic, unscientific, unjust, inadequate, inefficient, and considering the little good and the great evil it does, it is extravagantly costly."

### HOW THEY DID IT IN MINNESOTA

In Minnesota the County Commissioners' Association, the Child Labor Committee, the State Sanitary Conference and the Anti-tuberculosis Association united their forces to make the conference a success. State, county and city officials were on the program. In Minnesota county commissioners attend the conference at public expense.

Social workers in Minnesota hope to see both employers' liability and workmen's compensation laws passed this winter. A re-organization of the state bureau of labor after the fashion of the Wisconsin plan, including civil service appointment, is contemplated. The conference gave particular attention to the need for re-organizing the state's facilities for taking care of dependent and delinquent children.

The State Board of Health and the Department of Public Instruction of Minnesota wish



to lend their aid to the schools of the state in promoting health supervision of school children. To this end, the board has engaged the services of Dr. Ernest B. Hoag, formerly of the University of California, to help Minnesota towns and cities to organize health work in schools. Dr. Hoag is spending a year traveling about the state, spending from one day to two weeks in a single place. It is proposed to demonstrate to towns, cities and counties that rational conservation of the mental and physical health of school children is possible with the means already at hand. Three plans are being proposed: Organization with a medical officer and nurse or nurses; organization with school nurse or nurses only; and organization by the employment of a simple non-medical health survey on the part of the teachers only. Such a survey is provided by a series of questions based upon ordinary observation of physical and mental conditions. The outline for this purpose will be furnished by the State Board of Health—one for each child. No community need wait for the employment of a medical officer in order to begin sensible health observation of school children.

#### MUNICIPAL LIBRARY IN ST. LOUIS

Officials of city departments and students of municipal affairs are finding great use for the Municipal Reference Branch Library recently established adjacent to the chambers of the city council by the St. Louis Library. The library board pays the salary of the librarian of this branch and all regular library expenses and the city furnishes the room. The branch is for municipal information and research,—its duties being to collect, classify, index, and preserve all data obtainable relative to the operation and government of municipalities; as well as material bearing on the welfare and health of their inhabitants. The charters, laws, and ordinances of St. Louis and other cities have been collected, together with all data, reports, and statistics obtainable from other cities in the United States, Canada, and Europe. The library also gathers facts from magazines, newspapers, and reports of organizations working along the lines of municipal reform and civic betterment. Such books, bills, documents, reports, and other material are readily available to anyone, particularly to members of the Municipal Assembly and of other departments of the city government.

With the establishment of the Municipal Reference Branch, it is declared that no ordinance need be passed and no department of the city government need try any new scheme, measure, or device without full knowledge of what other cities or corporations have done along similar lines, and with what degree of success.

#### MEMORIAL SERVICES FOR PROFESSOR NASH

Memorial services are being planned in honor of Henry Sylvester Nash, late professor of the literature and interpretation of the New Testament at the Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge, Mass., who died this month at the age of fifty-eight. The exact time and place of the services, which will occur in New York, have not been determined.

## CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

### DECEMBER CONFERENCES

- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** Colorado State Conference of. Denver, Dec. 10. Sec'y, William Thomas, Capitol Building, Denver.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** Florida State Conference of. Tampa, Dec. 6-10, 1912.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** Kansas State Conference of. Lawrence, Dec. 5-7. Sec'y, Victor E. Helleberg, University of Kansas, Lawrence.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** Maryland State Conference of. Baltimore, Dec. 3-5. Gen. Sec'y, H. Wirt Steele, 15 E. Pleasant St., Baltimore, Md.
- COSMOPOLITAN CLUBS.** Association of. University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, December, 1912. Sec'y, Louis P. Lochner, 612 S. Brearly St., Madison, Wis.
- FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA.** Second Quadrennial of. Chicago, Dec. 4-10. Sec'y, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave., New York.
- FIRE PREVENTION AND PROTECTION.** International Conference on. New York, Dec. 19-21. Sec'y, A. D. V. Storey, 1289 Broadway, New York.
- HOUSING.** Second National Conference on. Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 4-6. Sec'y, Lawrence Veiller, 105 E. 22d St., New York.
- INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.** National Society for Promotion of. Philadelphia, Dec. 5-7. Sec'y, C. A. Prosser, 105 E. 22d St., New York.
- LABOR LEGISLATION.** American Association for. Sixth Annual Meeting of. Boston, Dec. 27-28, 1912. Sec'y, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.
- RED CROSS.** The American. Washington, D. C., December. Sec'y, Charles L. Magee, Washington, D. C.
- SOUTH, SOCIETY FOR ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE.** Chattanooga, Tenn., Dec. 31-Jan. 2. Sec'y, H. E. Bierly, C/o Institute of Technology, Chattanooga.

### LATER MEETINGS

#### INTERNATIONAL

- BLIND.** Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, 1914: probably July 20. Sec'y, Henry Stalnsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.
- CHILDREN'S WELFARE.** International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstraat 106, Amsterdam.
- PRISON CONGRESS.** Quinquennial. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.
- RELIEF.** Committee on Public and Private. London, Eng.
- SCHOOL HYGIENE.** Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.
- UNEMPLOYMENT.** International Association for Fight Against. Ghent, Belgium, 1913. American Correspondent, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

#### NATIONAL

- AMERICAN ACADEMY OF MEDICINE.** Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting. Minneapolis, Minn., June 13, 14, 1913.
- BOYS.** General Assembly of Workers with. Culver, Ind., May 17-30, 1913. Information may be secured from the Boys' Work Dept., Y. M. C. A., 124 E. 28th Street, New York.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** National Conference of. Seattle, Wash., July 5-12, 1913. Sec'y, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.
- YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION of the United States of America.** Fourth Biennial Convention of. Richmond, Va., Apr. 9-15, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, Mabel Gratty, 600 Lexington Ave., New York.

#### STATE AND LOCAL

- BAPTIST CONVENTION.** NORTHERN. Detroit, Mich., May, 1913. Cor. Sec'y, Rev. W. C. Blitting, St. Louis, Mo.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** Nebraska State Conference of. Lincoln, January, 1913. Sec'y, Charlotte Templeton, State House, Lincoln.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** New Hampshire State Conference of. Concord, February, 1913. Sec'y, Mary P. Remick, Concord.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October, 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.



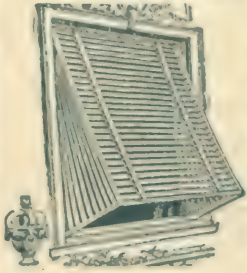


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DECEMBER 7, 1912



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Founded in the '90's by the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York,—entrusted in 1905 to a National Publication Committee,—THE SURVEY has now been turned over by the parent society to an independent organization, open to its readers.

From the start, the magazine and its related activities have been broadly conceived as an educational enterprise, to be employed and developed beyond the limits of advertising and commercial receipts. Five readers contributed \$1,000 each in the publishing year 1911-12; five \$500 each; fifteen \$100 each and 649 \$10 each—altogether over 700 readers thus contributed \$10 or more toward the budget the past year—twice the number of the year preceding.

With this democratic, convinced backing as a natural membership base, the SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC. becomes in fact—what THE SURVEY has long been in spirit—a mutual enterprise.

A review of last year's work and an announcement of the details of organization of the SURVEY ASSOCIATES was sent to every subscriber of THE SURVEY in the same wrapper with the issue of November 23. Additional copies of this pamphlet will be sent on request.

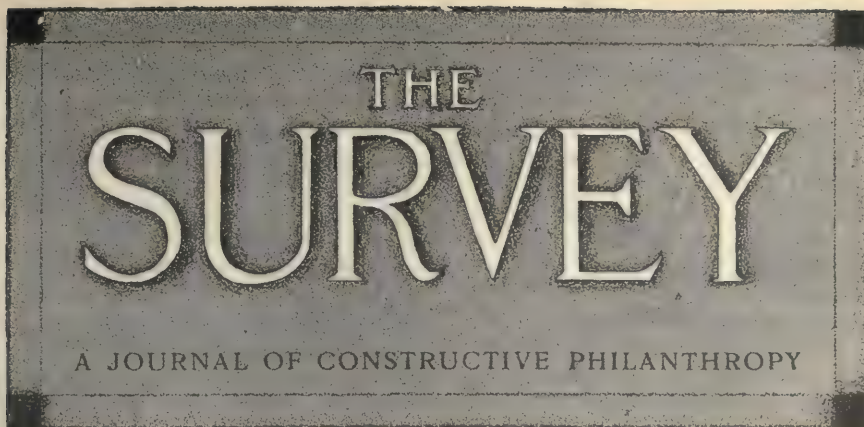




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VOLUME XXIX, No. 10

DECEMBER 7, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### THE SIXTY-SECOND CONGRESS AND SOCIAL LEGISLATION

The Sixty-Second Congress, now in its last session, has been notable for the passage of legislation of a social character. This fact is no doubt in part due to changing political conditions and changing politics. To a certain extent the "play for the labor" vote, which invariably is made just previous to an election, was repeated during the summer but in the shifting party alignments which we have been witnessing, no one party, except the Socialist with its one Congressman, definitely undertook to represent labor. Every bill that passed Congress was voted for by Democrats and Republicans alike—and was voted against by Republicans and Democrats alike also.

Among the achievements of the present Congress in social legislation up to the date of its re-assembling on December 2 were these:

The Phossy Jaw Act, prohibiting the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches.

The eight-hour law and the eight-hour provisions in the postal, fortifications, and naval appropriation bills—not new legislation, but an extension of old.

The provision in the postal appropriation bill allowing federal employees to petition Congress and join what organization they please.

Extension of the Federal Workmen's Compensation Act.

Amendment to the postal appropriation bill, giving to publications of labor and fraternal organizations the same postal privileges as are given to other publications.

Establishment of the Children's Bureau.

Establishment of the Commission on Industrial Relations.

The Senate passed two bills which the House failed to act upon, namely, a workmen's compensation bill and an immigration bill, the latter imposing further restrictions, including an illiteracy test and including, also, the Root amendment providing for the apprehension of political refugees.

The House has passed several bills upon which the Senate has not acted: the Clayton contempt bill, the Clayton injunction bill, the Sulzer Department of Labor bill, the Booher convict labor bill, the seamen's bill and provisions for the extension of the service of the Bureau of Mines.

During the winter session of Congress it is generally admitted that the Department of Labor bill will pass the Senate so that, unless vetoed by President Taft; President-elect Wilson will have a tenth cabinet officer to appoint. It is probable that there will be some compensation legislation. There is likelihood of pressure being brought to bear upon the Senate to put it on record on the convict labor bill; and Attorney-General Wickersham's proposal for a federal inquiry into jails will be urged. The work and proposals of the President's Economy and Efficiency Commission may become active points of public interest.

Another matter to come before Congress of special interest to readers of *THE SURVEY* is the question of granting funds to the American Red Cross Society with which to purchase a site for a building of its own. The appropriation of this money, if made, will bring to a successful end a movement begun some years ago by the New York State Commandery of the Loyal Legion to raise a suitable memorial in honor of the loyal women of the Civil War. The leader in this at-



tempt has been Captain James A. Scrymser of New York.

It was Captain Scrymser's desire to make the memorial as useful as possible, and so it was suggested that \$300,000 be raised for a building to house the Red Cross Society. The understanding was that Congress should be asked to provide a suitable site and that the Red Cross should maintain the building after it was erected. Bills appropriating \$300,000 to buy ground were introduced into both houses of Congress and in due season the Senate committee reported its measure back favorably, increasing the amount to \$400,000. In this form, the bill passed the Senate unanimously last June. The House committee then took the Senate bill and on the last day of the session recommended it favorably. It is now on the calendar to come up early in the session which opened this month.

#### MORALS COMMISSION URGED IN ST. LOUIS

The executive committee of the St. Louis Joint Committee on Public Morals, representing thirty civic, social, religious and medical organizations, has recommended the creation by the Municipal Assembly of a permanent commission on public morals to eradicate the social evil in St. Louis. It will be remembered that such a permanent public commission was advocated by the Chicago Vice Commission, as a result of its investigations, and a semi-public morals commission has been appointed the past year in Pittsburgh.

The report, based on an exhaustive investigation, states that there are eighty-six houses in St. Louis which should be suppressed, and that 556 persons live in them. Fourteen of these, the report states, are outside the three segregated districts. Twenty-one hotels are suspected of being conducted illegally.

The committee holds that commercialized vice is not a necessary evil, but that its elimination is more than a problem of law enforcement, and will require a long and systematic campaign. It opposes an attempt to eradicate vice by a single sweeping act of police suppression, holding that such a plan failed recently at the hands of the Chicago authorities, and would fail in St. Louis. The committee urges that with the aid of the police, the excise commissioner and the circuit attorney, the evil can be eradicated eventually.

The program recommended includes the prohibition of the sale or serving of liquor in disorderly houses, dancing and music. The committee would prohibit a house once closed from ever re-opening and would prohibit the opening of new houses.

The report advises jail sentences for persons who violate the strict regulations it would

have the police impose. Segregation is opposed as being an official recognition of vice. St. Louis is declared to have fewer objectionable houses than any other large city in the world, and the police department is praised as an efficient system of police administration. These and other of its features will be reviewed in their larger aspects in a later issue of THE SURVEY.

#### THE CARNEGIE CORPORATION FOR "THE WANTS OF THE AGE"

Announcement was made in November that Andrew Carnegie has within the year transferred a total of \$100,000,000 to the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The purpose of this corporation, to which \$25,000,000 in addition was given by Mr. Carnegie at the time of its launching a year ago, is to receive and maintain funds the income of which is to be applied

"to promote the advancement and diffusion of knowledge among the people of the United States, by aiding technical schools, institutions of higher learning, libraries, scientific research, hero funds, useful publications and by such other agencies and means as shall from time to time be found appropriate therefor."

In the event of his death any accrued surplus not provided for in his will will be added to the fund of the Carnegie Corporation.

The eight trustees of the corporation, who are in the main the heads of the various philanthropic trusts heretofore established by Mr. Carnegie, are empowered to modify or discontinue by a two-thirds vote any branch of the service which in their judgment may have become inadvisable or unnecessary; or if better use can be made of the funds, they can adopt from time to time such work as they may deem most desirable "for the wants of the age," so that "from age to age" the fund may be expended upon the most profitable work, whether it be the promotion of new ideas or the development of those of the day. To illustrate, it would be through this corporation that the proposed pensions of \$25,000 a year to ex-presidents of the United States would be paid.

The total amount of Mr. Carnegie's benefactions is estimated to be:

Hero funds.....	\$7,250,000
Carnegie Teaching Fund.....	21,500,000
Carnegie Institute, Washington.....	22,000,000
Colleges in United States and Canada..	20,000,000
Colleges in England.....	6,800,000
Trust for Scottish universities.....	10,000,000
Dumfermline Trust.....	2,500,000
Carnegie Institute at Pittsburgh.....	22,000,000
Relief Fund for Steel Workers.....	4,000,000
Gift for Church Organs.....	4,000,000
Pan-American Building.....	750,000
Hague Peace Tribunal Building.....	1,500,000
Peace Endowment.....	10,000,000
Libraries.....	50,935,000
Total.....	\$183,235,000

See THE SURVEY, November 18, 1911.



## SOJOURNER TRUTH HOUSE

"Lena Edwards," called the clerk in sonorous tones.

All eyes in the court room turned to a wee mite of a girl thirteen years of age, followed by a wild-eyed, untidy woman who shuffled up to the desk and there registered herself as Lena's mother.

"What is the charge?" asked the judge.

"Theft and improper guardianship, your honor." The officer, who had brought the child to court, stated that she had been accused by a neighbor of stealing \$2 and of living in an immoral atmosphere.

"Did you steal this money, Lena?"

"Yes sir."

"What became of it?"

"I bought some shoes and something to eat," replied the child.

The mother was then called to the stand, and after much questioning, the following story was revealed: Seven years before she had deserted her husband and the plain little country home he had provided for her on a small Virginia farm, bringing with her her little girl, then six years old. She came to New York to the reputed land of plenty, to become a part of the visionary stories of freedom, good time and abundance, as told by girl friends living in New York on their occasional visits to their homes in the country. On ar-

iving in New York, with its high cost of living, she soon found and adopted the "easiest way." She had gone from bad to worse until she was steeped in depravity.

At the time of Lena's arrest, she was living with her mother in three rooms in a cheap West Side tenement house. Lena stated that there had been three different men living in the flat within ten months, and that she had been told by her mother each was her stepfather. On the refusal of the child to call them father she had been often whipped and half starved. In sheer desperation, she had stolen the \$2 for food and shoes. The judge, after

severely reprimanding the mother about the poor example set for her child, and remarking how fortunate it was that the child had been brought to court before it was too late to save her, committed Lena to an institution for delinquent girls.

This case is no different from many that come before the Children's Court. In this instance, however, little Lena Edwards is a colored child. She was finally turned over to a probation officer. There was no room for her in the training school at Hudson, for the two cottages there providing for colored girls are always crowded. The private institutions refuse to take colored girls in numbers greater than one or two in each institution, and many of them refuse to



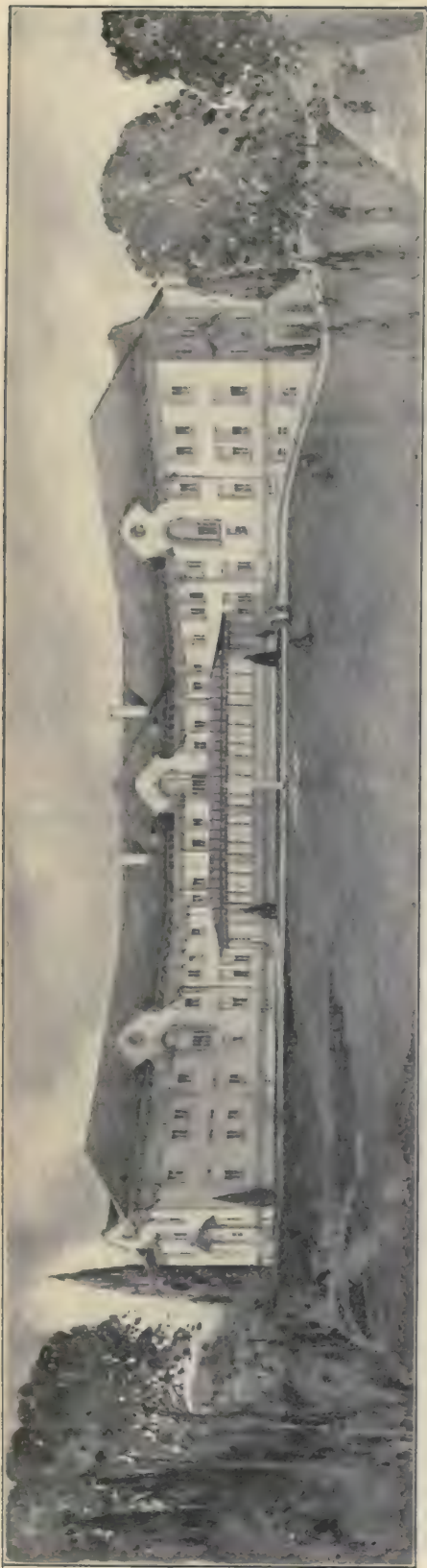
*Drawing by Spencer Beard Nichols*

### "THE SPIRIT OF CHRISTMAS"

The title and cover design of a little book just issued by the Frederick A. Stokes Company, in which Arthur Huntington Gleason, a former member of THE SURVEY staff, and later of *Collier's*, tells what can be made of the great holidays, and how their spirit may be extended over all weeks.

"Christmas," says Mr. Gleason, "is coming, but never yet has it come. It has not fully dawned while still a child's careless laughter is drowned in the dreary noise of machines, while yet a maiden, who might be pondering her merces, is weary in her young days with the heaviness of shame and anxious toil, while yet a mother must needs turn from the child at her breast and the children at her knee. So to our Christmas we will little let in a richer music, like a golden tongued bell turning from a minor to a song of the ultimate triumph."





RECEPTION HOUSE AT BEDFORD LABORATORY OF SOCIAL HYGIENE

This new building at Bedford Reformatory will play an important part in the application of science to the criminal laws with respect to women. It is of hollow tile and concrete construction. The outside will be stucco finished and have a variegated green and mottled purple slate roof. The stairs are of steel and iron with marble treads and platforms. Everything has been done to make the building as fireproof and sanitary as the funds at hand would permit, and yet retain a home-like and attractive appearance, features too often lost sight of in the planning of an institutional building.

take them at all. Therefore, this child had to be returned to her "home" where the conditions were unchanged.

A recent investigation made by the National League on Urban Conditions among Negroes shows that over ninety such cases annually are in need of institutional care. At least sixty of this number are turned back upon the streets, because of lack of room in state institutions or refusal of private institutions to receive them.

To meet this urgent need and to give these unfortunates an opportunity to demonstrate to the community their right to freedom, a committee, under the chairmanship of Elizabeth Walton, has recently opened a financial campaign to establish the Sojourner Truth House. The name is, of course, chosen as a memorial to the great ante-bellum leader of Negro women, who not only preached the gospel of the abolitionists, but did work in the courts among the unfortunate girls of her race. The colored people of the community feel so keenly the effect of turning these girls back on the streets and back into their unwholesome surroundings, that they are struggling to raise among themselves one-tenth of the \$1,500 needed, and have already turned over half of this amount.

#### THE LABORATORY AT BEDFORD, N. Y.

The picture here shown is the architect's drawing of the first building to be erected as part of the laboratory of social hygiene in connection with the New York State Reformatory for Women at Bedford. As previously announced the purpose of this laboratory, of which Katherine B. Davis, head of the reformatory, will be in charge, is to work out a methodology for the use of magistrates in disposing of the cases of girls convicted of crime.

The project which has involved the purchase of eighty acres adjoining the reformatory estate, is being undertaken by the Bureau of Social Hygiene, composed of John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Starr J. Murphy, Paul M. Warburg and Miss Davis. It is regarded as one of the most significant developments of the year in the field of penology. The difficulty experienced by judges in prescribing suitable treatment for wayward girls after conviction has led to the belief that we must know more about the inducing causes—psychological, economic, social—of crime before we can expect reformation to follow punishment. This information the new laboratory, with its departments of psychology, sociology and nervous pathology, is designed to give.

The highest point on the site selected is occupied by a house which will be used by the staff for living quarters and for part of the research work. On a plateau a little lower in ele-

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, May 18, page 285.



vation the reception house shown here will be erected. It is expected that it will be in use by the middle of next summer. One of the features of the laboratory will be the quarantine section. Here each girl will first enter the house by a separate entrance, be given a bath, and be examined by the resident physician. Her clothing will be sent at once to the laundry (which has a direct connection with the quarantine section) to be disinfected and then kept for her until she is discharged. She will be given fresh, clean clothing and assigned to her room, where she will be under observation and kept apart from the others until her quarantine time is over. Even her meals will be served in her room during this period. There are sixteen rooms in the quarantine section and it is expected that each girl will be kept in quarantine for two weeks.

The general plan of the building, which has been designed by Franklin B. Ware and Arthur Ware, architects of New York, is that of the letter U with its ends spread apart, the court thus formed facing the south, and insuring a maximum amount of sun-light. There is a sun parlor fifteen feet wide and sixty feet long. The building will be two stories in height and will contain fifty-one bedrooms for committed women, a room for the head matron, three rooms for ward matrons, six officers' rooms, one guest's room, an office, visitors' parlor, officers' parlor, officers' dining-room, general dining-room, kitchen and laundry, and general recreation room.

#### THE SOCIALISTS AND THE OLD LINE UNIONISTS

For two days during the recent convention of the American Federation of Labor, controversy raged between the so-called radical and conservative elements in that organization. On November 19, Frank L. Mulholland of Toledo, Ohio, one of the attorneys for the defendants in the Danbury Hatters' case that has been in the courts since 1902, brought out in a vigorous speech his interpretation of the significance to organized labor of the recent decision of a United States court affirming the award that had been previously made against the Hatters' Union. As an indication that certain employers have been quick to recognize in the Sherman anti-trust law as so interpreted the possibility of a new weapon in their conflicts with organized labor it was stated that in West Virginia, where a strike is now in progress, suit has been brought against the United Mine Workers for \$750,000 damages on the charge of interfering with the business and damaging the property of the mine operators.

This, of course, had nothing directly to do with any controversy between the Socialists and the non-Socialists of the convention, but as the discussion became general over the relation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law to organized labor, delegates all over the hall began to address the convention, contending that here was indisputable proof that now organized labor must go into politics. The Taff-Vale decision in England was cited as the turning-point in the policy of British trade unionism. When the Association of Railway Servants was obliged by a court to pay a very large sum in damages to a railway company against whom they had been on strike, organized labor went into politics and returned forty-one members to Parliament the next year, who were instrumental in securing the passage of the Trades Disputes Act, which exempted unions from being sued in such cases. This, argued the delegates, pointed the way for the trade unionists of America, and showed that only through united political action and the election of labor representatives to Congress would they be able to free themselves from the imminent danger in which they declared themselves to be placed by these recent interpretations of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law.

It was evident in all of this discussion that most of the delegates who were advocating a resort to politics belonged to the Socialist contingent in the convention. Less was being said regarding politics by the old-line trade union delegates. For the most part, they sat in silence, but finally the pressure became too great and an outburst came from D. A. Hayes, president of the Glass Bottle Blowers' Union and member of the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor.

"Why don't they come out in the open and say that they mean the Socialist Party," cried Hayes, "when that is exactly what every one of them does mean? We know that they do not endorse the action of the American Federation of Labor and that every one of them is acting contrary to the spirit of the Federation and in defiance to the principles that have been enunciated by this body."

This started the fireworks. The whole Hayes family forthwith got into action—Max Hayes, of the Typographical Union and Frank Hayes of the United Mine Workers rose to defend their position as Socialists and Federationists as well. Finally, the excitement grew to fever heat when President Gompers left the chair to deliver a bitter denunciatory speech addressed directly to the Socialist members of the convention, accusing them of bad faith, of failure to support workmen candidates for office when they had the opportunity, and of carrying on a warfare



against the policies of the Federation. Drawing himself up to his full five feet three inches, the long time leader of the American Federation of Labor brought his invective up to a stirring climax at the same time that he brought his fist down on the table with such force as to upset a water pitcher, thus easing the tension while the valuable papers upon the desk were being rescued from the flood.

#### "ONE BIG UNION" OR THE CRAFTS

But it was the next day that the real fight came between the radicals and the conservatives. The delegates of the United Mine Workers, under instructions from their organization, brought in a resolution committing the American Federation of Labor to an endorsement of industrial organization instead of the present organization by crafts. Industrial organization means "one big union" in an industry, including in its membership all of the workers in that industry. The present craft unions on the other hand are organized along distinct trade or craft lines, as blacksmiths, molders, pattern makers, etc. At the present time the mine workers and the brewers are organized industrially, and that is also the scheme of organization of the Industrial Workers of the World, the militant body altogether outside of the American Federation of Labor, which conducted the Lawrence strike last winter.

The proposed resolutions were referred to the committee on education which brought in a majority and minority report. The majority report reaffirmed the present attitude of the Federation and re-indorsed the scheme of craft organization. The minority report read as follows:

"That where practicable one organization should have jurisdiction over an industry, and where, in the judgment of the majority of the men actually involved, it is not practicable, then the committee recommends that they organize and federate in a department and work together in such manner as to protect, as far as possible, the interests of all connecting branches."

During the entire day the conflict raged over this resolution for under the rules of the convention the minority report had to be considered first and voted on. There were staunch supporters of that report, and they were among the ablest speakers present. Chief among them were the representatives of the United Mine Workers and the Western Federation of Miners; some of them party Socialists, others of them anti-Socialists, but equally ardent advocates of industrial organization.

One of the most impressive things in the entire convention was the kind of men representing the United Mine Workers of America. Seldom in any gathering, other than one composed of men accustomed to public speaking, would you en-

counter a single delegation so capable of effective argument upon the floor as were these men of the mines. There was John Mitchell, calm, deliberate and polished; there was John P. White of Iowa, the giant president of this organization of 380,000 men. Standing over six feet, graceful in his bearing, apparently conscious of unlimited reserve force, he made a most effective argument before the convention. There was Frank Hayes, sincere, direct and desperately in earnest; there was John Walker of Illinois, fiery, enthusiastic, carried away with his subject; and there was Duncan McDonald with the face and bearing of a Sunday school superintendent, arguing with utmost calm but with tremendous sincerity in favor of the industrial form of organization. These were ably seconded by Joseph Cannon of the Western Federation of Miners and by others on the floor of the convention.

On the other side, standing for the traditional policy of the American Federation of Labor and against all change, there was the united front of the executive council, the old war horses of the movement, Samuel Gompers, John B. Lennon, James O'Connell, James Duncan, J. F. Valentine. They hailed from an earlier stage of the labor struggle than their opponents. Most of them are gray-haired. Some of them were national figures in the labor movement at a time when half the delegates in the convention were in knickerbockers. They could recall the days when the Knights of Labor organized on industrial lines and long since wrested from leadership was the commanding labor organization of the country and they, with a handful of seceders were holding conventions under the name of the Federation of Organized Trades and Labor Unions. All of these older leaders took the floor to oppose this change from the form of organization in behalf of which they had fought for thirty years.

The most striking figure on the floor appearing for the maintenance of the old order was, however, Andrew Furuseth, president of the Seamen's Union. "I always think of a Viking when I see Furuseth," said a visitor to the convention. "I do not know what his nationality may be, whether Swede, Norwegian or Dane, but none of them seems really to describe this man. I find myself instinctively calling him Norseman. There is something in that old word suggesting all the spirit of valorous sea fights. This is the sort of virile independence that you see in Andrew Furuseth."

There was no man on the floor of the convention treated with greater respect. No one could hear him speak and doubt his sincerity. He feared that the new industrial organization that was being proposed was going to be destructive of individual liberty. He feared that in the rule of a thoughtless majority, in a great aggregation of



workmen of diverse interests, the spirit of a little group whose interests might be different from those of the others would be altogether crushed and their interests forgotten. "This proposition," said Furuseth, "is one of the most cruel, heartless, bitterly unjust proposals that has ever been advanced upon the floor of any convention of the American Federation of Labor." One of his speeches against the trend toward what he regards as industrial tyranny he brought to a close with words not to be forgotten. "I do not care," he said, "who wears the crown, whether someone else wears it or whether you wear it. I hate a crown."

All day long the argument went on; the convention adjourned for lunch and returned to the fray again. Dramatic incidents were not lacking and a physical encounter upon the floor of the convention was narrowly averted; and yet one could not but be impressed by the calmness, the cool-headedness that prevailed throughout, especially on the part of those representing the new order in American labor circles, the radicals who were fighting for the changed policy. When the vote was taken, the old order was sustained by a vote of about two to one and yet there was no one upon the floor of the convention more cheerful than were the radicals who had all day led the fight. They had not expected anything but a reverse on this question of industrial organization. They were merely laying the foundations, they said, for what they hope will be ultimate success.

#### CUTS IN THE NEW YORK CITY BUDGET

Civic and charitable organizations and private individuals throughout New York are protesting against the cuts made by the aldermen in the budget for 1913. More than half a million dollars relating largely to the social service work of the city has been stricken from the appropriations. Some of the cuts are \$20,000 for a municipal reference library, \$10,000 for the standardization of salaries and \$225,000 for special teachers in the schools. The Department of Health also loses a big sum. The mayor who can still veto the reductions has received many letters asking him to restore the items eliminated.

#### ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NEW YORK CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY

The annual meeting of the New York Charity Organization Society, on the evening of December 10, will be devoted exclusively to the work and plans of the New York School of Philanthropy. Addresses will be given by Director Edward T. Devine, Porter R. Lee, Dean F. J. Woodbridge of Columbia University and Robert W. de Forest, president of the society.

## EDITORIAL GRIST

### THE CONFIDENTIAL EXCHANGE

EDWARD T. DEVINE

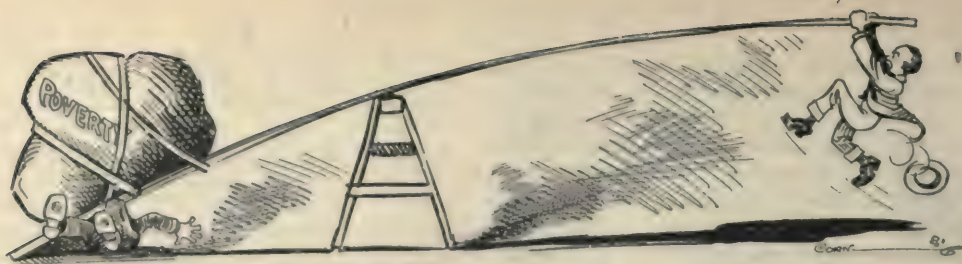
The appearance of Miss Byington's excellent pamphlet,<sup>1</sup> describing the method, purposes and spirit of the confidential exchange, gives suitable occasion to call attention to the remarkable progress which is taking place just now in the charity organization movement as a whole, and especially in its original and most characteristic feature.

Organized charity means several distinct although closely related things. One is that all efficient help is and must be based on full and verified knowledge of the pertinent facts. This is the original *survey* idea. Relief, in order to satisfy either the intellect or the emotional nature, must look all around the situation. To the superficial eye the distress to be relieved always presents itself as much simpler than it really is. Relief must dig beneath the appearance of things to the reality. Investigation need no longer apologize or explain. The most "sentimental" relief-giver, and the most scornful critic of "scientific methods," now pay the homage of imitation to this part of the program of organized charity. Any one who does not "investigate," "keep a record," and stoutly profess a full appreciation of the importance of getting all the essential facts, is very hard to find. In this respect performance of course still lags sadly behind profession, even in some so-called charity organization societies. Families are receiving relief who have never been seen at home. "Homeless" men are receiving relief whose families would be interested to learn of their whereabouts. Children are supported in institutions pending the time when they will be old enough to earn something for parents who are not meeting their parental responsibilities. And all kinds of blundering interference in family affairs goes on more or less everywhere simply because neighborly persons desirous of helping, and even paid visitors employed to help, do not yet realize what things need to be known as a basis for sound decisions, and how to get that information without loss of time or injury to the persons concerned.

A second thing which organized charity means is the co-ordination of social activity in the community. To prevent waste from overlapping; to stretch out meagre resources so as to fill the gaps; to increase the effectiveness of each by bringing them into right relations with one another.

<sup>1</sup>The Confidential Exchange, a Form of Social Cooperation. By Margaret F. Byington. Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation. Price 5 cents.





INDIVIDUAL GOOD WILL—

other; to put the experience and the ideas of each more readily at the disposal of all; and to do all this not in a superior or dictatorial spirit, but in a co-operative, fraternal, democratic spirit of mutual service, this has been the aim of organized charity on its social side, just as adequate relief and prevention based on accurate knowledge has been its aim in relation to individual distress.

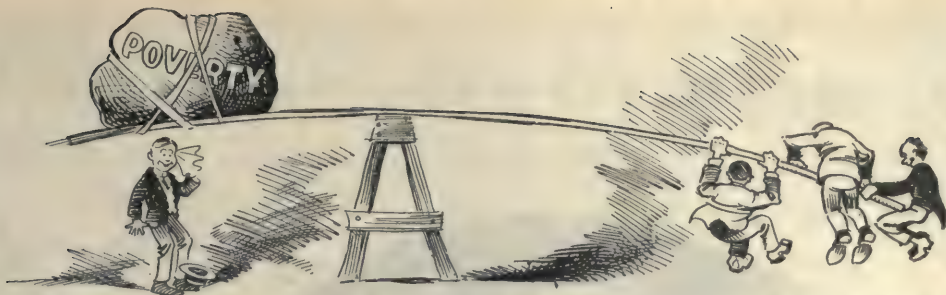
The confidential exchange represents both of these ideals; but it is essentially a very modest and obvious piece of mechanism. Like census enumerators and all expert statisticians, those who have been responsible for the exchanges have discovered that their success is apt to be in inverse ratio to the elaborateness of their program. That is to say, it is better to ask only for the information actually required for the purpose and not to expect a piece of mechanism which is admirably adapted to one purpose to perform others which may turn out, as in this case, to be incompatible with the end in view. The confidential exchange begins to do what is expected of it when it ceases to be also a record of family histories. The exchange is a card index; and in order to perform its proper function it must remain as impersonal as a telephone exchange. Its function is to enable each person or agency who has occasion to give relief, or perform any kind of social service for a particular family, to find out quickly what other persons or agencies, if any, have a similar interest or have had experience with the same family. The exchange has this information in its card index simply because others have made similar inquiries. Over the telephone or by mail or in a personal interview at the exchange each inquirer is informed as to what others have known the family in question. The inquirer may do what he likes with this information. Generally, if he is co-operative and considerate of the best interests of those whom he seeks to aid, he will get into communication with them. This will probably save the family a new and unnecessary investigation, because the previous inquirer probably already has the pertinent information and may already have made an adequate plan into which the new ally can fit with his particular contribution. In order to fulfill its complete function, however, the confidential exchange has

one more simple but obvious task. It must inform those who were previously interested that this new inquiry has been made. Some one of them may have special reasons for getting into touch with any additional resources, or to know of any new appeal which is made. Like the last inquirer they may or may not use the clue, but at least it is in their hands.

The confidential exchange which is conducted by the Associated Charities of Boston is very properly selected by Miss Byington for special description, for the reason that it is already more widely used than any other and because it has developed naturally and gradually from the original registration bureau of that society. In many other cities, however, the idea has now taken hold, sometimes as a part of the local charity organization society and sometimes under the joint responsibility of several agencies. The former method seems more likely to succeed as it fixes definite financial and administrative responsibility; and the complete separation of the confidential exchange from the society's registration bureau, in which are kept the records of its own investigations and treatment, removes any obstacle which might arise from a reluctance to "register cases." When the only purpose of an inquiry, and the only possible result of it, is to put two or more agencies which are mutually interested in a particular problem into mutual relations with one another, there can ordinarily be no valid reason for hesitating to make the inquiry; and experience is showing that in fact there is no such hesitation.

The present rapid growth of such confidential exchanges is but indicative of the new spirit and energy of the whole charity organization movement. New societies are constantly being formed and old societies are taking on new life. The principles for which the societies have contended are winning wider acceptance and are justifying themselves in new applications. The ideas of inculcating self help and self-reliance; of discrimination in relief; of personal and family rehabilitation, of giving to all a fair opportunity and then expecting them to be fully responsible for the use which they make of that opportunity, of developing strength rather than merely ensuring comfort, of seeking the underlying causes of distress whether they are inborn or environ-





*From the catalogue of the Louisville Child Welfare Exhibit.*

—AND ORGANIZED CHARITY

mental, of co-ordination in social service, of training for efficiency, of giving first place to prevention, of thoroughness in investigation, of the making of definite plans, and of adequate relief—these are the ideas of organized charity, and they are making their way. Of course none of them was invented by the charity organization societies and of course none of them is a monopoly of these societies. But to promote and apply them in the field of charity, and to furnish the means by which all people of good will may carry them into practical effect, was the original purpose and is still the reason for the existence of such societies. The more widely these ideas are accepted and acted upon the better the societies will be pleased. No one need fear an action for infringement of copyright for preaching or practicing the principles of organized charity—nor is jealousy likely to be aroused by any claim that some other institution had discovered this or that idea long before the first charity organization society was founded. Perhaps the best way of showing a genuine interest at the present moment in the co-ordination of social work, and the prevention of waste in philanthropy, is by helping to develop and to secure the widest possible use of the community card index.

## SOCIAL HYMNS

SIMON N. PATTEN

University of Pennsylvania

The statement of a new social need in a recent number of *THE SURVEY* has brought forth responses.<sup>1</sup> There seem to be some who, like myself, want an emotional expression of what to them is a holy cause. Several songs have been received; and I have no doubt others will be forthcoming. I have suggested to the editors that we have a special number in which social poets can have a hearing. This plan will be carried through if enough material is offered to make it worth while.

I am not a poet and thus have little right to

<sup>1</sup>Wanted: a New Social Worker, *THE SURVEY*, November 2, 1912.

criticise, but it seems to me that poets fail by taking too complex a theme. Songs must be clear and expressive to take hold of the imagination. Nor do I think they should all be on the wrongs of humanity; nor need they emphasize the hopelessness of earlier ages. We have had enough of "The shades of night are falling fast." It would be far truer to sing of the beams of light that are coming fast. Why should we not look ahead, instead of backward at what has been.

One thought I expressed has not been followed up in the responses received. Perhaps its import was not understood. Good themes come to all of us in moments of inspiration. If each of us told how we see the coming events in such moments, we could direct some poet's thought into right channels. In a recent poetic contest at Oxford, the entrance of King Richard into Jerusalem was set as the theme. Can we not get nearer home than that? I shall suggest a theme in the hope that others following suit may turn the thought of some poet in the right direction.

During the great meteoric display some eighty years ago, a sailor fixed his eye on the north star in the belief that he was safe so long as it remained in its place. Finally, he thought he saw it start on its downward path. Thinking the end of the world had come he fell on his knees begging for mercy.

So runs the story. Are we not like the sailor? In the darkness and bewilderment of past ages some north star was our guide. To this we cling when the light of day is making it dimmer and finally will cause it to disappear. Should we, bemoaning its disappearance, sink in terror at the loss of our former guide when the conveying beams indicate so plainly the rising sun. Could not some one, bidding an affectionate farewell to the good old north star, turn our attention to the coming dawn? The "Golden City" with its ruby paved streets might also be replaced by the future city where we would all like to dwell.

Somehow or other all poets want to revive the past. Is it impossible to turn them about so that they see what the future has to offer? If we can our cause is won.



## THE SHOP-EARLY CAMPAIGN IS IN FULL SWING

Buy your Christmas presents  
EARLY—early in the day and  
early in December. That  
will be your biggest gift of  
the holidays to the  
workers behind the  
counters and on the  
delivery wagons.

### THE SHOPPER

*Cartoon by J. E. Whiting  
of the South Bend Tribune.*

A shopper there was and he dared delay  
(Even as you and I)

His Christmas buying full many a day,  
We told him to hasten, to speed on his way  
But the shopper he smiled and he said "Nay,  
nay!"  
(Even as you and I.)

A shopper there was and his clothes were rent  
(Even as you and I.)

'Twas Christmas eve ere he shopping went—  
With the precious moments all but spent,  
But a shopper must follow his natural bent.  
(Even as you and I.)

It isn't a shame and he's to blame  
For the "stinging" so proper and good.  
It was coming to him and we know why  
(And even he may now know why)  
Though he never had understood.

Consumers' leagues, women's clubs, department stores, labor unions, newspapers, street-car companies, poets, cartoonists, salespeople and shoppers all play a part in this philanthropic hue and cry of the holidays.

The central publicity work is done by THE SURVEY'S press bureau in co-operation with the National Consumers' League.





THREE SONS OF DALMATIA

## THE SERVO-CROATS OF MANHATTAN

MARIE SABSOVICH ORENSTEIN

Photographs by Jessie Tarbox Beals

*[From the zadrugas of one of the oldest hill countries of Europe to the co-operative flats of New York's Middle West Side; from the Balkans to Manhattan and back again to take part in the common assault of the allies against the Turks—that is the swing of the human pendulum which we call immigration and the world-wide search for work.]*

*So it is that the campaign of the allies against the Mussulman lifts into timely interest a community of New York freight handlers, who were one of the racial groups studied by the Bureau of Social Research of the New York School of Philanthropy. Mrs. Orenstein made the study of this group as a fellow of the bureau under the immediate supervision of the associate director, Pauline Goldmark.—Ed.]*

**“W**ALK along Eleventh Avenue after working hours and if you can conjure away the ugly, ill-smelling street with the noisy freight trains pulling through it, you may imagine yourself in the old country. All about you, you will hear the ‘Slavish’ tongue spoken.” This was the reply given me as to where his compatriots lived by a Servian business man who had resided fourteen years in the very heart of this Servo-Croatian settlement.

To their neighbors, the Servo-Croats of the Middle West Side are a puzzling group of people, working for the most part on the water front, mingling hardly at all with their neighbors, and commonly known as “Austrians” or “Polacks.” “Who are they?” “Where do they come from?” are the questions asked by almost everybody to whom these people are mentioned. For, though to well-informed Americans, certain Slavic peoples are fairly well-known, as notably Russians and Poles, few, even now when the newspaper headlines are carrying the names of the Balkan allies, can define the racial make-up of a Croat, the political standing of a Bosnian, the national status of a Montenegrin. The origin of these newcomers, their nationality, religion, language and customs are obscure and not understood. We are for the most part in the dark as to what their

relation is to that “most complicated social mosaic of all modern nations, Austria-Hungary.”

This Servo-Croatian colony in New York is situated along Eleventh Avenue from Thirty-fourth to Forty-eighth Streets and on the adjacent cross streets between Tenth and Eleventh Avenues. It is largely concentrated on Eleventh Avenue, where from Fortieth to Forty-sixth Street every tenement house has one or more of these tenants. Most of the Servo-Croatian business establishments are to be found here, and along the water front the men find work. As early as 1888, a small number of Servo-Croats were living on the fringe of the district, West Fifty-ninth, Sixtieth, and Thirty-third Streets. As the colony grew, it gravitated from both ends toward Forty-second Street. From 1904 to 1906 it grew by leaps and bounds, fed by immigrants who crowded into the country in response to the opportunities offered by the era of prosperity. The colony had reached its largest dimensions when the crash of 1907 precipitated a large exodus.

Since our group of Servo-Croats is one which is contributing its quota to the victorious armies, current interest is lent to their relation to the life about them here in the new world, and to the struggle in the old against Mohammedan misrule



on the one hand, and on the other the lust for territory among the great powers.

Perhaps no chapter in the recent history of Austria-Hungary more clearly epitomizes her policy toward the Slavic-Balkan states than that which recites the events leading to the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina. Desiring to detach this province from Servia, of which kingdom it had for centuries been a part, the empire sought to secure the aid of Croatia by promising to her the annexation of the coveted territory. Four years of struggle and bloodshed followed. The attitude of many Croats toward this dark period of civil strife is expressed in the words of an immigrant who said: "My reason for coming to America was the fight over Bosnia-Herzegovina. How could I, a Slav, shoot a Servian? We are one people, though now our religions are different. At one time we were all of the *Stara Vëra* [old faith, Greek Orthodox]. To shoot a Schwab [a scornful nickname for Austrians] is another story. They are our enemies, strangers to our blood; how can we side with them!"

### *The Balkan Mosaic*

To understand the racial, cultural and political differences which overlay this common stock, Croats and Serbs, it is necessary to go back to the seventh century settlement of this people on the Balkan peninsula, their present home. The Servians, or Srbin as they called themselves, who were then living among the Carpathian Mountains to the north of the Danube, found themselves hard-pressed by Asiatic hordes, and they moved southward into what was then a depopulated part of the Byzantine empire. That division which settled along the Adriatic slope called themselves after the mountains which had been their home. Carpati, Harvati, Hrvati, Horvats are among the forms their name has assumed. The distinction between these people, known to us as Croats, and the Servians of the more central parts of the peninsula, began to be drawn by early Byzantine chroniclers and was well-established by the twelfth century, though it corresponds to no real linguistic or racial difference.

Distinct religious tenets and frequently opposing political aspirations divide these two groups; for the Servians, settled mostly in the central part of the peninsula, have from the beginning been under the sway of Greek orthodoxy, while the Croats early came under the influence of western culture with its inseparable accompaniment of Roman Catholicism. The Austrian and Magyar rulers, who have imposed their dominion upon these as well as other Slavic peoples, have proved but too skillful in setting brother against brother to their own advantage. The common language, the Servo-Croatian, is a Slavic language derived, with

Russian, Polish, Bulgarian, etc., from a common mother tongue. It has a number of dialects. Croats write in Roman letters, but the Servians employ the Cyrillic alphabet based on the Runic script, which was introduced by Greek orthodox missionaries as far back as the ninth century.

In view of these differences in religious affiliation and in the form adopted for the written language among Servians and Croats, it is worth while perhaps to distinguish even those Balkan countries in which each people predominates. The Servians are to be found largely in Montenegro, Novi Bazar, Turkey, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Servia, and Banat-Batchka; the Croats live mainly along the Adriatic coast in Dalmatia and its islands, Istria, Croatia, Slavonia, and in small settlements elsewhere. The two groups, however, interpenetrate each others' indicated boundaries.

The fact that the Servo-Croats are thus distributed among so many states, distinct not only geographically but politically, inevitably gives rise to confusion unless one bears in mind that all fall in one or the other of the two major groups; and the minor designations, Dalmatians, Istrians, and so forth, have reference to territorial distinction only. The present-day political complexion of these lands—originally independent countries or kingdoms—is indicated in the following summary:

- A. Independent Servo-Croatian lands.
  - Kingdom of Servia,
  - Principality of Montenegro.
- B. Servo-Croatian lands under foreign domination.
  - Bosnia } Austria-Hungary.
  - Herzegovina }
  - Dalmatia } Austria.
  - Istria }
  - Croatia-Slavonia } Hungary.
  - Banat-Batchka }
  - Old Servia—Turkey.

Since two-thirds of these Servo-Croatian lands are under the dominion of Austria, Hungary or the dual monarchy, it is not surprising that their emigrants, in despair of making their race or nationality clear, speak of themselves as simply "Austrians" or "Hungarians."

### *A Man's Colony*

Thus it was that of the 674 individuals included in our West Side study, only six came from Croatia proper and six from Servia. Of the rest 411, or 60 per cent, gave Dalmatia and its islands as their place of nativity; Herzegovina contributed 127; Istria 47; other Balkan states 82; while 42 were born in the United States.

Children or women were scarcely more than incidental factors in the community life stud-



ied. In the early days practically the whole population was composed of men. Not over ten families would have been found fifteen years ago. The entire settlement lived in household groups managed by hired male cooks. But with the increased immigration of 1904 women and children began to come. Yet even now the old residents who place the Servo-Croatian population of the district at 2,500 or 3,000 put the number of families among them at from 150 to 200. Of the households studied 573 individuals; or 85 per cent, were non-family men. Only 25 per cent of the men were married; less than 10 per cent were living with their families, the remainder having left their wives and children in Europe.

The early age at which single men arrive and the scarcity of their countrywomen, the fact that they have come primarily to save money, return to Europe, and there marry; economic stress and the difficulty of supporting a family in this country are the reasons they do not marry here.

Of the entire group 473 or 82.5 per cent, come here between the ages of seventeen and forty-five, when they are of greatest productive and economic value to us. And it was the economic motive which in the answers received from 560 of the 573 men was the predominant one in causing them to emigrate. One man out of ten, to be sure, said he wanted to escape military service, but in half of these cases the desire "to earn" was also given.

The complete absence of political oppression as a cause of emigration among this group of men is not to be inferred from the fact that, (except for the cases in which avoidance of military service was mentioned), its rate was not explicitly stated. Exorbitant taxes everywhere play a special part in making the lot of the agriculturist hard, vying with natural difficulties, such as a sterile soil, fluctuation and instability of crops, and the ravages of phylloxera among the vineyards. Still it is of interest to note that in no case, so far as the writer can recall, was it said that actual hunger or political oppression had threatened the life of a man and driven him to our shores.

Stalwart, powerfully built without being heavy, these men mature early. I saw a boy of thirteen who was as full grown as the average American youth of eighteen years. Of exceptional height were those from Dalmatia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. "They are among the tallest men of Europe, and not only tall but sturdy and markedly fine in carriage."

Endowed though they are with rugged strength, a few years in America brings unmistakable signs of exhausting, strenuous labor and unsanitary housing. Often did I see men with lined, tired faces, bankrupts in health. Espe-

cially true was it of those who worked at night, for they could not be thoroughly rested by sleeping during the day. "I am always tired when I go to bed and when I get up," complained one tall, wan man. They, as well as others of us, are deeply impressed with the American employer's indifference to the health of his employees.

These Servo-Croats have native intelligence and shrewdness, though little education. Recruited mainly from the peasantry, they are solid rather than stolid. "The Serb, though tenacious of purpose, is not dogged. The surface of his resolutions appears to rise and subside, but the depths are changeless."

These people are liberal borrowers, and because honor has been deeply inbred in them a man feels it incumbent upon himself to make good not only his own, but his father's or brother's debt. It is quite a wonted occurrence for a "greenhorn" to be housed and helped with money by relatives or friends, for as soon as he gets a job he repays them.

Sharing the generic characteristic of all Slavs, credulity lurks somewhere in them, but their long subjection to other rulers than their own has taught them suspicion of outsiders. This distrustfulness they extend to Americans, at whose hands they have, for the most part, suffered exploitation and deceit. When once their confidence is gained, however, they unbend and their hospitality is most liberal and charming. It was in rare instances that in the course of my investigations I was not treated to some drink—the men often running down to get soda water for me—or invited to partake of a meal. "But you have not yet visited with us," said one delightful host. "Your glass is still half-full."

#### *The Drustvo or Co-operative Household*

The households visited have been characterized as groups of non-family men because, barring forty-five, the men whether married or single are living away from their natural families. They dwell, however, in homogeneous groups, coming usually from one town or from neighboring villages, are of the same religious faith, and frequently are related or knew one another before coming to this country. "Well, they are not exactly boarders," said Mrs. — of the six men living with her, "for they are mine and my husband's cousins and nephews." In another household of seven living in co-operative fashion one of the men explained: "We all come from Unie, where we played together as children and knew one another's families well. We would not take in a stranger."

The co-operative household, or *Drustvo*, where common expenditures for living necessities are borne equally by each member of a group prevails among these people. These are of two types





ELBOW-ROOM OF A NEW CONTINENT

Twelve men sleep in two shifts in this room. By day, eight men sleep in the four double beds. Four others turn in in their places at night. Size of room, 12x12x10.

of household—those with and those without a “boss” or “cook” who is usually, though not invariably, hired by the group. Both should be distinguished from the boarding-house. Under the first type, the house boss receives from each member of the group \$2 to \$3 a month, as the case may be, for his labor; that is, cooking, cleaning, and laundry.

The position of the house boss, especially when he is an older man, is frequently that of sage and counselor—who is posted on all the latest doings and gossip in the colony—and of banker as well. The number in each house appears to be limited so the men have that security which is the unfulfilled dream of most wage-earners. “To-morrow never frightens me,” said a grizzly-haired sailor, who had long passed his fiftieth year. “If I do not get along with this crowd there are a half dozen other *Bratstvos* where I would be welcomed.”

When the house boss is a married man, he has a regular occupation and is considered a formal member of the group, contributing his share to the household expenditures. His wife performs the house-boss function, does the house work and thus largely supplements the family income. When there are children they are fed and housed without any extra charge being made to either parent, the group as a whole bearing the expense. This was very pointedly demonstrated in a household where there were four men, besides the house boss, his wife, and four children. “And does the father not pay a little more than the rest of you?” was asked. “No, why should he? Eh, what do the children then eat?”—and in his reply could be detected quite as much amazement at the question as the interrogator felt at the response. The house boss is entrusted with the keeping of accounts. Rent and

service are constant items of expenditure, but of food-stuffs, gas, and coal there must be careful reckoning. The methods of bookkeeping are crude. A grocery book is kept, in which is entered the date, amount, and cost of purchase, and a duplicate account is retained by the grocer or butcher. Coal is also bought on credit. I recall seeing Brakich, shoemaker, stationer, house boss, ice and coal man, all in one, bring a large sack of coal into a flat and then place a cross on the calendar, under the date. The entire group get together on the first of the month; accounts are gone over, verified, and the cost of the food, rent, heat, light, and service equally divided among the regular members.

“And do you not have a great deal of difficulty about getting along in your accounts and payments?” was the question often asked, for on the rock of money disputes many friendships have gone to pieces. With one exception, the reply was always in the negative. As several men explained: “But we are accustomed to co-operative living at home, and it comes quite natural to us even in the new country. Boarding like Americans would be hard. To live in a room you have a clean place, but you come home and four bare walls greet you. You eat, not what you want, but what is given you. It is like prison life, so lonely, so bad. Our way of living is more like home.” The last few phrases strike a chord which shows how deeply ingrained is the feeling for family life among these people.

In the co-operative household without a house boss, we have life on a more truly communistic basis. Not only are the expenses shared in common, but the work of the house is done jointly. Domestic ethics, as established and enforced in some groups, requires that the first man arriving from work cook the supper, others assisting as they come; whoever is finished with the meal begins clearing away the dishes, and thus the rest of the house work is equitably apportioned among the men. Sometimes a man who is more expert in cooking is assigned to do it permanently. The men find that they can manage housework and cooking without difficulty, especially if some are on short night shifts. Surely this manner of living invites even more opportunities for disagreement than the household with a house boss, and yet one youth expressed the general feeling when he said: “Why, how can we quarrel about such things? Are we not all related?”

Such boarding-houses as make up the third type of Servo-Croatian housekeeping arrangements differ little from boarding-houses as we all know them, except perhaps that boarders pay by the month and their laundry is invariably included. The spirit, however, is quite different, for there is a great deal of friendliness and in-



terest among the men in these groups, and between the men and their boarding-house master and mistress.

This mode of living in co-operative households, now very much modified by life and industry in America, and customs and conditions that prevail under a different civilization, must be traced back to the *Zadruga* (literally translated "association"), the communal household or "house community" of the South Slavs, which has been so well described by Professor Balch.<sup>1</sup>

The influence of such community life upon the character of its members was of necessity very marked. There was an absence of petty

The food is nutritious, wholesome, and often very well prepared. "We work hard and must eat well. It is cheaper to spend money this way than give it to the doctor," an astute house boss said to me when I had complimented him on his large, well-browned roast and potatoes. Gala occasions are observed by feasts and then food bills rise 50 to 100 per cent. Frequent comments on the high cost of living were heard.

As compared to other inhabitants of the district, the Servo-Croats pay the lowest per capita room rent but the highest actual rent. Their household groups are far larger than the ordinary tenement family, and they therefore hire



A TYPICAL DRUSTVO WITH MALE HOUSE BOSS

After ten hours' hard work handling freight these men, almost without exception, bathe and don clean clothing before sitting down to their evening meal.

wrangling. Co-operation and toleration have been the heritage of these people for centuries. It is to be regretted if, as they become more Americanized, they lose many of the qualities which are as unique as they are wholesome and charming.

Half of the group interrogated used about one-third of their earnings on bare living. Drinks, which are always taken with meals, are not included in this estimate, for each man buys his own. The wife of a saloon-keeper said that she charged every boarder ten cents a day extra for beer.

<sup>1</sup>Emily Greene Balch: *Our Slavic Fellow Citizens*, page 161. New York, Charities Publication Committee, 1910.

flats with the most room. In several instances a group hire two and three flats to accommodate their members. Most of them were found in the old "railroad" type of tenement, which has more and larger rooms than the dumb-bell type that succeeded it. Overcrowding and the rather unnatural manner of living away from the normal family would make one expect to find dirt and slovenliness running riot in these flats. Yet actual investigation dispels such notions.

Of course, there were households where rough plank benches, a table, and a hot, smoky stove were the only kitchen furnishings; where lines of soiled clothes hung over dreary beds; where



filth and roaches were so rampant that it was appalling to believe that people really lived there. Yet it was surprising how few dirty or untidy homes were seen. Many of the flats were, needless to say, simply furnished, but with few exceptions the American luxuries, stationary washtubs and sinks, were found in every department. In some cases a household had its own toilet.

Many of these people, when in Europe, though accustomed to primitive housing with all of its implied drawbacks, lived in separate houses.

present housing conditions the children of Servo-Croats born here can grow up to be as robust and healthy as their parents.

It would be little short of a miracle if in this day and age so large a group of men, who are either unmarried or living away from their families, should be wholly moral. "Why marry?" said a coarse, handsome fellow. "Today I have an American wife, tomorrow a German, the following day an Irish girl." Many undoubtedly frequent disorderly houses and prostitutes



TYPICAL MIDDLE WEST SIDE TENEMENT STREET

A Sunday afternoon scene on Eleventh Avenue. The store to the left is a pool room, where many seek recreation after the day's work. Both here and in the cigar store some of the men receive their mail and are enlightened on matters purely American.

Some have lived in huts—shared with their goats and chickens—where the windows are "so small that it makes an eclipse of the sun if a hen flies in," but where all day long the men, women, and children could fill their lungs with the fresh air of the fields. In this city the women and children are indoors nearly all day, and although most of the men have open-air employment, life on the streets of New York does not tend to develop the recuperative powers as does life in the open country of Croatia or the flower-covered earth of Istria. All things considered, it seems hardly possible that under

come to them.' At one time certain Croatian saloons kept women.

Men interviewed were always emphatic on the point that the women who cook for households never compromise themselves and are greatly respected. One who never spared his countrymen said he had no objection to his wife and sister sleeping in the same house with a *Drustvo*. If there were one hundred men instead of the actual fourteen, he would have no qualms, "for rough and wild as they are, they will not touch a decent woman, but hold her in esteem." From personal observation, which however was not



very extensive, it would appear that the relations between the women and men in the households are wholesome and friendly.

Many of the men are heavy drinkers, having been accustomed to wine from babyhood. The habit of gambling is steadily gaining upon the colony. Pool rooms and the back rooms of saloons are haunted by gamblers far into the small hours of the morning.

During two or three months of the winter of 1911-12 there was an epidemic of disorderliness. Feuds and quarrels among the Servo-Croats were fought out, particularly on Saturday nights, and saloons and pool rooms were converted into scenes of riot. Firearms were used, and there was danger of the passer-by on the avenue being struck by a stray shot. It developed that there had been great unfriendliness and competition between two saloon keepers and a pool-room keeper whom they were trying to force out of business. This man declared, in reply to a question, that it was not safe to get the law on the trail of his compatriots, for then his life would be endangered. The Croats and others would make his existence burdensome to him. He finally sold his business and moved.

Such incidents must not lead the reader to believe that the general run of men of this colony has become degraded and debauched. There are a great many who, through all the vicissitudes of readjustment to strange and often unfriendly conditions, still preserve their sterling qualities.

In the absence among them of churches, schools and political clubs, the strongest cohesive force in the community life, outside of household ties and the interest in common work, is to be found in the fraternal benefit societies. It is not alone their thrift nor the hazardous nature of their work, which has caused these immigrants to organize strongly and intensively into fraternal benefit societies. As an officer in the National Servian Society explained, the consciousness of kind, which often slumbers on native soil, is aroused among fellow compatriots when they are cast abroad in a strange land. They instinctively strive to join or organize with those who speak their language and have their manner of thought and life.

#### *Freight Handling*

Seventy per cent of the men are employed in freight handling. This is common labor, requiring little experience but a great deal of brawn and strength. Articles weighing one to one and a half tons must at times be pulled and lifted; two men generally handle such cargo. At one time the Irish and Germans handled freight along this water front, but within recent years they have been largely displaced by Italians, by Servo-Croats, and very lately by Bohemian laborers.

Work is organized in gangs of ten or twelve men, and a foreman is put in charge of each

pier. Originally Servo-Croatians worked in homogeneous gangs, but in the notion of their employers "they became too independent and made too many demands." To crush this spirit of rebellion, the gangs were broken up and mixed with men of other nationalities. There were also at one time a number of Croatian foremen, but they did not make good. Hence at present these positions are held almost exclusively by the Irish.

In railroad work one man obtained such a monopoly that through him alone could the Servo-Croats of New York and vicinity get work as freight handlers with the New York Central and West Shore Railroads. During the freight handlers' strike of 1907, he shrewdly saw his opportunity and made overtures to the railroads to furnish them with men. Thereafter he opened an employment office under the guise of conducting an institution of learning. He is an adroit handler of people and as a result of wide advertisement in foreign newspapers and among men of his own nationality, his name and fame have long since traveled across the seas. "When you come to New York, go to Kristic," writes a man in Butte, Mon., to his friend in Dalmatia, "he will find you a job." And so he often does, but the man pays him and pays exceedingly well. In hearings before the Bureau of Licenses there were many complainants to testify that they had been asked from \$5 to \$75 for a job, and had paid fees every time they were discharged and re-employed,—which was frequent.

The question naturally arises why do so many men submit, knowingly, to such exploitation. The explanation is not far to seek. With a standing army of unemployed, the newly-arrived immigrant or jobless man soon realizes how limited is his field and how overcrowded the market. To him it is a God-send to get a job even if he has to pay an exorbitant price to obtain it. "What can a man do when he is out of a job? Run about the streets hungry? He must pay to get work and gives his all, if need be. For where can one get a job without paying for it?" exclaimed one man. On the other hand, railroads need strong, cheap laborers to handle their freight, need them in bulk, on and off. This demand can be satisfied by using immigrant workers and having an extra supply of them within call in reserve. These companies have been able to find a middleman who knows not only how to answer a demand but how to create the need for his services. From his point of view, this middleman reasons it out that if he were unable to satisfy the companies another agent would step in with other laborers. "And why not help my own countrymen?" he says with assumed naïveté.

Outside of railroad work, and of cooking in which nineteen were engaged, individual men are



in divers common employments; 5 per cent are in the building and other trades. Practically every one of these men has served his apprenticeship at freight handling or other rough labor, until by hard striving and aid of friends he has attained the dignity of a trained mechanic.

To be an independent business man is a dizzy height toward which many strive. "When the Slav goes into trade it is generally a round higher up and marks on his part a great rise in the world." There are several Slavic masons and building contractors to be found here. An asbestos manufacturing company, carried on by a Dalmatian, is a very successful enterprise. A number of stationery and tobacco stores, steamship ticket offices, and a barber shop are in the hands of Servo-Croats. Most of their commercial enterprises, however, are groceries and butcher shops—often a combination of the two—saloons and pool rooms. The inclination to emulate the successful saloon and pool-room keepers has been mentioned before. In the course of this inquiry, which occupied some three or four months, two new pool rooms and one new saloon were opened in the district. It takes about \$400 to open a saloon and \$1,200 for a license.

Most of the business men are Dalmatians, though there is a tobacco firm both members of which are Servians. Here tobacco and cigarettes are manufactured as well as sold. One of the partners came to the United States four years ago, and his family followed last year. The wife and, after school hours, the three children work in this store as well as the two men. No outside help is employed. Their merchandise is sold not only in this community but throughout the United States among their compatriots. Another very prosperous Servian has a steamship and railroad ticket office, which has been doing business here for many years. Most of his trade is outside of New York, for through wide advertising in Servian and Croatian papers he receives ticket orders from as far west as Seattle and San Francisco. In addition he has a stationery store and, like a number of business men in the neighborhood, he has leased the entire tenement in which his business is located, using it as a lodging-house for incoming and departing immigrants. These business men depend upon their countrymen for most of their trade. They frequently sustain large losses, for they have a poor system of bookkeeping and most of the transactions are on a credit basis.

As in all foreign communities, the business men are the brains of the group and lead the rest. A few of them are good neighborly men, who aid their countrymen with advice and money, without charging interest. Two saloon-keepers were often mentioned as the kindest, most helpful and best men in the colony. As Professor Balch has written: "The saloon-keeper

of a Slavic group may be the best man in it; he is at least very likely to be the most influential."

It is but logical to expect that the more these immigrants become acclimatized, acquainted with our ways and means of living and working, the better able they are to earn a higher wage. Yet if they do forge ahead it is almost in spite of us, for we meet them but half way and that reluctantly or because of financial motives.

This colony, like a circle within a circle, has not touched the life of the district and has not perceptibly reacted to any positive influences of social agencies in the neighborhood. In fact, each circle has a very hazy notion, if any at all, of the other's existence. When I took three little Croatian girls to a settlement house which is about four blocks from their home, a resident of long standing was surprised to hear that there was an "Austrian" colony nearby. The settlement had never had "Austrian" children in its clubs. The district Charity Organization Society office has never had an applicant from among these people, who themselves care for their compatriots in distress. As a matter of fact, there is little actual poverty and hunger among them. Though a large proportion of them are Roman Catholics, apparently the churches have not put forth much endeavor to get them within their fold. Only in a few rare instances were the neighborhood churches mentioned by the men.

Children go to the public schools but not more than a dozen men have attended evening classes. Some have said, "We come here to make money, not to go to school," and others again get home from their work late, or work at night, and are too tired for mental exertion, even if they have the desire. Taking into consideration that the great majority of these men work, live, and deal with compatriots, and hence do not feel the vital need to learn the language, it is surprising to find that no less than 311, or 54.3 per cent, can make themselves understood in English. A few read our newspapers and write the language.

Agencies outside of the district are in the nature of things unknown to this colony. Very few Balkan people come to the Information Division of the Department of Commerce and Labor, whose object is to find employment outside of New York for men, particularly foreigners. Chief C. L. Green attributes this to two causes: that the men do not want to go out of the city and that the division is not advertised in Servo-Croatian newspapers. It is the policy of the division to get space gratis in papers, and some Servo-Croatian editors have refused to give it without pay.

This failure to advertise in the Servo-Croatian papers is the more regrettable as free use of





**A HERZEGOVINIAN**

For ten hours a night he pulls trucks on a New York freight pier.



this agency by men needing work might serve to lessen their dependence on the boss above mentioned and help to break up the evil influence of this man on the life of the community. For not only does he drain the pocketbooks of his countrymen but he is one of the strong retarding factors in the Americanization of these people. He is the direct link between Europe and America to a vast number of these men, and stands as a buffer between them and Americanizing influences. He stands without a rival as the most influential and powerful man in this Servo-Croatian settlement.

A few men have become naturalized because they see an economic advantage in such a step. There are in this group ten citizens, and twelve who have their first papers, a total of twenty-two, or 19 per cent of the 115 men who have been in this country five years or more and are eligible to take one or both steps in the process of naturalization. For many do not look upon America as a place of permanent residence; others find the ways and means of acquiring citizenship incomprehensible or onerous. It is difficult to get witnesses and take the time to appear before the judge. A number of the younger men, however, expressed their intention to become citizens.

These people generally distrust American banks, and even if they have faith in them there are the practical difficulties of making themselves understood and of getting to the bank before the closing hours. Private bankers, especially of their own nationality, were at one time almost exclusively used, both as trustees of their savings and as channels of remittances; but so many frauds were perpetrated upon these ignorant, trusting aliens, reaching their climax



"MAMMA LAYO"

Who feeds and rules a household of forty men.

in the absconding of Frank Zotti, that now most of the money is remitted through the postoffice or reputable banking firms, and men more rarely deposit with small bankers.

There are a number of reasons which preclude the men from investing their money in this country. Most of them are recent immigrants of less than five years' standing; a large number expect eventually to settle in Europe, and hence have not severed business connection there. Furthermore, property in and about New York is unapproachably costly and forbidding, and opportunities at a distance are little known to them.

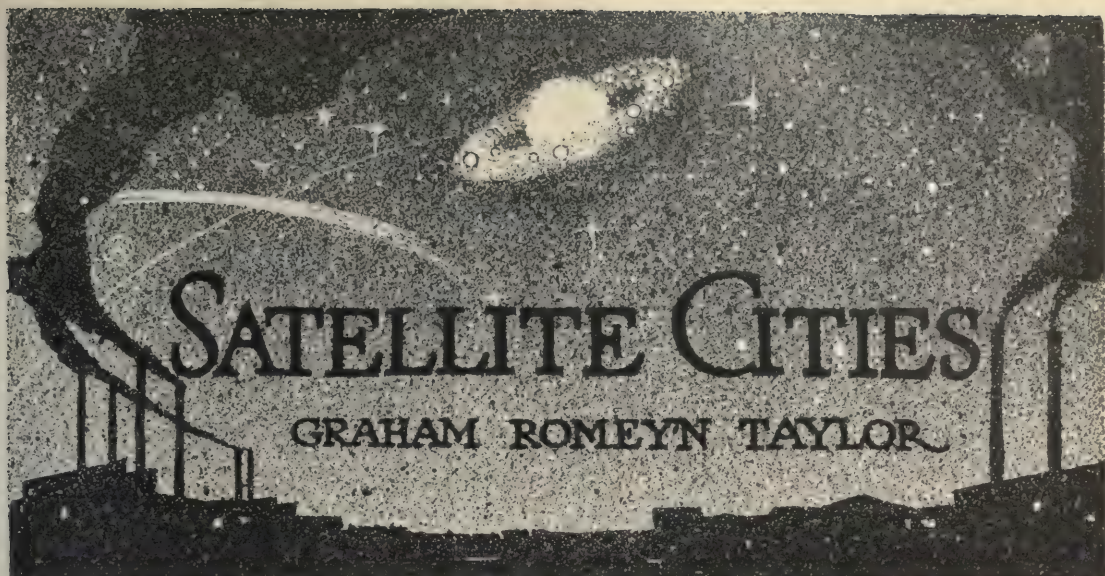
Again and again the cry is raised that these immigrants will not assimilate. Pray what have we done to inspire them with our civic ideals? What have we done to teach them? For this particular group there stand Tammany Hall and lesser preceptors in politics, who hold behind them an ever-ready and open palm for tips; among their Americanized countrymen many either alienate themselves or defraud them; unscrupulous American employers exploit them, control their waking hours, living conditions and chance of advancement. How can these foreigners become imbued with American civic and social ideals?

Neighborhood agencies have not gone half way to meet them. They do not come into close contact with Americans in their work or homes, hence why should they be acquainted with American institutions or adopt American standards? Thus the fault lies quite as much with us as with them. They are isolated, cut off, and we have failed to do the minimum which the most elementary ethics of civilization demand of us.



ONE OF "MAMMA LAYO'S" BOARDERS





### III

## NORWOOD AND OAKLEY<sup>1</sup>

HOW CINCINNATI FACTORIES HAVE TURNED TWO RESIDENTIAL SUBURBS  
TOPSY-TURVY

*[This is the third of the series of articles by Mr. Taylor on the "satellite cities" which industry is creating under the eaves of our great urban centers. In November, Pullman, the works-suburb of the 80's, was described; in January, Gary, the newest and largest, will be discussed. This community study deals not so much with the separate suburban community as with that constant offshooting of factories to the city's edge which in bulk and social consequences transcends the more spectacular company towns.—Ed.]*

THE SUBURBANITE who leaves business behind at nightfall for the cool green rim of the city would think the world had gone topsy-turvy if at 5:30 he rushed out of a factory set in a landscape of open fields and wooded hill-sides, scrambled for a seat in a street-car or grimy train and clattered back to the region of brick and pavement, of soot and noise and jostle. This is daily routine nonetheless for many thousands of factory workers.

The average American factory moves to the edge of the city when the old quarters become too small for the expanding business of the concern, depends upon traction to bring the old employes to its doors, and such housing as may develop in the vicinity of the new location is usually left to the uncontrolled and haphazard enterprise of real estate promoters.

This trend is not spectacular, but in volume and human consequences it is worth perhaps more attention than the separate and more conspicuous "model towns." Yet the removal of industries to the outskirts is ordinarily gradual and piecemeal, and often escapes public notice until

the chance for rational guidance from the standpoint of community efficiency has all but gone.

The environs of Cincinnati present unusual examples of this shift of factories from city to suburb. The most widely known is the large soap factory of the Proctor & Gamble Company. Ivorydale, however, is chiefly noted for its profit-sharing schemes rather than for housing and community developments, and yields place in this study of the industrial satellites of Cincinnati to Norwood and Oakley which adjoin each other on the city's northeastern edge.

Starting as residential suburbs of the usual type, their shaded streets have been outflanked by a cordon of big factories stretching along the line of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Most of these plants have emigrated from Cincinnati's center.

It was little more than a decade ago that a town chronicler hailed Norwood as "Gem of the Highlands, the brightest jewel in Cincinnati's sylvan crown." At a recent legislative hearing in Columbus she had become, in the words of her spokesman, "the Chicago of Hamilton County."

<sup>1</sup>Previous articles in this series were: I. The Outer Rings of Industry, October 5; II. Pullman, November 2.



According to a federal census summary for 1909, Norwood boasted forty-nine manufacturing establishments capitalized at \$13,368,000 with an annual product worth nearly \$10,000,000. Among the larger plants are those of the Bullock Electric Works of the Allis-Chalmers Company which, in 1898, was the first to move out from Cincinnati; the United States Playing Card Company; the Weir Frog Company; and the Globe-Wernicke Company which, in 1900, located on twenty acres of cornfields.

Development in Oakley is yet more recent. In 1907 a "Factory Colony" seized upon land previously occupied by four dairies. Of these half dozen plants each not only gained for itself many advantages they had not had in their old quarters in congested Cincinnati, but set up co-operative additional ones to be used in common.

"Town booming" methods often employed by citizens and officials to coax industries to new communities were entirely lacking at Norwood. Indeed, the factories encountered local indifference and even antagonism. Many citizens feared that the residential character of the place would be jeopardized. Real estate men made no effort to build houses and flats within the means of factory workers; there was larger and surer profit in residences for Cincinnati business men. The consequence is that, although a dozen years have elapsed since the factories began to move out and although Norwood has grown from 6,480 in 1900 to 16,185 in 1910, a comparatively small proportion of the operatives live in the vicinity

of the factories. The increase in residents has been mostly in suburbanites with business in Cincinnati.

*Commuting Other End To*

An analysis of where Norwood and Oakley factory workers live and even a superficial study of their transportation to and from work indicates a situation of peculiar interest from the point of view of the increasing number of civic experts who believe in "walking to your work." They hold that with all our emphasis on development of rapid transit as a means of lessening congestion, we must also approach the problem from the other side, and seek scientifically to reduce the need for traction through city planning which shall enable more people to live as neighbors to their livelihood.

Less than one-third of the operatives in Norwood and Oakley factories live within easy walking distance of their work. The great majority of those who must depend on traction facilities ride out from more or less congested parts of central Cincinnati. Some others even live in Kentucky, and thus, after journeying to and across the Ohio River, have then to traverse the city itself from boundary to boundary in order to reach their employment.

Data supplied by five of the larger Norwood factories and by the largest Oakley factory, involving nearly 4,500 workers, we may fairly assume to be representative of the total number of workers, about 10,000. It shows roughly, as



**WHERE NORWOOD AND OAKLEY SUB-URBAN WORKERS LIVE**

The data charted concerns nearly five thousand persons employed in six factories and may be taken as representative of the total number—perhaps twice that. Nearly half, 44.68 per cent, live in tenements or thickly populated parts of central Cincinnati, over five miles from their work; about five hundred even live across the river in Kentucky; while less than one-third, 31.28 per cent, live in Norwood and Oakley.

Chart by George Wallace Carr



indicated by the map on another page, that these workers live:

<i>Down Town Cincinnati</i>	
West End, East End and other tenement and crowded parts. Other parts near city's center	44.68
<i>Industrial Sections in Northwest Part of Cincinnati,</i>	
Cumminsville, St. Bernard and other sections	6.00
<i>Kentucky,</i>	
Covington, Newport and scattering.....	4.96
<i>Country Towns.....</i>	5.95
<i>Norwood and Oakley.....</i>	31.28
<i>Vicinity of Norwood and Oakley,</i>	
Hyde Park, Madisonville, Evanston and other neighborhoods both in and out of Cincinnati, some just inside and some just beyond the Cincinnati city limits.....	7.13

Only those in the above list who live in Norwood and Oakley, and some of those in nearby neighborhoods, are within easy walking distance of the factories.

This dislocation of the normal routine of factory and home involves several problems. There

States Playing Card Company, for example, which employs a large number of girls, carried them in omnibuses between the end of the Norwood street-car line and the factory door when the weather was bad.

Several factory managers united in prevailing upon the Baltimore and Ohio to run a Factory Special. This they were able to secure at the outset only by guaranteeing to make good any deficit between receipts and cost of operation. A five cent fare was arranged, commutation tickets, twenty rides for a dollar, being bought by the factory managements in sufficient quantity to safeguard the railroad from loss. These they resold to their employees.

Today a ten-car train which starts almost empty when it leaves the Central Union Depot picks up its load at the stations at Eighth street, Brighton and the Stock Yards, which tap the



THE FACTORY SPECIAL

Arranged for by several factory managers, a ten-car train takes operatives from Cincinnati out to suburban factories at Norwood and Oakley each morning and back to Cincinnati each evening.

is the need for travel and its curtailment of leisure and income; there are luncheons to be got by thousands of employes at a distance from home and the customary city facilities; there are less tangible effects on the permanency of the working force and their isolation from their fellows.

For the hauling of raw material and the shipping of finished product, the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad offered the same freight rates as for Cincinnati. Shipping facilities were a large factor in the location of plants at Norwood and Oakley. But the means for transporting the human working force to the spot where the raw material should be transformed into finished product was not so ready at hand. In some instances only persistent efforts by plant superintendents secured extensions of street-car lines all the way out to the factories. Meanwhile, make-shifts were sometimes necessary. The United

tenement districts of Cincinnati's West Side. Then, four miles out, at Cumminsville and St. Bernard, it gathers up others from regions of cheap, though not squalid, housing. With every seat taken, and aisles and platforms crowded, it travels on to the unloading stations, Norwood, East Norwood and Oakley. Oakley, nearly twelve miles from the Central Union Depot, is reached in about forty-five minutes. Leaving Oakley and Norwood at 5:45 each evening it drops its load at the various points along the line back to the Central Union Depot in Cincinnati where it arrives at 6:25 P. M. The service is not bad except for the insufficient number of seats during that portion of the trip in which the maximum load is carried.

'The few Norwood and Oakley factory operatives who live in the country towns to the northwest are served by the Baltimore and Ohio, by two interurban lines and by the Cincinnati, Lebanon and Northern. The latter also carries some traffic out from its Cincinnati station on the edge of the central business district.



Street-cars, however, afford the principal traction service between downtown Cincinnati and Norwood and Oakley. The trip, which takes twelve or fifteen minutes in the automobile of a factory official, requires from thirty-five to fifty minutes and longer for the factory worker who rides first on one line and then transfers. A five-cent fare covers the entire tributary area except

crush is still further distributed by the fact that two hundred girls under eighteen years of age, and hence protected by the Ohio eight-hour law, leave work at 3:45. Other plants, employing comparatively few women, allow them to leave earlier than the men. But the latter, quitting all together, make a sudden and heavy demand on the street-car facilities.



#### THE FACTORY SHIFT FROM CITY CENTER TO SUBURB

The first great gain: light, air, room and sanitation for the factory worker and a chance for future industrial expansion. When will civic and community planning do as much for the workers' homes?

Above, the United States Playing Card Company.  
Below, the Globe-Wernicke Company.



Kentucky. The street-car company arranges to have several empty cars waiting near each factory at closing time. The rush for seats is partly due no doubt to the preference of many to take standing room on the first few cars rather than wait for a seat in the cars behind. But even the latter are usually filled beyond their seating capacity. It illustrates the ingenuity which has had to be applied to make the whole inverted arrangement workable that the Playing Card factory arranges for half of their seven hundred girl employees to start and quit work a quarter of an hour earlier than the other half. The afternoon

#### *Some Social Aspects of the Transit Problem*

The car lines to Norwood and Oakley appear like a traction bonanza, with their full hauls both ways. The same cars which carry factory workers out at 7:30 each morning are loaded on the way back with Cincinnati office workers going into the city. The reverse happens each afternoon.

But car fares figure on the other side of the ledger for the workers. Sixty cents a week is 10 per cent of the \$6 average wage of girls who work in some Norwood factories.



The situation has thus brought other social problems for managers and work-people than the sheer one of human freightage. The willingness of employes to make the long trip twice a day was problematical. Yet so far from discouraging employes from sticking to their jobs, the removal to the outskirts has been followed, most managers declare, by a longer average job tenure



LUNCHES AT NORWOOD WHEREVER THE WORKER CAN FIND A PLACE TO EAT THEM

than was the case in Cincinnati. One manager said that although the well-lighted, ventilated, clean and roomy workshops are an appreciated advantage, an important factor is that workers have less opportunity to learn of new jobs involving real or fancied betterment. Their contact with workers in other factories, with whom they might compare work conditions and wages, is much less frequent. At noon hours and on the way to and from work they are now thrown only with those employed in the same factory with themselves, or else those employed in nearby factories whose work involves a different trade. In this connection it would be interesting to know whether the evident success of employers in keeping trade unionism at a low ebb in most of the Norwood and Oakley factories is due in part to this isolation of the workers from fellow-workers and trade union representatives in the same industry. It is possible to discover not a little discontent among work-people in various plants. The employment by one plant of some Negroes and "Hunkies" is cited by other employes as an effort to cut under the wage standards demanded by "white men."

The longer journey to and from work seems to have necessitated no reduction in work hours in order to hold employes. Most of the plants run fifty-five hours a week, 7 A. M. to 5:30 P. M.

each day except Saturday, when quitting time is at noon. The several hundred girls at the United States Playing Card plant work, as has been noted, a forty-eight or forty-nine hour week. Those who tried to get the Ohio legislature to pass an eight-hour law for women's work were disappointed when the Playing Card Company, which provides excellent shop conditions, lined up with other manufacturers against any restrictions whatever. Incidentally, it is significant that in this plant 900 employes now turn out as large a product as 1,400 did a few years ago. This is, no doubt, due partly to new labor-saving machinery, but good work conditions are, doubtless, partly responsible. The plant management considers the main factor to be a premium and bonus system in connection with wage payments. This has meant somewhat higher wages, the premiums and bonuses being 10 per cent of the total pay roll expenditure last year.

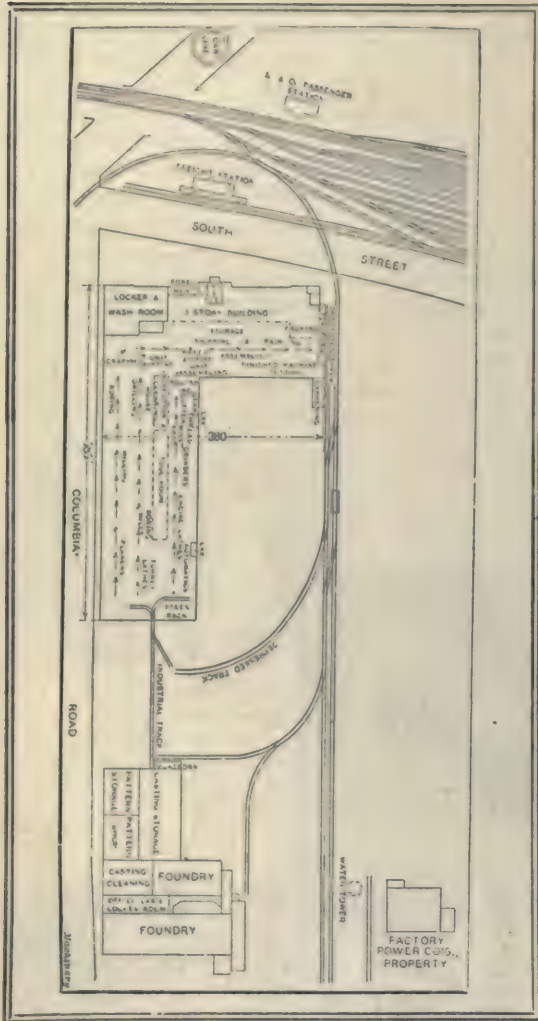
Comparatively few operatives live near enough to go home for lunch, and facilities in the vicinity of the plants are meager and mediocre. Some of the plants have established lunch rooms. One, which conducts an unusually good one, reports that it does



so at a considerable annual loss. Some do not sell food; but merely provide a place where lunches which are brought may be eaten, while others make provision only for the office force. But in most cases a work-bench, curb-stone, door-step or nearest grassy spot must accommodate those who eat at the works, while several cheap and not very clean looking saloons and "eating joints" serve crowds of others.

None of the plants found it necessary to increase wages on account of removal from downtown Cincinnati except the United States Playing Card Company. The comparatively small wages





of its many girl employes were advanced 20 per cent at the time of removal. Many of the employes paid carfare to reach their work when the factories were located in Cincinnati, so that the trip to Norwood, even if it does mean a longer street-car ride, does not involve added expense.

With these things in mind why is it that Norwood and Oakley are not more largely peopled by the workers in their factories? Here are work opportunities, suburban surroundings usually coveted by city dwellers, and a long trip to and from work to be rid of. Why do so many of these workers continue to crowd into Cincinnati tenements? The usual answer one gets is that many Norwood and Oakley workers are members of families whose main bread-winners work in the factory center of Cincinnati and therefore want to continue to live near it. Or, it is said, that they like the bright lights and excitement of the big city. These do not seem adequate explanations. Other cities have downtown factory workers who live on the outskirts even without the inducement of suburban employment; and other small communities have provided sufficient zest in neighborhood and town life to interest the people who dwell there.

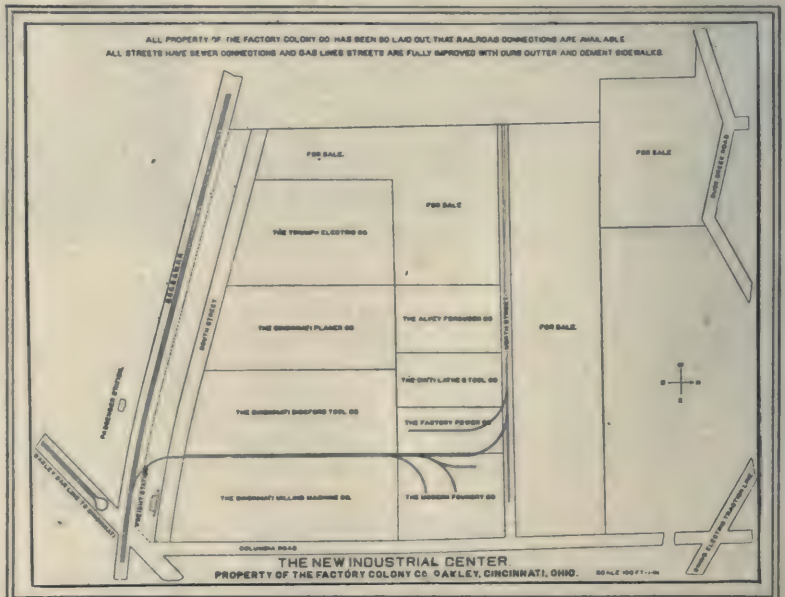
We may inquire, therefore, what efforts have been made to adapt this suburban area to the needs of the people brought together by its industries. If modern science and technical ability secured the highest degree of efficiency in plant arrangement and construction, were similar skill and ingenuity applied to the community life, to town planning, housing, health and recreation?

### A Well-Planned "Factory Colony"

As an example of foresight and efficiency in planning for manufacturing, the "factory

### THE "FACTORY COLONY"

Effective factory planning that makes sharp contrast with the lack of planning for the community life. Above, routing from raw material to finished product in the Cincinnati Milling Machine Company's plant. To the right, the "factory colony" at Oakley, a significant instance of the co-operative advantages in factory grouping. Common power plant and foundry serve all.







THE CINCINNATI MILLING MACHINE COMPANY'S PLANT AND OTHER FACTORIES IN THE FACTORY COLONY AT OAKLEY. THIS COMPANY PLANNED THE COLONY

colony" at Oakley is notable. There was little concerted action in the industrial development at Norwood. One factory after another decided to locate there. But Oakley has exhibited in remarkable degree the advantages which come through co-operation.

When the Cincinnati Milling Machine Company, in 1906, sought a new site away from Cincinnati's congestion, it found at Oakley some property used only for dairy and truck-gardening purposes. The area was more than the company needed, and its charter did not permit it to deal in real estate. Accordingly, it interested several other factory managements in the organization of the Factory Colony Company. Space has been apportioned on the basis of "first come, first served," and at this writing six plants have been built. Five moved out from Cincinnati, and one came from Louisville. The scheme has gone further and developed common means for supplying common needs through the organization of the Factory Power Company and the Modern Foundry Company, both owned by the group of factories and operated at cost. In the power company each factory has an interest proportionate to the service secured. This includes power, light, heat, water supply, compressed air, steam and pressure for sprinkler systems for fire protection. What this means in economy may be gauged from the fact that one of the plants now gets power at one and one-half cents per kilowatt hour. In its old location in Cincinnati it paid three cents. The power plant is laid out for a capacity of more than four times the present installation.

The Modern Foundry Company in a similar way serves the needs of the various plants. Through the specifications agreed upon for the construction of all the factory buildings, and through such other uniform conditions as the provision of a sprinkler system, insurance costs have been reduced to about one-tenth of what was paid on the old plants in Cincinnati.

### *An Unplanned Human Colony*

Compared with this thought-out, ship-shape, craftsman-like development of equipment to meet the common needs of these various manufacturing, town planning to meet the common needs of the people who man them, or the lack of it, in Norwood and Oakley presents a marked contrast. Only the scantiest attention has been given to it, even when the arrival of industries seemed to assure rapid town growth. Irregular farm boundaries had been allowed arbitrarily to determine streets and lines of growth. Large areas owned by one man and his heirs, and held vacant for speculation, have hampered development. Subdivisions have been laid out without any reference to each other, and the whole arrangement of the town had the appearance of a "crazy quilt," to quote the chairman of a platting commission which was established as early as 1889.

Through the commission's efforts a few streets were straightened, widened or vacated, and new ones platted with some reference to a general plan. But the lack of authority to cope adequately with the situation led this same man to declare that only "sweeping power" given to a county platting commission could protect the generations that are to follow against the selfishness of those bent on reaping profits from land regardless of the welfare of others—a remark well-nigh prophetic of the spirit which gave England a town planning act in 1909,<sup>1</sup> and which yet must be awakened in America if our cities are to have real opportunity to guide their suburban development.

This warning of nearly twenty years ago seems never to have been heeded. Subdivisions are still laid out in Norwood and Oakley in any way that suits the owner, provided the directions and

<sup>1</sup>The Province of Ontario has enacted a town planning act on lines similar to those of the British act, except that a rather large minimum street width is required. No state or city of the United States, however, has yet enacted any thorough-going legislation of this sort.



widths of streets in the older adjoining subdivision are followed. Size of lots, building lines, and other important features are subject in no way to public control, but are at the mercy of special interest or civic stupidity. A far-sighted view of community development is entirely lacking.

This is indicated, for example, by the lot widths. In older subdivisions these are fifty feet; in later ones thirty to forty-five feet; and in those most recently platted, twenty-five feet. This is not necessarily an evil. If a width of twenty-five feet is adopted with a view to scientific house grouping<sup>1</sup> it may even be eminently wise. But the crowded parts of many of our large cities will show what miserable congestion may develop on narrow lots when no adequate building restrictions are provided. In Norwood, narrow and narrower lot platting has simply followed on the heels of the growth in population because large profits could be gotten from cutting a given piece of property into more lots.

Similarly, scientific planning of street paving widths on a basis of street function, which has meant a difference of a shilling a week rent on each house in some English garden suburbs, is as little understood and applied in Norwood as it is in the average residential subdivision of our large cities.<sup>2</sup>

Most of the industrial plants which stretch along the outer edge of Norwood and Oakley have space enough for years of expansion. Ordinary business foresight took care of this. The land owned by the factories, both that already occupied and that held vacant for future needs, is worth now about \$4,000 an acre, according to estimates based on the Norwood appraisements of 1910 and the opinions of real estate men. One of the most favorably located of these factory sites cost, says the president of the concern owning it, \$1,000 an acre in 1900. This would indicate that land values in the neighborhood of the factories have advanced 400 per cent in the twelve years since the factories began to move out to Norwood.

The abode of industry was thus assured when land was cheap. Similar assurance for homes for the workers away from congested Cincinnati was nobody's concern. Blame cannot fairly be heaped upon plant managers for this lack of civic and social foresight in the industrial shift from city center to suburb. The problems connected with the removal of the plants themselves were doubtless complicated and engrossing enough to monopolize their attention. There was not the clear responsibility which rests on the single industrial establishment which builds a town for its sole occupancy. Such experiences as those

of Pullman have made industrial leaders hesitant to embark on social and civic experimentation further than the effective manning of their plants demands. The situation lays bare the need for civic leaders of larger vision than those of twelve years ago—for a "city-zen-ship" that shall be statesmanship and shall give community affairs the same degree of thought and foresight and constructive genius which the ablest men devote to private enterprise.

### *The Economic Underpinnings*

To afford a basis by which we may gauge the living opportunities which Norwood and Oakley offer their factory workers we must first know the extent of income from which rent and living costs must be paid.

According to federal census figures for 1909, Norwood factories had 507 salaried employes, and 3,907, wage-earners. The salaried employes earned \$632,000, or an average of \$1,246.55 a year. The wage-earners received in a year \$2,081,000, or an average of \$532.53 each. This amounts to an average weekly wage of \$10.24 which probably has risen in some degree since 1909. The large number of girl employes at low wages—the seven hundred at the United States Playing Card plant earn at the present time an average of \$6 a week each—tends to make the general average lower than the average amount received by the heads of families. Let us turn, therefore, to two large plants employing almost wholly men. One is in Norwood and the other in Oakley, and each employes nearly 1,000 men.

#### PLANT NO. 1. MEN.

WEEKLY EARNINGS OF SHOP EMPLOYEES.			
21.88	per cent	earn	under \$10 a week
52.69	"	"	from \$10 to \$15 a week
24.86	"	"	from \$15 to \$20 " "
.57	"	"	over \$20 a week

#### PLANT NO. 2. MEN.

WEEKLY EARNINGS OF SHOP EMPLOYEES.			
39.54	per cent	earn	under \$10 a week
40.63	"	"	from \$10 to \$15 a week
16.86	"	"	from \$15 to \$20 " "
2.97	"	"	over \$20 a week

Both of these factories employ principally skilled operatives. It will be seen that roughly a quarter of these workmen earn \$10 or under per week and that three-quarters earn an average of \$15 or less.

The cheapest housing accommodations in Norwood are three-room flats, varying from \$12 to \$20 per month according to location and convenience. A real estate agent of many years' experience in Norwood roughly classified the town's housing as follows:

#### RENTS IN NORWOOD

				\$12	to	\$20	per month
2000	three-room	flats	at	\$12	to	\$20	per month
1200	four	"	"	\$15	"	\$25	" "
800	five	"	"	\$20	"	\$40	" "
500	"	houses	"	\$20	"	\$25	" "
500	six	"	"	\$25	"	\$32	" "
800	seven	"	"	\$30	"	\$35	" "
600	eight	"	"	\$35	"	\$50	" "

<sup>1</sup>See *Scribner's Magazine*, July, 1912. *Model Towns in America*, by Grosvenor Atterbury.

<sup>2</sup>See *Width and Arrangement of Streets*, by Charles Mulford Robinson, published by the *Engineering News*. Price \$2.



These figures were shown to a well-known Norwood citizen and thought by him to be much lower than the facts would show, particularly so far as three-, four- and five-room flats are concerned. But, taking them as they stand, they show that the cheapest three-room flats cost approximately one-quarter of the income of a \$12-a-week wage-earner, while if he desires more than three rooms for his family the expense rises far above that proportion. Many families, of course, have more than one wage-earner, thus swelling the family income, but that fact makes it no easier for the head of a family in which the children are all young or going to school.

Ownership of houses in the suburbs near their work is even more impossible for the Norwood and Oakley employes. From the standpoint of risk in home ownership, they, to be sure, present

case \$2,250 is borrowed from a building loan association to be paid back with interest in installments of \$21 per month. In addition, a cash payment of \$500 goes at the outset to the builder of the house, who carries on credit the remaining \$750. This is paid in monthly installments of from \$15 to \$20. Thus, \$500 down and \$36 a month is the cheapest rate at which, under present conditions, houses may be purchased. Almost none of these houses are bought by employes of Norwood factories. A Cincinnati builder recently put up twenty-seven houses in Norwood, but not one was for a Norwood factory employe.

The situation at Oakley is practically the same, \$300 to \$500 down, and \$30 monthly on the principal with interest at 6 per cent being necessary to secure a six-room house, costing with land about \$3,600. In many cases these houses both in Norwood and Oakley are arranged for



THE TENEMENT REGION OF CINCINNATI

Almost half the workers in the factories of Norwood and Oakley live in the crowded, noisy city and work in the quiet, open suburbs.

a safer proposition than do most industrial towns, for there is a diversity of industries, and employment is not solely dependent upon the ups and downs of one business. Work seems to be comparatively steady rather than subject to the extremes of dull and heavy seasons as in the steel industry. And furthermore, the bulk of Cincinnati industries are near enough so that in case of lack of employment in Norwood or Oakley, a worker living in the suburb has recourse to whatever opportunities for work the larger city affords. It is the fact that, despite the factory growth, Norwood and Oakley have developed as residential suburbs for Cincinnati's business and salaried men to an extent that has put home ownership there beyond the reach of the average workingman.

Under present building operations in Norwood the minimum cost of a small home is about \$3,500, of which \$700 or \$800 represents cost of a lot with thirty-five feet frontage. In a typical

the occupancy of two families, the owner living in one flat and renting the other.

Nor is an extensive housing scheme now being carried out in Oakley enabling workmen in Oakley factories to live in the suburb as seems to be the current impression in Cincinnati. When the factories moved to Oakley in 1907, a tract of 110 acres—the old Oakley race track property which had fallen into disuse owing to adverse racing legislation in Ohio—was secured by the Oakley Park Company. It has built and sold about 150 houses in the last three years, but of these fewer than ten were purchased by employes of the Oakley plants. The agent frankly states that he is making no effort to interest factory employes since their wages are too low to permit them to occupy houses of the type built. Most of the house purchasers are Cincinnati salaried men who occupy half the house and rent the other half. On the thus far undeveloped property of the Oakley Park Com-



pany, extending almost to the gates of the Oakley factories, there is room for about five hundred more houses. The amazing unintelligence and cumbersomeness of our civic development is apparent in the fact that if present building plans are continued, these will afford practically no accommodations for the men and women who go to work there. They must continue, many of them, to dwell far away in congested Cincinnati, while workers in Cincinnati dwell in Oakley.

#### *The Schmidlapp Housing Experiment*

The failure of housing developments in Nor-

either suburb. Unfortunately each house is exactly like every other house in the solid rows of brick, and one fears that a few years of deterioration will make them almost as dismal as the city tenement. With exception of the end houses in each group, light and air is obtained only at front and rear.

One group contains nine houses, each having two apartments of four rooms. These rent for \$3.75 a week in the end houses and \$3.25 a week in the others. Some of the inside houses have three-room apartments at \$2.25 a week. Each apartment has a bathroom and at the rear an



ACRES OF LAND NEIGHBORING THE OAKLEY FACTORIES, WHICH ARE BEING DEVELOPED FOR COMMUTERS AND NOT FOR FACTORY EMPLOYEES

wood and Oakley to meet the needs of the factory workers has been recognized in the efforts of one Cincinnati man, J. G. Schmidlapp. He is following in the lines of the Washington (D. C.) Sanitary Improvement Company, which, in the last fifteen years, has invested nearly \$1,000,000 and erected 289 houses accommodating 578 families, yielding 5 per cent annual return on \$500,000 capital stock and earning a considerable annual surplus.

Mr. Schmidlapp has built two groups of workmen's houses in Norwood, and one group in Oakley. These provide sanitary dwellings at a rent considerably lower than that prevailing in

outside porch. Rents in another group of fourteen houses are slightly higher owing to the provision of cellars. The cost is approximately \$3,000 per house including land. In the policy of administration 5 per cent is allowed for return on the investment, and 4 per cent for expenses and depreciation. Among 104 applicants for apartments in the two groups of houses in Norwood, seventy-five were already living in Norwood, seventeen were living in other nearby cities, and twelve were living in Cincinnati. This would seem discouraging from the standpoint of inviting people away from congested areas, but the natural explanation given is that dwellers in



Norwood had become familiar with the houses during construction and were eager to avail themselves of accommodations much less expensive than those they had been occupying.

The most distinctive feature of Mr. Schmidlapp's plan—and the phase of it which will be watched with greatest interest—is his method of selling a two-family house to a wage-earner. He hopes that the income from renting half the house will enable a workman to buy his home when he could not afford to buy a one-family house.

The building expense of a double house is of course less than twice the expense of a detached dwelling; the land area and taxes are also less; the workman who takes up the proposition spends time and interest in keeping the property in good condition and keeping it rented; and gets for his pains the profits in rentals and increased land values on the extra half of his property which would otherwise go to a real estate company or large investor. In other words Mr. Schmidlapp hopes to change workmen from renters to home owners by getting them the benefits of one-ply landlords in the process. The plan he, doubtless, feels will increase the number of citizens whose property gives them a conservative interest and permanent stake in the community. He believes that he can turn over a two-family house, after payments of about ten years, on the following basis:

House having 2 three-room apartments, \$100 cash and \$4.50 weekly.

House having 2 four-room apartments, \$200 cash and \$5.00 weekly.

House having 2 five-room apartments, \$300 cash and \$5.50 weekly.

The original deposit is to be returned in case of death or in case of disability compelling purchaser to give up his contract, when such disability is not the fault of the purchaser.

These "philanthropy and 5 per cent" enterprises are being watched with considerable interest by real estate men in Cincinnati and vicinity. Those in Norwood and Oakley, how-

ever, have thus far shown no disposition to undertake similar developments, and the higher profits to be made in building homes for Cincinnati business and salaried men will likely monopolize their attention in any event. Mr. Schmidlapp's influence will count for most in demonstrating the possibilities of safe long term investment in the housing field by the executors of estates and other trust funds. Local builders have yet to be convinced that the scheme is practicable; and some of them express their opinion that it will make factory superintendents complacent in paying wages no higher than at present, and perhaps even lower, in the belief that a working man will now have an opportunity to secure housing at low rentals. These critics, admitting that their contention is sound, perhaps, lose sight of the fact that even if many more groups of houses are built by Mr. Schmidlapp, they can accommodate only a very small proportion of the total working force at Norwood and Oakley.

Social observers appreciate the value of his effort to provide thoroughly sanitary homes at a minimum of expense. One could wish, however, that even without reaching so low a rental figure, more pains had been taken to avoid a barracks-like monotony of structure. It is encouraging to know that his plans for the future promise more attractive dwellings, another step in advance. The English garden suburbs, and some developments in this country as well, go to show that it is possible to provide infinitely more attractive homes at very slightly higher cost. If wages reasonably within reach of the average workman are not sufficient to support a reasonable standard of comfort and charm in the home life of the people, the task of lowering the household standard to meet the wage scale may be a bottomless process; and constructive philanthropy could better apply itself to bringing up wage scales to a point where normal household life can be ob-



APPRENTICE CLASS IN CINCINNATI MILLING MACHINE FACTORY

This work has borne an important relation to the development of industrial education in Cincinnati.





SCHMIDLAPP HOUSES—FRONT VIEW

tained under modern conditions. Given normal standards in house construction, the man who applies business acumen, the methods of large scale construction and the gains of interest and increased land values to bring them within the reach of the average worker and lessen their strain on his household budget is doing a large public service.

There is a general complaint that food costs as well as rent seem to be high in these suburbs in comparison with Cincinnati and even in comparison with other suburbs. A study of the prices at four grocery stores—one in Norwood, one middle-class store in Cincinnati, one near the public market in Cincinnati, and one conducted by a firm which operates many stores in the poorer sections of the city—shows that, while there is no great discrepancy, Norwood prices were almost uniformly higher. Cincinnati is one of the few cities in this country which has provided extensively public markets. This fact doubtless led Norwood to build an excellent public market building. Stalls are rented at nominal fees, but for reasons not very obvious, the anticipated lessening of food costs has not materialized.

An effort to work out a co-operative living scheme for working girls was recently started by the Schmidlapp Bureau for Women and Girls. The bureau was founded by Mr. Schmidlapp as a memorial to his daughter, and he has given it an endowment of \$500,000.

Its work is educational, employment-finding and vocational. It provides financial aid for young women to complete their education; it finds work, and studies the industrial experiences of each girl and the problems of her social environment; and through pioneer research work it is seeking to provide scientific data concerning vocational guidance. The director of the bureau is M.

Edith Campbell, formerly in the Economics Department of the University of Cincinnati, and under her expert guidance the bureau is taking an important place in the general movements toward social advance in Cincinnati. She has recently been elected a member of the Cincinnati School Board.

The Schmidlapp Bureau shares with the Union Savings Bank and Trust Company the management of the

Schmidlapp houses already described. It is in one of these house groups that two apartments have been thrown into one, and a group of working girls has been gathered together in a co-operative household supervised by a trained domestic science teacher. With the exception of a weekly house-cleaning the household work is shared by the girls. Each member pays \$1 per week rent and \$3 for board. Some difficulty was experienced at the start in getting a group of unattached girls together in Norwood to try the experiment. This was due, no doubt, to the policy of the United States Playing Card Company in employing girls living at home. The stolid reason for this policy is that it helps safeguard the force from demoralizing influences and there would obviously be no need for co-operative households if all girls were so placed. But for the self-respecting girl living alone, and solely dependent upon her own efforts the policy only serves to increase the difficulties of finding work, and there can be no doubt that it is an important money saver for the company, so far as the pay roll is concerned. The willingness of girls living with their families to accept lower wages than they otherwise would operate most cruelly in fixing a lower wage standard for all working girls.

The furnishings of the home were given by Mr. Schmidlapp, whose interest in the experiment is threefold: To provide a comfortable



SCHMIDLAPP HOUSES—REAR VIEW



place for the self-supporting girl working in Norwood where there is now practically no inexpensive boarding place; to attempt to furnish under trained supervision simple but nourishing food for \$2.75 per person per week, and to teach the careful and economical management of a home.

### *The Lighter Side of Life*

Standards of living are not wholly matters of rent and meals.

A Norwood plant manager, who complained a little because it was so hard to get employes to come out to his establishment, was asked a few minutes later how he liked the advantages of the suburban location for his work. "They are all right," he said, "but I find it hard to keep up the old interests and associations which mean a lot to me. I don't have the same chance to run across old friends and join in the things at the club."

Desire to live where "things are doing," near the bright lights, street crowds, big stores and amusements of the city center, and where friends are close at hand, is, after all is said, an important reason why many Norwood and Oakley workers do not make more of an effort to live where they work. The flats and apartment houses near the downtown section of almost any large city testify to the same sort of craving on the part of better-to-do people who find metropolitan advantages more to their liking than the quiet routine and distance from friends which the suburb enjoins. Theatres, opera, the life of the large hotels and the pleasures of the "smart set" have quite as strong a grip upon them as the cheaper amusements and "thrills" have upon the working people. Most of us have a yearning for sociability.

It is easy to say that working people cannot be tempted to live in the better conditions of the suburbs, that they find it too stupid and quiet.



COMMUTERS' HOMES AT NORWOOD

But there is little housing within the means of the factory workers.

But this is just where our civic intelligence is challenged and where our planning falls short. If it is worth while as a civic policy to encourage escape from congestion to better and healthier living conditions, it is worth while to study out and provide means whereby recreation and neighborhood can be stimulated centrifugally.

No such attention seems to have been given to recreation in Norwood and Oakley. There is a small playground, but it has poor leadership. A few band concerts are held each summer in front of the town hall, and baseball games are played between teams representing the different factories. A night school, with from 350 to 400 attendants provides cooking, sewing and gymnasium work in addition to the common school subjects. This fall the board of education, in response to a petition from some of the factory workers has opened evening gymnasium classes in a school near the factories.

But in general, the public recreation of the community is left to commercial enterprise. It consists of two motion picture shows, one air dome, a baseball park for the games of a Saturday afternoon league, and a few bowling alleys and pool rooms mostly connected with saloons. Lack of any good sized hall for entertainments, lectures, mass meetings and social gatherings has led, however, to an agitation to meet this need in a new city hall for which an issuance of bonds is now contemplated.



PUBLIC MARKET BUILDING AT NORWOOD



School authorities are aware of the value of utilizing schools for evening social and civic centers, but they point out that there are very few organizations to make use of them. Even the neighborhood "welfare societies" which took a great interest in the early civic problems of the community have nearly all died out or become inactive as municipal service has become more adequate. The possibilities of stimulating civic and social organization through promoting social and recreation centers seem unknown. One neighborhood recreation center such as Chicago now has to the number of nearly twenty might, with intelligent leadership, solve the problem. How small a proportion of the community's energy and money goes into public recreation is shown in the last municipal report where a grand total of \$140 is entered for public parks, covering only the playground above mentioned and inadequate for that, and \$40,674 stands opposite police and fire departments.

### *Public Spirit and the Suburb*

While Norwood has not adapted its community life to serve the needs of an industrial population, so far as town planning, housing and recreation are concerned, some branches of public service are well provided. Her school system is considered unusually good. Her health is her proudest boast, though the 1912 budget of \$2,040 for this purpose betokens no especial effort to conserve it and prevent dangers which would undoubtedly creep in with congestion. Water supply is of good quality, but said to be inadequate, particularly for industrial use. The rates are 7½ cents per hundred cubic feet, with 75 cents as a minimum quarterly charge. The water works are municipally owned as is also the electric light plant which supplies light at 6 cents per thousand watts as compared with the Cincinnati rate of 8 cents. Street-car and telephone franchises have involved no serious struggles, but Norwood has had to accept practically the same terms as Cincinnati. In 1900 when a new street car franchise was negotiated, the duration was made uniform with Cincinnati franchises, but two extensions of lines and a five-cent fare to any point in Cincinnati by universal transfers were secured.

It has been in the handling of the gas situation that this town has really shown its stride. Norwood secured striking advantage not only for her own citizens, but for all Cincinnati. The rate in Cincinnati had been 75 cents a thousand feet, and this was the rate which the Cincinnati company also charged the suburb. The Norwood city council encouraged an Ohio company to pipe in natural gas at 25 cents per thousand feet. To meet the competition the Cincinnati company found itself compelled to pipe in natural gas from West Virginia. The Ohio company

then sold out its rights to the Cincinnati company, but not before the citizens saw to it that the price should remain as low as 30 cents. Cincinnati was thus, through Norwood's civic alertness, enabled to secure its supply at less than half the rate it formerly paid.

Annexation to Cincinnati has thus far been successfully opposed by Norwood which recently voted against it by 2,759 to 930, while Cincinnati voted 5 to 1 for it. Oakley voted for annexation, but an injunction has blocked it thus far.

Norwood's chief argument in opposition, the fear of putting good neighborhood conditions at the mercy of a gang-ridden city, has been greatly lessened by Cincinnati's recent election of Mayor Hunt, an able young reformer who is giving the city an efficient administration. "When Cincinnati gives evidence that her reform is permanent, and when she goes in for such things as parks and schools for her whole population, we'll be glad to come in," said a fair-minded Norwood citizen who has consistently opposed annexation. Norwood's contention that under annexation there would be no assurance as to how much of her taxes would be spent locally is answered by Mayor Hunt's statement that the expense of serving territory annexed in 1911 would be \$272,329, or more than three times the revenue, \$86,284, to be gained from such territory.

### *The Metropolitan District*

The broad handling of the town planning, housing and transportation conditions in these industrial suburbs, involving the relation of industries to residential areas demands first of all a program of construction and public control in the interests of the whole body of people who live and work in them. Each community needs civic coherence. What can be done by concerted action has been shown in the "factory colony," in the Schmidlapp housing enterprise, and in the fight for gas. The need, however, is wider than this. The complexities of modern life which have made citizens so interdependent upon each other for their mutual welfare have also made the towns and flanges of a metropolitan district interdependent. Each locality has much to gain from a comprehensive plan involving all, and each has something to contribute, just as Norwood's efforts gave to the whole people of Cincinnati the boon of cheap lighting.

The exodus of industry from the congested center of Cincinnati has shown us no comprehensive and intelligent civic policy on the part of the big city to promote and guide community development. Equally in their smaller spheres, Norwood and Oakley have failed.

If the same degree of forethought, skill, intelligence and enterprise, which was applied to



the planning of the "factory colony," had also been applied to the scheming of the community life of Oakley and Norwood, the environs of Cincinnati might now have developed the most interesting and significant industrial suburbs in America, might even have shown us our nearest approach to the garden suburbs of England in point of co-operating land ownership and building as well as in physical arrangement. With broad fields, trees, gentle hillsides, and a ravine with a water course, nature has done her part to provide beauty. But, except in the efforts of Mr. Schmidlapp, not the slightest attempt has been made to solve the problem of the workers' household in these surroundings near his work. The recreation of the working girl seems to

have received scarcely a thought. The removal of the factory to the rim of the big city is not an adequate solution of our civic-industrial problem if it leaves the worker's home in congestion<sup>1</sup> or even if it transplants it to a region where the whole fabric of community life is left to remain undeveloped.

The same foresight and intelligence which is so skillfully applied to the planning of industrial expansion should be utilized in the great concentric opportunity to shape civic and social conditions in the outer belts of growth.

<sup>1</sup>The following was displayed at the recent Cincinnati municipal exhibit. "According to last figures available, 1900, in Toledo, 4 per cent of all families were living in houses of three or more families; in Indianapolis 6 per cent; in Detroit 7 per cent; in Columbus 8 per cent; in Cleveland 13 per cent; in Louisville 17 per cent; in Buffalo 24 per cent and in Cincinnati 44 per cent.

## THE SALEM TRIAL

JAMES P. HEATON

"JOSEPH J. Ettor, look upon the foreman. Mr. Foreman, look upon the prisoner."

The two men gazed at each other—the buoyant Italian and the shrewd Yankee.

"What say you, Mr. Foreman, upon your oath—is the prisoner guilty as charged?"

"Not guilty."

Such was their verdict—four carpenters, a hair dresser, a sail maker, a leather dealer, a stock fitter, a morocco dresser, a grocer, a driver, a lamp worker—the men at whose hands the three chief labor cases<sup>2</sup> growing out of the Lawrence strike were brought to a conclusion November 26; cases which, more dramatically than any since the Haymarket riots sent four men to the hangman, hinged on the question of how far labor leaders can be held responsible for acts of violence committed in the midst of a strike.

After ten months in jail and fifty-eight days of trial, Ettor, Giovannitti and Caruso left the court house free men<sup>3</sup>. There were the joyous hugs and kisses of their fellow-countrymen, but the feeling of comity and good will, after the long months of controversy in the mill districts, was not limited to these. As the trial had drawn along, public opinion in Salem, despite the somewhat antagonistic attitude of the chief newspaper and occasional disquieting rumors of a plot for a jail delivery, had grown more and

more favorable toward the defendants. One phase of it was reflected by Juror No. 6. "If a thousand Americans had been treated the way those fellows were treated, there wouldn't have been a mill left standing in Lawrence," he declared in recounting his sayings in the jury room. The friendly attitude, however, did not always mean a conviction that the accused men were innocent of all offense. It did represent a strong belief that the state had overshot the mark in getting full capital indictments against Ettor and Giovannitti, who were not present at the time of the shooting. The belief of the mill operatives in Lawrence that they were being held in prison "on a trumped-up charge of murder," originally brought as a piece of anti-strike tactics, has been shared by attorneys, newspapermen, ministers and students of public affairs, who have followed the proceedings.

"The best thing of all," to quote the dean of the newspaper correspondents, as he was congratulating Ettor and Giovannitti, "is that everybody seems happy. I enjoy a court trial assignment which ends like this. I have just been the rounds to say goodbye, and found everybody, including the judge, sheriff, court officers, and all the attorneys, in the best of good humor."

So it was that everywhere people sprang up to shake the hands of the three prisoners as they left the court, and on the sidewalk outside a battery of photographers, jostled by impatient and elated textile workers, waited for their game. The acquitted men started over to their lawyer's office, but the crowd fairly blocked the little one-track street of Old Salem into which they turned, until a friendly Salvation Army captain bade them come to his hall. Here an impromptu meeting followed, and soon out from its windows flanked

<sup>1</sup>See Legal Aftermath of the Lawrence Strike, by James P. Heaton, THE SURVEY, July 6, 1912.

<sup>2</sup>To the surprise of nearly everybody Caruso, though under a separate indictment for an assault to kill, was released on his own recognizance. As soon as he had given his oath to stand trial when summoned, he worked his way to the side of his wife, whose face lit up with a smile of content. Ettor and Giovannitti charged, along with Haywood and Glannini, with a conspiracy to intimidate Lawrence workers, were bailed by Helena S. Dudley, of Denison House, Boston, and Mary Kenny O'Sullivan, one of the old line labor leaders and an organizer of the Women's Trade Union League of America.



by gospel mottoes gushed the rousing strains of the Marseillais.

The whole Lawrence struggle has been full of contrasts. There were the contrasts brought out by the strike itself. Here was a typical New England manufacturing city, with its "Dublin" of Irish, its French "Canucks" and Nova Scotian "Blue Noses" from across the Canadian line, suddenly overwhelmed by an influx of Latin and Slavic peoples; its hum-drum civil government bewildered, taxed to the breaking point by a tug-of-war between new and disruptive industrial forces. Here were the great textile interests, which had baffled tariff reformers and old-line craft unions, suddenly bearded by their unskilled day laborers.

In the trial at the sleepy county seat came more contrasts. There are three court houses in Salem, side by side, erected at different times in the past seventy-five years. And back of them range a dim succession of court rooms reaching in imagination to the trials of the Salem witches. It is in this town that the preachers of the new industrialism, of syndicalism, and the latest revolutionary doctrines of the world's labor movement, were before the bar for bedeviling workmen in the minds of the grand jury. It was to the individualistic traditions of Puritan New England, to the principles of the revolutionary fathers which he believed are today threatened by foreign malcontents, that the district attorney made his plea when summing up the case. It was to the tidings of a world-wide working class rebellion in the name of industrial brotherhood that the prisoners made theirs.

But the contrast which reached furthest and deepest, perhaps, in its practical social significance lay in the new conception the trial has afforded the new wage-earners in the textile towns of what democracy stands for in America. The strikers at Lawrence had felt the force of government in the swinging clubs of police and in the prodding bayonets of the militia. They had chafed when that force barred parents from sending their children out of town, and had voiced their wrath when it was embodied in the unnecessary midnight arrests of young working girls. They had seen the government of the native-born in one day sentence a score of foreign rioters to serve a year's sentence in the House of Correction, and they had seen it falter in the case of Breen (school committeeman and son of a former mayor), who was convicted of planting dynamite to discredit the strikers,—falter and let the man off with a fine.

Now they had a new, potent embodiment of the old Bay State, not in the prosecution, but in the even tempered New England judge of the old school, and in the twelve "good men and true" who sat, listened and coolly made up their verdict.

There have been those who have felt that the

fabric of the commonwealth of Massachusetts has been imperilled not only by new doctrines of social revolution, but also by the almost instantaneous recoil of the authorities against what they have deemed crime and sedition. It was recognized by all participating that the conduct of these cases could either win the respect of the mill workers of New England or plant and spread distrust. That the Superior Court of Essex County measured up to its responsibility for the maintenance of the reputation of Massachusetts tribunals for probity and judicial acumen was attested by Ettor himself in a statement at the conclusion of the trial. A former district attorney of the county, who is also a former judge, discussing the case in his office just after the trial was over, rejoiced because he felt the outcome answered completely those who feared lest public opinion in Essex County was so prejudiced against Ettor and Giovannitti as to make it difficult to secure for them a strictly fair hearing.

While there will be some in both camps who will claim that the three men got off because of the fear of what might have happened had they been sentenced to death, there has been borne in upon a great middle group, and with them upon thousands of alien workers, an abiding sense that American justice can weather times of industrial stress.

The trial opened on September 30 after a postponement which was requested last May by the defense. There has been misunderstanding about this delay. For this the defense committee of the strikers' is largely to blame, as in their appeals for funds they held up Ettor and Giovannitti as martyrs kept in jail through the dictation of the money powers. One appeal, issued while the trial was on, made necessary an awkward explanation to the court by the attorneys for the defense.

The trial itself went over much the same ground that was covered in the inquest before

While the fund raised by unionists and Socialists throughout the country for the defense of Ettor, Giovannitti and Caruso did not approach in size that collected by the American Federation of Labor for the McNamara brothers, it did permit the engagement of five attorneys, whereas the state was represented by but two, District Attorney Atwill and his assistant.

The floor leader of the corps of lawyers for the prisoners was W. Scott Peters, a former district attorney, dubbed familiarly by his successor and pupil as "the old fox of Essex County." Caruso was represented by Joseph H. Sisk, an attorney who has figured in many Massachusetts murder cases. For his personal attorney Ettor had John P. S. Mahoney of Lawrence, who was the first lawyer of standing to be associated with the operatives and early in the strike became their counsel. The two other men in the legal force of the defense were George E. Roewer, Jr., a Socialist of Boston, and Fred H. Moore, a member of the Industrial Workers of the World, from Los Angeles.

The attorneys were aided in the selection of the jury by Robert Reid, a former Salemite who investigated the records of all the eligible jurors as he had done in several other big cases in New England. Practically a week, not counting a long intermission for enrolling a second panel of 360 jurors, was required for the selection of the twelve men who were to decide the fate of the three prisoners. The large representation of workmen on the jury reflects the successful jockeying of the defense. Though the judge refused to allow the lawyers for the prisoners to examine the jurors about their financial investments in Lawrence woolen mills, the jury was satisfactory to the prisoners.



Police Magistrate Mahoney in Lawrence, February 9. In a clash between the police and a crowd of strikers on the evening of January 29, Anna Lopizzo was killed. Ettor and Giovannitti who, as Industrial Workers of the World leaders had come from New York to throw themselves into the strike and weld it into their movement for revolutionary industrial unionism, were charged with inflaming the actual murderer by a propaganda of violence.

The commonwealth obviously faced the task of proving two things. One was that strikers, or their sympathizers, fired the shot. The other was that a convincing connection existed between their acts and those of the strike leaders, a point involving far-reaching issues of strike leadership and responsibility.

The evidence on both points proved insufficient. The man who fired the shot was not surely identified. He was described by the state as Salvatore Scuito or a "person unknown." Scuito was never apprehended and it was not for weeks that Joseph Caruso, an Italian workman who before the strike had been working in the Lawrence mills for a few dollars a week, was arrested as a principal. Witnesses for the state testified that a shot aimed at Policeman Benoit had missed its mark and killed a fellow striker. The defense produced witnesses who swore that Policeman Benoit himself fired several shots toward Mrs. Lopizzo. The police denied this. To refute the imputation of the defense, the state showed that the bullet which killed the woman was of different caliber than the official police arm of the Lawrence force. The trial did not bring out strong evidence definitely connecting Caruso, charged as a principal, with the actual marksman. The most damaging testimony against him was that he stabbed Policeman Benoit, and an indictment for assault with intent to kill is pending against him. He claims an alibi; and it is to be noted that up to the time of his arrest he had made no effort to leave Massachusetts.

As evidence and proof of a propaganda of violence, the state introduced testimony concerning speeches made by Ettor and Giovannitti. The natural and intended consequence of these, the district attorney argued, was an organized attack upon the street cars to intimidate those going to work and the disturbance on the evening of January 29 when Anna Lopizzo lost her life.

Only one markedly inflammatory statement to the strikers was attributed to Giovannitti. Two detectives in the service of the Callahan agency declared that in a speech in Italian he told his listeners to sleep in the daytime and prowl around at night like wild animals. The witnesses admitted that they had destroyed their notes of the speech. One of the few other points which were seriously urged against him was his signature on a justly censured circular for which he and Ettor disclaimed responsibility.

Partly at least because Ettor's speeches were delivered in English, the brunt of the evidence was directed at him. The doctrines of direct action held by leading exponents of the Industrial Workers of the World were read into the record, and Ettor's position in the Anarchist wing of the industrial unionists was made clear. Stress was placed upon statements quoted from him that Lawrence would be an unhappy city and that the strikers would keep the gun shops busy. By the first of these, according to the defense, Ettor referred to an impending strike of the power-house employes which would have left Lawrence in darkness and without street-car service. He contended that the second statement was his way of protesting against the issuance of revolver permits to special policemen and mill representatives. If the strikers asked for the same privilege, he argued, their wholesale applications would show how dangerous it was to allow private individuals on either side to carry deadly weapons in a time of industrial conflict. The plain advocacies of violence to be found in St. John's history of the Industrial Workers of the World were declared by Ettor to be personal views of the author, with which he did not agree and along which the Lawrence committee had not acted. The defense produced ministers, whose veracity the prosecution admitted, who testified to the innocent intent of Ettor's speeches. And finally the judge's charge removed the possibility of death for Ettor and Giovannitti because it limited the jury to a verdict of murder in the second degree.<sup>1</sup>

The great strength of the defense, proved to be the testimony of these two men themselves. Exact in details, Ettor gave a wonderful exhibition of memory. Day by day he recalled not only the events that had taken place, but recited the words of his speeches.

"Do you remember," Mr. Attwill would say, "that in the police court I asked you so and so, and you replied so and so?"

"I do not," Ettor would counter. "I did say in substance what you have just read, but it was in answer to another and a subsequent question, not the one with which you seek to connect it."

In a long and weary cross examination Ettor was master.

When the trial was all but over, the two Italian labor leaders, moved by what proved to be a true inspiration, disregarded the advice of their coun-

<sup>1</sup>From a legal standpoint, the prosecution, despite able personal work by the district attorney, did not make out a strong, compelling case. A number of close observers believe that the defense could have safely rested when the prosecution did and omitted all evidence in rebuttal. Some of the state's best witnesses were shown to have been convicted of various offenses so that their testimony was discounted.

The defense, however, partly offset this advantage by clumsy handling of their case. Perhaps this was due to lack of perfect team work between the five attorneys representing the prisoners. Some of their witnesses played into the hands of the state. One of the attorneys for the labor leaders, largely through overwork and worry, failed to take full advantage of his opportunities.



sel and made the most dramatic plea for freedom or for death that has been heard in Massachusetts within the memory of lawyers and veteran newspapermen. In an impassioned speech of mingled defiance, persuasion and appeal, Ettor protested against being tried for his social ideals. He put it:

"If you believe that we should not go out with our views, I only ask that you will place the responsibility full on us, and say to the world that Joseph J. Ettor and Arthur Giovannitti, because of their social ideals, became murderers and murdered one of their own sister strikers, and you will by your verdict say plainly that we should die for it. . . . I neither offer apology nor excuse; I ask no favors; I ask for nothing but justice in this matter."

But after all, Ettor's speech was not the one which carried away the hearers and left a spell over the court room till the trial was finished. Speaking publicly for the first time in English, Arturo Giovannitti, slender, pale, trembling, courteous always rather than assertive, showed himself truly the poet who lives, as well as writes with ink on paper.<sup>1</sup> His final sentences choked

<sup>1</sup>Excerpts from the verse Giovannitti wrote in prison were published in *THE SURVEY* for November 2.

up some of the reporters, busy as they were trying to take them down:

"And if it be that these hearts of ours must be stilled on the same death chair and by the same current of fire that has destroyed the life of the wife murderer and the patricide and parricide, then I say that tomorrow we shall pass into a greater judgment, that tomorrow we shall go from your presence into a presence where history shall give its last word to us."

"In twenty years of reporting I have never heard the equal of that speech," said a veteran reporter, at the end of the trial. And, as a final bit of contrast, the old court crier, stocky of build as Joe Ettor himself, but clear-skinned, sharp-nosed and with the look of the fifer in the familiar prints of "The Spirit of '76," opened toothless gums and droned the formula which has closed the sittings of the Massachusetts courts of even handed justice since the founding of the state:

"Hear ye; hear ye; all persons having anything to do before the honorable, the justices of the Superior Court now sitting in Salem, draw near and give your attention. Know all ye that the September term of the Superior Court is now adjourned without day. God save the commonwealth of Massachusetts."

## BOYS AND LOCK-UPS

LOUISE DE KOVEN BOWEN

PRESIDENT JUVENILE PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION

**T**HE Juvenile Court Law of the state of Illinois extends to all boys under seventeen and all girls under eighteen years of age. It should be amended so that any person under twenty-one years may be brought into this court, rather than into the police court. At present, if a boy just over seventeen commits a crime, he is tried in the criminal court and thus identified with the worst criminals in the community.

Some time ago the attention of the Juvenile Protective Association was called to the large number of "juvenile adults"—that is, boys and girls between the ages of seventeen and twenty-one years of age—who were confined in the county jail. The association made an investigation and found that in the year 1911, 1,328 boys and 61 girls under twenty-one years of age were confined there.

It decided to study the cases of one hundred of these boys. This inquiry took the investigator into the police stations where the boys and girls are first taken when arrested. Some of these police stations are indescribably bad; the cells are in the basements which are dingy, damp and unsanitary and generally unfit for human habitation; the surface of the brick walls is rough and unclean; very few of the cells

have any sanitary conveniences; most of them have either buckets which are unspeakably vile, or troughs which are supposedly flushed with water. As a rule, the sewage is entirely neglected.

Many of these cells are not only filthy but they are breeding places for contagious diseases. In one station there are eight cells in a row, five for men and three for women; there is a trough running through these cells which, according to the attendant, "works very badly." This lack of proper provision for prisoners is not only a public nuisance, according to the Chicago code, and a crime against those incarcerated in the cells, but a menace to the community at large.

According to the Police Department report for 1911, 81,648 persons were locked up in the police stations that year. The greater number of them were kept in the cells over Saturday and Sunday nights, these nights being in the words of the police "the busiest evenings of the week." Of this number 9,840 were women and 1,380 young girls. Under the above conditions one can realize the utter degradation of a "lock-up" over night in one of these stations. To appreciate fully the danger these cells are to the community, it must be remembered that a large number of innocent people are confined



there. Out of the 81,648 people arrested last year, 49,934 were discharged by the municipal court when their cases came up for trial; these people were presumably innocent. Of the women alone, 1,920 were arrested only to be held as witnesses. Would such inefficiency be tolerated in other enterprises, public or private? Undoubtedly if the police were not promoted according to the number of arrests made, so large a number of innocent people would not be subjected to this unpleasant experience.

Again, the police officers frequently make arrests without warrants. This, of course, is "permissible by anyone for a criminal offense committed or attempted in his presence, or when he has reasonable ground for believing that the person being arrested has committed a crime," but it is unusual and dangerous, as a case like the following will show.

Two young girls recently came to Chicago from a neighboring town, hoping to find work. They lived with their sister, a working girl, in two cheap but extremely clean rooms in a respectable lodging house. They were unable to find work and were entirely dependent upon the meager income of the younger sister. One night they met, through a friend, a young man who invited them to dinner. The hungry girls accepted with pleasure, but when, at the close of the evening, the young man wished to return with them to their room, the girls protested and forcibly locked the door against him. The man threatened to have them arrested before morning and kept his promise, for at four o'clock a police officer appeared at the door without a warrant, and took the girls to the police station where they were lodged in a cell for the remainder of the night. They were given bread and water for breakfast and were told that if they wanted coffee or anything else they must pay for it. The effect of this experience upon two young and innocent girls can well be imagined.

The cells are often so crowded with inmates that it is impossible for them to sit down. The writer has seen them in this condition. There are ordinances requiring that lodging-houses provide 400 cubic feet of air for each inmate, but there are no laws or ordinances requiring that similar provision be made for prisoners in the police stations. The drinking cups and dishes are never sterilized; they are used indiscriminately by all the inmates, many of whom are afflicted with venereal diseases. The Board of Health has the right to quarantine a place where contagious illness is found, but many of these police stations which are simply breeding places for disease are left untouched! Our Illinois law forbids the use of the common drinking cup in public places; should it not go farther and provide for the sterilization of eating utensils in jails and police stations where not

only the innocent, but also the morally defective, should at least be protected from physical ills?

Another wrong committed in these stations is the failure to make a proper classification of prisoners. At present, comparatively decent men are put in with the indecent. Innocent girls and prostitutes are often cellmates!

Out of the hundred cases investigated, ten boys complained of police abuse; six said that their arrest had not been reported to their parents, one mother only learning of the arrest of her child through the newspapers. There are many serious charges against the police officers; one boy was beaten with a billy and sand bag, knocked down three times and kicked—all in an endeavor to make him confess to something he had not done. Another was taken by the throat, hit on the mouth and a tooth knocked out. Another was taken into a small room and beaten with a billy, this in an effort to get information against other boys. Another had cold water poured over him with the threat that if he did not confess he would be treated in the same way with hot water. Such methods are sure to arouse hatred and opposition and will certainly never increase the boys' respect for the law.

Another injustice in the police stations is the "mugging" system. When a boy or a man is arrested and held to the grand jury by the municipal court, his photograph and measurements are taken, an impression of his thumb is made and these are placed in the rogues' gallery. The captain of the identification bureau stated that in 1911, 5,338 cases were brought to this bureau for photographs and description. Out of this number 2,383 were found guilty and sentenced to some penal institution; the other 2,955 were discharged, presumably innocent, but their pictures and descriptions remained in the rogues' gallery. It also appeared that the poorer prisoners who were unable to secure bail were "mugged" while awaiting trial by the criminal court, and those able to find someone to go on their bond were not subjected to this disgrace. Are we so proud of our criminal records that we must add to their number by putting a stigma on innocent people from which they can never escape?

The investigation also showed that first offenders in the jail were often treated by the court with the same severity as those brought in for the third and fourth time. There seems to be great inequality in the treatment of prisoners charged with the same offence, some first offenders being sent to prison and others, brought in for the third and fourth time, being placed on probation.

For example, out of ten accused persons brought in for the first time on a serious charge, only one was put on probation; the others were held over to the grand jury or convicted. Of five who were brought in for the second time, two were put on probation, and out of three



brought in for the third time, one was put on probation. In other cases boys would be held awaiting the action of the grand jury for weeks, or even months, and then the grand jury would find that there was no evidence against them. Out of eight cases held to the grand jury by one judge, three were dismissed because no bill was returned, two were found not guilty and one was discharged by the criminal court.

I recall one especially pathetic case where a boy had been arrested charged with a certain crime. He declared his innocence and was held without bail. Our association became interested in him and he was allowed to leave the jail, giving his own bond for his reappearance. The charge preyed on the boy's mind; he could not sleep or eat and became pale and thin, the shadow of a possible conviction darkening his life. The day that the grand jury returned no bill finding the evidence insufficient to hold him to the criminal court he was found dead in his room with the gas turned on; he had ended his life because he could not bear the suspense and thought of a possible prison sentence.

The association also found that there was great exploitation of boys in the county jail by attorneys who sought them out promising to "get them off." In many cases the attorney made no effort to defend the boy. In others, he took money from the parents and never appeared when the case was called for trial. In this connection, does it not seem as if it would be advisable to have a public defender for the poor people who are arrested and brought into the county jail? We have a public prosecutor, why not a public defender?

The investigation emphasizes the fact that only three out of the hundred boys had a trade. Only six had been allowed to work at the occupation which they really desired. Most of them had been put to work at anything obtainable. Sixty-six had begun to earn their living at fourteen years of age or younger. According to the government reports, the wages of unskilled laborers who leave school before they are fourteen increase slowly from \$3 to \$10 per week until they are twenty years of age. Here they remain stationary until they are forty years of age when their earning capacity again begins to decline.

Out of the 1,328 boys in the jail, 721 had been engaged in unskilled occupations. Nineteen boys had wished to become machinists; out of this number, four drove wagons, one was a farmer, three were messenger boys, one an office boy, four were laborers, three were errand boys in stores, one was a chauffeur and two were grocery clerks.

This study of one hundred cases shows the need of some plan which would make it easier for prisoners to be released on bond between the preliminary hearing by the municipal judge and indictment by the grand jury. The amount of

bond is often very high; in one case \$3,000 was required as bond for a \$40 larceny. The parents of these boys are often unable to secure bondsmen and their grief at being parted from their children, and their feeling of disgrace at leaving them in jail, can well be imagined.

Many of the boys in the jail were found guilty of serious offences, but a large number—599 out of 1,328—had been arrested for their first offence. One of the boys arrested had started to go fishing and had stolen a ride on a freight train. Finding that the train did not stop at the little lake where he intended to fish, he pulled the air brake and got off. He was promptly arrested and charged with an "attempt at train wrecking." Conviction was followed by sentence to prison. The Juvenile Protective Association produced new evidence and the state's attorney changed the charge. A motion was made to vacate the order of the court and the boy was put on probation. He has made good in the position found for him, and the state has secured a good citizen and has been saved the burden and expense of a criminal.

Unfortunately, the law does not take into consideration whether the prisoner is young or old, a first offender or a hardened criminal. It does not provide any means by which the judge can learn his previous history, his heredity or environment. It is exactly the same, someone has said, as if a physician administered the same medicine to every patient when his temperature rose to a certain height, without making any inquiry as to symptoms, previous history or what led to the present illness. Many first offenders are not criminals by choice or at heart; they have yielded to some sudden and overwhelming temptation. If given another chance, if put under wise probational guidance and their environment readjusted, they would become good citizens.

On the contrary, with a prison sentence, the criminal comes forth hardened and disgraced, his hand against every man's and feeling that he has paid his full debt to society. It is said that nine-tenths of the serious crimes in England are committed by men who have served one or more terms of imprisonment. It therefore seems as if our present system should take more into account the human and individual side of the problem, prescribing such preventive and other measures as would seem best for the good of the person and the welfare of society. Such reflections are the result of the study of boys in the jail and police stations of Chicago, presumably typical of the thousands of boys found under similar conditions in every large city of America.





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## THE CHRISTMAS SEALS

PHILIP P. JACOBS

PLAYING "post office," not exactly in the osculatory manner in which it is done in the common parlor game, but in a way somewhat similar, was a game by which some of our mothers and grandmothers, and even some who read this page, helped to make a million dollars during the Civil War.

It was in 1862, when the northern hospitals were being taxed to their utmost to care for the thou-

sands of sick and wounded soldiers returning from the war that

some women in Boston and Brooklyn almost simultaneously hit upon the idea of having fairs, the features of which should be post offices where anyone could get a letter from anybody he wished to hear from, provided he

would pay the postage. Postage was in the form of "sanitary fair stamps" of varying denominations. The price was fixed by the generosity of the buyer.

These stamps were the forerunners of our popular Red Cross Seal and were the first of the thousands of charity stamps which now are sold all over the world. The Brooklyn fair is memorable for the \$400,000 realized, largely through the stamps sold. In Boston, Springfield, Albany, Stamford, and scores of other places sim-



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ilar fairs were held with like success, so that over a million dollars was collected between 1862 and 1865.

After the Civil War the stamp idea was forgotten until in 1892 when the Red Cross of Portugal revived it in its campaign for relief funds. Again the popularity of the appeal was demonstrated, and since that time, the "charity stamp" has found vogue in almost every part of the world from Iceland to Australia and from Russia to California.

The variety of purposes for which these stamps and seals are sold is almost as great as the number of places selling them. For example, soldiers' stamps are sold in Italy, Hungary, Roumania and elsewhere. In Austria there are over thirty different kinds of stamps for children's hospitals. Germany has 300 or more kinds of

*Wohlfahrtsmarken* sold in almost as many different ways. In England missionary organizations and churches sell stamps for their special funds. Stamps for memorial funds and stamps commemorating some special event such as the coronation of King George V., the proceeds of which are used for charitable purposes, are common also. In Roumania, Denmark, Russia and other European countries, special



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stamps of this character are good for postage, the additional charge for the charitable fund being added to the ordinary postage cost.

Practically all these European stamps, however, are sold throughout the year, and except in a few instances, sales campaigns at certain seasons

of the year are not undertaken. Notable exceptions are in Norway, Sweden and Denmark, where special stamps for tuberculosis funds have been issued since 1904, and where active campaigns during the holiday seasons are usually carried on. The movement is waning, seemingly, in these countries each year, largely because other national movements are taking their place.

The United States has led the world in demonstrating the possibilities of an organized movement for the sale of seals or stamps. When, in 1907 Emily P. Bissell of Wilmington, Del., seized upon Jacob Riis's suggestion in the *Outlook* that someone in this country pattern after Norwegian and Swedish tuberculosis stamps, little did she think of the possibilities that she had opened up. From a sale of \$3,000 in 1907, limited to a very small area in and around Philadelphia and Wilmington, the Red Cross Seal sale last year reached a total of over \$330,000 and spread into almost every part of the United States, including our insular possessions and the Canal Zone. Nearly \$1,000,000 has been realized since 1908, when the American Red Cross issued, at Miss Bissell's persuasion, the first seal for the benefit of the national anti-tuberculosis move-

ment. And, if the present organization is any indication of success, the sale this year should exceed by several thousands of dollars that of last year.

A few of the factors that have contributed to the success of the Red Cross Seal campaign should be noted. First, there is the careful and energetic organization, beginning with the national agent and running down through state agents, and local agents to the army of nearly 50,000 sub-agents. Next, the vital publicity work on tuberculosis with which the six weeks before Christmas is turned into an educational campaign; and third, the distribution of the proceeds. By far the largest percentage, from 75 to 90 per cent. of the receipts, remain in the local communities where the seals are sold. Hundreds of local forms of anti-tuberculosis work have been financed in this way. Indeed, it is not too much to say that in some of the states leading in this campaign the anti-tuberculosis movement would be poorly organized today if it were not for these Red Cross Seals.



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## KEY

1. First tuberculosis stamp in America issued by Delaware Red Cross Society in 1907.
2. Red Cross Seal, 1910.
3. Red Cross Seal, 1911.
4. Red Cross Seal, 1909.
5. First National Red Cross Seal, 1908.
6. A Vienna stamp for working girls' home.
7. Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association, stamp, 1909.
8. A German Red Cross Charity stamp.
9. California Association stamp with Los Angeles imprint, 1909.
10. California Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis Stamp, 1909.
11. California Association stamp with Redlands imprint, 1910.
12. National Sanatorium Association (Canada) stamp, 1911.
13. Royal Edward Institute (Montreal) stamp, 1911.
14. An Austrian missionary stamp.
15. An Austrian Soldiers' Relief Fund Stamp.
16. A 600th year jubilee stamp.
17. An English mission stamp.
18. First Swedish Tuberculosis Stamp, 1904.
19. Swedish Tuberculosis Stamp, 1905.
20. Danish Tuberculosis Stamp, 1905.



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GEIMAAAT SUREA AMERICANEA  
EXHIBITION

FRIDAY MAY the 5th 1911  
93 TYLER st:

From 7 To 10 P M  
BOSTON, Mass.

المعرض الذي تعرضه الجمعية السورية الاميركية  
في ٥ ايار سنة ١٩١١ من الساعة ٧-١٠ مساء في ٩٣ شارع تيلر  
هذا المعرض سيحتوي على تحف مصنوعة من خشب او معدن  
واشياء مدهونة كذلك بضاعة حربية وخر وحة شغل ابد وتطريز  
والاشياء المصنوعة من قش كالسلات وما اشبه المجلوبة من سوريا  
بواسطة السوريين كذلك اشياء من شغل السوريين في موطن  
ومعروضات من التجار السوريين بظهور ابضائع التي ياجرون بها

A  
CHRISTMAS  
MYSTERY  
PLAY AT  
DENISON  
HOUSE

LAURA E.  
LOCKWOOD  
WELLESLEY COLLEGE

CHRISTMAS week at Denison House in Boston, the college settlement on Tyler Street, is full to the last moment. I asked the privilege of residence during this week, but I admit with the idea of remaining merely an on-looker. I found myself, however, before the end of the first day swept into the current of life, filled with the spirit of service and busy every moment with hands and head. I saw in a new light the problem of helping the peoples of various nationalities to become like us in sympathy and citizenship.

The men and women who interested me most were of the Syrian group. Their dark, eager faces and bright black eyes, their enthusiasm and earnestness made work with them an exciting pleasure. In 1910, they formed, with the aid and co-operation of their friends at Denison House, a neighborhood club called the *Geimaat Surea Americana*. This club, meeting once a month, numbers at present eighty-five members, and is composed of men and women, both young and old. The meetings are devoted to reading, to music, to short speeches, on various civic or educational topics; and they always close with a social hour of conversation and neighborly talk. Occasionally a hall is hired, and the club invites all the Syrians to listen to addresses by prominent men and women of Boston on the educational or industrial opportunities offered by the city. These open meetings are well attended, and the men and women listen with an interest which clearly shows their eagerness to learn the ways of their adopted country.

Perhaps the most ambitious undertaking of the *Geimaat* was the giving, during Christmas week of 1911, of Miss Buckton's play of Eager Heart. That love of the dramatic, which is so fundamental in us all, Denison House recognizes and uses wisely to hold and to entertain the many young people of the neighborhood. So the club

wanted to give a play, and Eager Heart was chosen because it seemed peculiarly to lend itself to an oriental interpretation. The play being chosen, a committee of three was appointed to have full charge of the work. This committee consisted of Rasheed Abdounour, Nasim Khouri, and Gertrude Tebbutt. Rehearsals began November 15, and had to include not only the regular work of interpreting lines, character, and action, but also the correct pronunciation of English. All the parts, except that of Mary, were taken by young men. The task from all points of view seemed exceedingly difficult, but success was made possible by the devotion of the committee and the two coaches,—Mr. Clark for the dramatic action and Mr. Updegraff for the English enunciation; and by the faithfulness of the cast in attending rehearsals and in following with intelligence the instructions given.

The costumes were all loaned by members of the colony, and so much was zealously pressed upon the committee that double the number of actors could well have been provided for. The various articles of furniture for the stage—table, lamp, rugs—were also from the homes of the people. Denison House has no room large enough for dramatic purposes, and, while all the rehearsals took place at the settlement, the play itself could not be given there. Hence a neighboring church with a seating capacity of about four hundred was hired. The young Syrian men, under Mrs. Tebbutt's direction, decorated it with Christmas greens, built a small stage in front of the platform, massed a number of little evergreen trees at the side of the stage to screen the musicians, put up the curtains, and arranged all the furniture.

The play was given three times, on the evenings of December 28, 29 and 30, once as a dress rehearsal and twice as a regular performance. The house was full on each of these three even-





#### THE CASTE OF EAGER HEART

A Christmas mystery play, produced by Syrians at Denison House, Boston.

ings, and many who wanted to see the play could not obtain tickets. The Syrians on the committee guaranteed half the expenses, and no admission fee was charged, as they wished especially that the play should be the contribution of the club toward the entertainment of the Syrian colony. The half for which the American part of the club agreed to provide was contributed by friends of the members. The tickets then being free must be distributed, and one of the most difficult tasks of the committee was the wise distribution of these eagerly desired favors.

The play, as I witnessed it, seemed to me very impressive, because of the simplicity, dignity, and sincerity with which the parts were taken and the lines spoken. These young men wore their dress of course with such ease as could never have been acquired by American youths; they were unaccustomed to the stage, yet they stood without self-consciousness, moved naturally and without awkwardness. The English words, it is true, were not always pronounced with exact correctness, although far more so than I had expected, but they were always easily understood. The play was, however, excellent chiefly because the actors truly understood and felt the spirit of the Christmas story of the Christ, and with unaffected earnestness conveyed that feeling to the audience. I had seen the far more elaborate presentation of this same play by Americans in Copley Hall, but that rendering was by no means so impressive as was this. The Syrian faces, the oriental costumes, the simply spoken lines, the dark, eager faces of

the audience gave unity and intensity to the thought of the expected appearance of the great King and of his simple coming. The music, rendered by a group of Syrian girls under the leadership of Marguerite Fiske, with Elizabeth Lincoln and Bertha Bigelow as first and second violin, admirably introduced, interpreted, and supported the lines of the actors.

The audience, four-fifths Syrian, listened intently to the end of the program, although few of them could have understood all the English words and phrases, and some of them did not understand any at all. Nearly all the men speak English, it is true, but to use a language in everyday affairs, and quickly to grasp the unusual words and groupings of words in a play are two very different things. Before each act Dr. Khouri told in Arabic the story of what was to follow. Yet even so some restlessness would have been excusable, for the play has little striking action and the plot evolves slowly. The quiet attention showed respect for the play and interest in this undertaking of the club. The next morning I asked the keeper of a small shop whether he had seen the play. His face brightened, and he answered at once, "Oh, yes, very good, very good. I go again tonight, if I can get ticket." And this seemed to be the sentiment of all those present.

The hearty co-operation of Syrians and Americans in this colony certainly shows that each nationality appreciates the other, and that each is grateful for what the other brings to the common pleasure and the common education.





## AREQUIPA SANATORIUM

WHERE A TUBERCULOUS PATIENT CAN BE CURED WITHOUT EXPENSE TO HIMSELF OR ANYONE ELSE

\* RICHARD C. CABOT, M. D.

**A** SANATORIUM where patients can earn the cost of their maintenance, where they can sit at ease out of doors all the year round in one of the loveliest spots of beautiful California and make pottery so finished and so exquisite that the demand for it exceeds the supply,—that is what Dr. Philip King Brown has established at Arequipa, an hour by rail from San Francisco, near the little town of Fairfax, in Marin County. It sounds too good to be true, and I could scarcely have believed it if I had not seen it and lived near it for some weeks last summer.

Patients do some work at other sanatoria. They work at Frimley in England, for instance, and at Endawood near Baltimore, but there they work for their health and earn nothing. They work at the Oakes Home in Denver, at Rutland, Mass., and at Trudeau in the Adirondacks, but what they earn in these hospitals does not pay their bills.

What is done at Arequipa is done, so far as I know, nowhere else in the world.

The great curse of tuberculosis to all but

the rich (in whom it is relatively rare) is not the physical suffering it entails, but the serious expense of so long and wearing an illness stretching over months and years and the ravage which long idleness makes in the patient's character. Despondency pulls down some patients as seriously as the disease itself. Restlessness drives others into every sort of vice and folly which sanatoria endeavor in many ways to conceal and control. To conquer these evils through work, and still more through the encouragement given patients by the money which they earn, is Dr. Brown's great achievement.

How is it done?

In the first place, through the energy and ingenuity of his superintendent, he gets his milk, cream, eggs and butter direct from the farmer and without the intervention of any middleman. The village middleman tried hard to conceal the source of his supplies, but the superintendent scoured the country on horseback till he found it. This saving and the warmth of the climate are probably the chief elements which keep the total cost of care at Arequipa at \$7 a week,





DINING ROOM FIREPLACE

laundry included, the lowest figure that I know of in institutions giving a high type of care, such as Arequipa provides.

Next Dr. Brown succeeded through the commercial value of the pottery made by the patients. There are no invested funds and no income for the institution except the sale of pottery and the money paid in by friends of patients who are not well enough to work. Yet now at the end of its first year (October, 1912) there is no deficit and no debt. This is due chiefly to three people, Philip King Brown himself, Frederick H. Rhead, head of the pottery work, and Nora Harn-don, superintendent of the sanatorium.

Mr. Rhead came from Staffordshire, England (Arnold Bennett's country) and represents the fifth generation of potters in a single family. While head of the department of pottery in the People's University at St. Louis, he passed through San Francisco on a lecturing tour, fell



SOME OF THE OUTPUT

in love with California and with Dr. Brown's idea of self-support for tuberculous patients, agreed to give up his position and handsome salary in St. Louis and undertake the task of establishing a self-supporting pottery as part of Arequipa Sanatorium. All that he asked was a guarantee of his living expenses for six months. Within six months he said he hoped to make the work self-supporting; within twelve months he actually did so. This extraordinary success has been due to Mr. Rhead's expert knowledge of pottery, to his unusual skill as a teacher of untrained girls, to his genuine interest in the problem and to his tireless industry. At present the demand for the pottery exceeds the supply. San Francisco dealers are eager to get it and pay for it as soon as they receive it.

But are there no dangers to the girls' health in this work? None, I believe, under the careful medical supervision which they receive. A trained nurse, herself a patient, works in the shop and watches the effects of the work upon the girls. Each begins with an hour's work daily. Her temperature is taken before and after her work and if any fever follows work she is taken away from the shop and not allowed to go back till she can do so without producing any fever or other sign of overfatigue. The girls are paid by the piece, but few work more than four hours a day and none of them work on Saturdays or Sundays. In these few hours weekly, most of the girls can earn enough (after the first few weeks) to pay all their expenses at the sanatorium.

The dangers of clay dust and lead poisoning are avoided by cleanliness and an abundance of fresh air. The main work room is open on two sides and another work room on four sides. The climate makes it possible to do this work out of doors almost any day in the year. Moderate temperature, plenty of sunshine, no dampness or fog (such as San Franciscans have to bear in summer) makes Arequipa an ideal place for such work. Perched among live oaks on a hill side overlooking a beautiful valley, its lovely situation has no doubt an influence in keeping the patients happy and content.

Thirty-five acres of land for the sanatorium were given to Dr. Brown by Henry E. Bothin of Ross, a neighboring town. Mr. Bothin heard of Dr. Brown's project and was so much impressed by it that he called upon him and offered the land quite unsolicited.

Dr. Brown accepts as a rule only incipient cases. He has room at present for only twenty-three patients at a time. Yet here as in every other sanatorium it is hard to get them to give up work and face the task of treatment while still in the early stages of the disease. In the hope of solving the different problems of getting hold of the girls before it is too late to cure them, Dr. Brown has laid the matter before the organizations of employes in some of the San Francisco department stores, and these organizations have now established the precedent of paying at Arequipa the board of members of their organization who have acquired tuberculosis (after at least one year's membership in



the organization) and are not able to support themselves in the pottery.

The Pacific States Telephone Company has also maintained one of its tuberculous employes at Arequipa and indicated its willingness to do more. This sort of connection with the employes of large business concerns is one that is essential so long as the majority of doctors cannot or will not recognize tuberculosis in its early stages, and cannot or do not persuade patients to undergo sanatorium treatment.

The care of the tuberculous in California is still on a commercial basis. Except for the rich, there are only a few small sanatoria. The City and County Hospital in San Francisco admits

who supplied warehouses in many parts of the Pacific Coast and Middle West requesting a contract for a larger allotment of the output.

But to me one of the most impressive things about the Arequipa Sanatorium is the fact that it is the work of one busy doctor who raised the money to build it (about \$25,000) within a few months, and now superintends it by a weekly visit and many telephone messages. Building was started with only \$10,000 in sight. Yet now at the end of its first year the institution is in a flourishing condition and free from debt.

Indeed it has flourished so well that "cured" patients do not want to leave it and go back to stenography, telephone operating or house work.



PATIENTS  
AT  
WORK

so many tuberculous patients in the last stages that the death rate has reached 20 per cent a month. A hospital where one-fifth of your companions die each month is not an inviting place to go for treatment and in fact few go there if they can possibly help it.

I passed a considerable part of three days at Arequipa and during that time never heard a patient cough. I found the buildings of the best modern type, the table excellent and the patients more cheerful and lively than in any sanatorium that I can remember. The pottery that I saw them making was so beautiful that I could hardly believe that these unskilled girls could produce it. I saw a letter from a dealer

They prefer to earn their living in this beautiful and cheerful place by making pottery. Two such cured patients are now living in the neighboring village of Fairfax and coming daily to work at the sanatorium pottery. Just the right thing for them; just the way to prevent a relapse of the disease. But obviously if many girls did this, there would soon be no room in the pottery for patients still under treatment. Hence, Dr. Brown has been forced to turn away girls whom he would gladly keep in the pottery were there room for them without crowding out the patients.

This dilemma has suggested to him the build-



ing of a large pottery, distinct from the sanatorium workshop but under the same management. Here the apparently cured tuberculous patients, the deaf, the partially crippled and other handicapped persons will supply the labor and reap the benefits. Dr. Brown has no desire to employ healthy persons or to compete in the industrial world; he wants to continue the experiment of trying to make handicapped people

self-supporting, and he believes that if the tuberculous can supply the labor of a self-supporting pottery such as he is now maintaining, it must be possible to get as competent help from the deaf or from the other members of the physically handicapped group.

A Utopian project some will say. But is it more Utopian than what has already been established at Arequipa?

## HOUSING THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION

ROSCOE C. EDLUND

ASSISTANT TO GENERAL DIRECTOR RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION

**G**ROUND was broken in July for the Russell Sage foundation Building, New York, and concrete foundation piers are now being put in. When the building is completed all the departments of this organization which require office space in New York will be housed under one roof. Five and a half years ago the Foundation, then at the beginning of its work, had but two small offices. Two years later, although it was carrying on important investigations and assisting campaigns of education and improvement in many places, its regular staff occupied only four rooms. Now, with three departments on different floors of the Bank of the Metropolis Building in Union Square, with another occupying a floor in the Metropolitan Tower, and with two others, the library and the administrative offices, on three floors of the United Charities Building, the members of its staff, upwards of a hundred in number, look forward to being in closer touch with each other's activities in quarters specially designed for their work. The new building should mean increased efficiency in the Foundation's work and a wider and closer co-operation with others who are engaged in "the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States."

The departments of the Foundation include: the Child Helping Department, which is endeavoring to improve conditions surrounding dependent, neglected, and delinquent children; the Department of Child Hygiene, whose aim is to promote public health, recreation, and education, especially of children; the Charity Organization Department, whose aim is to promote the better organization of charities; the Division of Remedial Loans, which is conducting a campaign against loan sharks and encouraging the organization of remedial loan societies; the Investigation of Women's Work, which is gathering facts regarding the conditions of work of women in New York; and the newly organized Department of Surveys and Exhibits which will be a clearing house for advice and information on social surveys and exhibits. Space will also be provided in the new building for the administrative offices of the Foundation and for its editorial staff.

The site is the southwest corner of Lexington

Avenue and East 22d Street, diagonally across from the United Charities Building, where the central offices of the Foundation now are.

With a frontage of ninety-five feet on East 22d Street, the building has a depth of sixty-six feet along Lexington Avenue and runs back to the Princeton Club, which occupies the rest of the street front between it and Gramercy Park. A large court to be cut from the southwest corner of the building above the first floor, together with a small open area adjoining the Princeton Club on the west, assures to every room abundant light and air.

The building is to be nine stories in height, but the substructure will be made strong enough to bear three stories more in case the work of the Foundation expands so as to make this additional space necessary. It will be constructed of Kingwood sandstone, a light brown stone with a pinkish tinge that as yet has been used for only one building in New York, the Synod Hall of the Cathedral of St. John the Divine now under construction. The blocks will have the natural rough face with deep rustication. The architect, Grosvenor Atterbury, is also the architect of Forest Hills Gardens, the suburban development of the Russell Sage Foundation on Long Island. The design of the building is in restrained Florentine style. There is little ornament save the shield above the main entrance and shields around the second story. Loggias overlook the street from the library in the two upper stories.

On the main floor of the building along the Lexington Avenue side will be a lecture room with a hundred seats and outside entrance to the street. The south side of the floor will be occupied by a large exhibit hall. The platform in the lecture room will be movable and the two halls may at any time be thrown into one, ready for a lecture, an exhibit, or a reception.

Offices for the departments of the Foundation, committee rooms, and workrooms, will occupy the second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh floors. In the eighth and ninth stories will be the library. On the ninth or mezzanine floor will be a lunch room and a rest room for women. The roof will be arranged for various uses. The building is to be fireproof, with a fire-tower separated from it by brick walls.





# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 11

December 14, 1912



SHOP EARLY

—By Henderson of the  
Pittsburgh Post

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**P**HILADELPHIA, in spite of many grave housing and, sanitary conditions, such as narrow, poorly drained alleys, presented to the delegates at the Second Annual Housing Conference December 4-6, a good example of a great municipality which continues to be a city of small individual homes. Nevertheless, Ambassador Bryce addressed a sympathetic audience when he declared at the conference that metropolitan advantages tend to reach their maximum in cities not exceeding 100,000 or 150,000 in population.

**D**O you think I need the courts to tell me that? Every human being knows it," exclaimed Justice Blackmar of the New York Supreme Court, interrupting the district attorney's plea that factory overwork of women saps the vitality of the race. Justice Blackmar was sitting in a case brought to test the constitutionality of the law limiting the labor of women to ten hours a day and fifty-four hours a week. P. 332.

**A**FTER a year's investigations the special committee on prison labor of the American Prison Association has reported in favor of a combination of the state use and state account systems. Contract labor in penal institutions is condemned, especially in states of over 2,000,000 inhabitants. P. 316.

**A**N interesting commentary on the plea made at this meeting for the intelligent use of libraries as instruments of reformation is the body of facts brought out by Miss Curtis and Mr. Jenkins concerning the worthless character of books usually set before law-breakers. Tommy Try and What He Did and School Girl's Garland—to cite two titles—are poor prison diet for men who ask for books on trades and English grammar. Pp. 320 and 323.

**T**HE states should aid local communities in establishing vocational schools which shall train boys and girls of fourteen for wage-earning occupations. This was the unanimous declaration of educators and social workers at Philadelphia last week. But whether these schools should be integral parts of the present system or constitute a dual system was matter for disagreement. P. 321.

**"I**T is more conceivable to imagine religion surviving the loss of the church than the loss of the family," declares Graham Taylor, who views the family as the most originating and persistent of all social organizations—"the common denominator in the social solution of the problems of human life." P. 329.

**T**O create "a bureau of distribution" within the Federal Department of Labor is the object of a bill now being drawn by the National Conference of Immigration, Land and Labor Officials. Among the duties of the bureau, it is

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planned, will be the supervision and protection of admitted immigrants in transit and the extension of the present federal facilities for distributing labor. P. 326.

**T**HE Balkan war and the Ninth International Socialist Congress, at Basel, Switzerland, are used as texts by Solon De Leon, son of the long-time leader of the Socialist Labor Party, to review Socialism "as a peace movement." P. 327.

**C**HURCH unity and church efficiency are impaired, says Frederic Almy, when "the fifty-seven varieties of the Protestant church pull in fifty-seven different ways at fifty-seven different times." An evidence that greater co-operation may be expected and an aid to that end, he thinks, is the social service report just published under direction of the Men and Religion Forward Movement. He hails it as a ringing call "from the church to the church." P. 330.

**O**UR bodies are only the wrappings for our souls. Our souls belong to Almighty God—and you had better be careful how you deal with God's property."—KATE BARNARD before the Legislature of Arizona.



# THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

VOLUME XXIX, No. 11

DECEMBER 14, 1912



McCutcheon in the Chicago Tribune.

A CHECK, A CARTOONIST, AND A CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY



## LABOR, IDLENESS AND IMPRISONMENT

Condemning the contract system but declaring that even contract prison labor is preferable to idleness, the special committee created at Omaha a year ago by the American Prison Association made report at the recent annual meeting in Baltimore. The Maryland Penitentiary was cited as an illustration of the evils of the contract system. A combination of the state use and state account systems was recommended.

It will be recalled that this committee was appointed last year in spite of the fact that prison labor did not appear on the program of the association, and only in response to a strong undercurrent of feeling that was brought to the surface by an appeal from Kate Barnard, commissioner of charities and correction of Oklahoma, who urged the association to investigate this subject. Frederick H. Mills, sales agent of state prisons of New York, was made chairman. The five other members were Joseph P. Byers, secretary of the New Jersey State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association; Miss Barnard; Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor; J. T. Gilmore, warden of Central Prison, Toronto, Canada; and Albert Garvin, warden of the state prison, Wethersfield, Conn. Nothing was said about the continuation of the committee, whose investigations were to extend over one year. The association adjourned this year without reappointing it.

Three evils in the contract system were singled out for mention in the committee's report:

In making such a contract, the state abdicates the very position which gives it the right of relationship as a police power.

It uses the sovereign power of the state to encourage unfair competition with its own citizens.

It loses control over the integrity of the prisoner as a workman and the power of dictation over the integrity of his work.

The report declares that the employment of prisoners should be directed entirely by the state and that the products of their labor should be disposed of by the state, and takes the position that

"it is possible for every state having a population of 2,000,000 inhabitants or more to employ all its convict population in manufacture of articles for the use of the state and its political divisions."

In support of its argument for the state use system, illustrations were drawn from New York where it was introduced fifteen years ago in the state institution. It will be recalled by SURVEY readers that a special commission, appointed by Governor Dix to examine the department of state

prisons in New York last spring has criticised the methods of administering the law on the ground that while it created a potential market for prison products, amounting to \$20,000,000 a year, the prison administration had failed to develop this large market or contest with private purveyors for important lines of government supplies.<sup>1</sup> The present committee, in passing on this situation in which its chairman is the central figure, makes answer that the law contemplates primarily the employment of the prisoners and that the sale of the product is incidental. "It is not the intention of the law that the prison should reach out for more than enough work than is necessary to keep the prisoners employed," it declares.

The committee illustrates the state account system by a description of the Minnesota State Prison at Stillwater, where this system was introduced in 1891. Since then the profit to the state from the binder twine plant alone has been over \$1,600,000 and the prisoners have earned from ten to fifty cents a day, according to their diligence and ability. Meantime, criticism has been directed against the state account system as applied there, both on the ground that the work does not fit the prisoners for productive labor once they are liberated and on the ground that it is not right that the state should realize a profit from the labor of convicts who themselves receive but a pittance. In answer to the second point, the report says:

"If the convict is employed in quarrying rock or some other equally unproductive labor, the state is put to a large expense for the maintenance of the prison, but then there are no critics to charge the state with robbing the unfortunate convict of his rights. But, let the state establish a modern industry, whereby it may employ its convicts on productive labor and by the profits of this industry support the institution without calling upon the taxpayer to foot the bill, even though that labor may be much less tedious than the monotonous rock-breaking and of much more value to the convict, and what is the result? The whole system will be criticised by those who have not taken the time to make a study of the prison labor problem. Their whole argument is based on the false premise that it is wrong for the state to receive any profits from the products of the prison labor. The compliance with this premise would result in inefficiency while efficiency is the keynote of our modern industrial system."

There seems to be something of a gap between this reasoning and that quoted with reference to the New York administration.

The final recommendation of the committee on the question of prison labor is as follows:

"The prisoners in every state should be so classified and grouped that labor, always directed

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY for April 13, 1912, p. 94.



by the state, can be provided suitable to the needs of each class of prisoners. A certain proportion of prisoners in each prison should be employed at farm work, road building, erection and other outside work. Another, and larger group, including all the remaining population, should be employed at productive industries in the manufacture of general merchandise, selected both with a view of trade instruction and utility of product. The products of such employment should be sold to and used by the state, so far as possible, and wherever the needs of the state are not sufficient to absorb the product they should be supplemented by products that can be used within the state where they are manufactured."

At this point the report trenches on the old line of conflict between prison administrators and the labor unions. Both the prisoner and the free man are regarded by the committee as having a right to work. The problem of prison labor, therefore, says their report, becomes one of adjustment to the right level. "This adjustment can only be made by the state and whenever it surrenders its control of this adjustment, it does an injustice to all its citizens."

In singling out the Maryland penitentiary as probably the best example of a highly developed contract prison in the country, the committee quotes the annual report of the warden of that institution to the effect that the prisoners had earned during the twenty-four years of his incumbency practically the same amount—over \$500,000—which had been paid into the state treasury. The committee then points out that whereas it is usual to employ from 20 to 33 per cent of the whole number of prisoners in the upkeep of the institution, only 7 per cent are so engaged in the Maryland institution, the other 93 per cent being on contract. No time, it is declared, is allowed for relaxation, "and the work hours are limited only by sunlight." The pay received by the prisoners is then shown to have been given them at the expense of certain necessities which are supplied to the prisoners free of charge in some other states. The amount of money given to discharged prisoners in Maryland averages much less than elsewhere, and the difference in the total cost of these items makes up, the report says, nearly the amount of money turned over last year to the state. On the opening evening Governor Goldsborough told the delegates that he had recently appointed a commission to investigate the Maryland State Penitentiary and to present a plan for modernizing prison methods in the state. The governor declared his unalterable opposition to the contract labor system.

While the discussion of prison problems at the recent conference of governors at Richmond, Va., with its flare up on lynching by Governor Cole Blease of South Carolina and its subsequent disavowal of his position by the other gov-



ernors, including several from his own section of the country, attracted a wider publicity in the newspapers, it did not take the wide range afforded by the program at Baltimore. Feeble-mindedness in its relation to penology was exhaustively discussed. It was declared that there are 200,000 feeble-minded persons in the United States and that fewer than one-third are in institutions. A disproportionate share of these seem to have been placed in penal institutions, for Hastings H. Hart, director of the Department of Child Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, estimated that 25 per cent of the adult prisoners in state prisons are feeble-minded. In many juvenile institutions, he said, the percentage runs as high as fifty and he cited one institution in which it reached sixty-eight. The number of feeble-minded women who secure husbands, it was declared, is three times that of feeble-minded men who secure wives and feeble-minded women of child bearing age should therefore be our first care. More thorough psychological examination of all law breakers was urged by such specialists as Henry H. Goddard of the New Jersey Training School for Feeble-minded, William Healey of Chicago and Warden Fernald of the Massachusetts Reformatory. Their demand was insistent that those who are shown to be sub-normal mentally must be segregated in institutions for permanent custodial care. There is still reluctance on the part of many wardens and superintendents, however, to accept the conclusions of these men concerning the extent and nature of feeble-mindedness in criminals.

The value of outdoor work on farms, roads and buildings was a matter of general agreement among the prison administrators. The inebriate is in especial need of the sun and the open air.



In this connection, it was contended that the honor system, even in case of short time prisoners in workhouses, is entirely practicable. This system does not mean that men must be trusted a hundred miles away from the prison, though this has been successfully done in Oregon. From many parts of the country came wardens who told of daily trusting several hundred men on work close to the prison without attempts at escape. Kansas, Washington, Colorado, Arizona and the District of Columbia are only a few of the states which have recently adopted this plan. At Comstock where Warden Homer is in charge of the latest New York state prison, a Saturday afternoon ball game has become a regular reward of good conduct on the part of those so trusted.

### SOCIAL INSURANCE AND THE "DOCTOR'S FUTURE"

Abraham Jacobi, trustee of the New York Academy of Medicine, a physician who can look back on a long life of activity in progressive movements in medicine and out, warmly congratulated the academy at its recent anniversary meeting on having fallen in line behind the economist and the reformer. Indeed, the drift of the papers at this session on the "doctor's future" was nothing less than an advocacy of making medicine a part of statecraft and the doctor a public servant of infinitely more importance to the commonwealth than the politician in Congress. Ideas travel fast, and both speakers of the evening, Charles L. Dana and Algernon L. Bristow, laid down as a pattern suggestive for America the system of social insurance which has recently gone into effect in England.

Dr. Dana saw in the future a general practitioner whose work should be largely prophylactic. Working in co-operation with him, he saw a body of specialists very much larger and better equipped than we have to-day, who should get their training through a perfected hospital system in use by practically all the sick. He noted that already the tendency toward institutional care in sickness is well under way; and he noted also that such care, or care by the nurse in the home, is beginning to supplant cure by drugs, and that a decrease in the number of physicians is being accompanied by better training of those who graduate from the medical schools.

The physician of the future, Dr. Dana believed, in his prophylactic function, should have the care of more than merely the living individual. He should be the great eugenicist, the Æsculapius who would appear side by side with Venus in every true and realistic love story, to protect the race yet unborn. The prophylaxis of the physician-statesman of the future, would be still broader; he would be the public sanitarian. The food and drug supply would come

under his supervision, and he would supervise conditions both of labor and of recreation.

Dr. Bristow discussed that development of the medicine of the near future which both he and Dr. Dana considered the most important—social insurance for those whose very poverty makes the family physician an impossible luxury, and who today have to fall back upon the medical benefit society for such half care as it gives in time of illness. In the single state of New York he showed that two races alone, the Jews and the Italians, have three hundred thousand members in sick benefit societies. The only alternative that the future offered to people thus circumstanced was, he believed, to depend on the overworked, ill-paid, inefficient lodge doctor, or to provide mutually for themselves through social insurance.

For the physician himself he believed that social insurance held no menace, but, rather, a promise of a surer means of earning a livelihood.

### BRITISH SOCIAL INSURANCE AND THE DOCTORS' UNION

The interesting negotiations between the British Medical Association and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, with respect to the provision of medical service under the new Insurance Act<sup>1</sup> reached in November a point where the government made a compromise offer to the doctors organized in the British Medical Association. The offer was rejected and the association has been allowed till January 15 to confer with the government on the points at issue.

The alternative in case of failure to come to an agreement on that date is the development of a state medical service to serve the great groups of men and women who are insured under the act. The terms of the rejected offer itself are so much better, from the standpoint of the doctor's pocketbook, than the original proposal of the government as to show the effectiveness with which one of the old professions can adopt union methods. The total amount which the compromise offer proposed to pay annually for each insured person was 7s. for the doctor, 1s. 6d. for drugs, and an additional 6d. to be used for drugs if needed, otherwise added to the doctor's fee. This would be a total of \$2.25 per annum per capita, and in addition there would be a separate fund to meet epidemics involving an abnormal demand for drugs. This improved pay would, however, be given for improved services.<sup>2</sup>

The doctors were, according to the government proposals, to issue certificates to enable insured persons to secure sickness or disablement benefit; they were to keep records of patients and of illnesses, and the commissioners were to be responsible for a heightened standard of treatment

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY for September 7, 1912, p. 691.





Jacksonville Metropolis.  
"NUF CED."



Sid Turner in the Newburgh Journal.  
IF—

#### AT THE COUNTER AND THE SHOW WINDOW

and for surer diagnosis. If these terms cannot be amended to the satisfaction of the association, a state medical service is to be organized, which Lloyd-George has sketched as follows as applied to a town of 200,000 inhabitants:

"At the head of the service would be a principal medical officer, who would be responsible for the working of the service and would be not only a skilled clinician thoroughly competent to supervise and appreciate the work of his subordinates, but also a highly efficient administrator. Immediately under him would be a staff of skilled specialists, who would help the general practitioners of the service in any case of difficulty. Then would come the general practitioners of the service, of whom some would be junior practitioners, and others senior practitioners of wide experience. These would work on an organized system, proper provision being made for night calls and other emergencies, and they would be assisted by an efficient staff of nurses. Their work would be done under competent supervision, and they would be able promptly to secure skilled assistance in cases of difficulty. Such a service would naturally work in close co-operation with the public health authority and the education authority."

The *London Nation*, commenting on the proposals of the government, even as they now stand, calls them undeniably generous. They would insure an income of \$2,450 for every thousand insured persons, which sum includes extras and

mileage. It is estimated that one doctor could well do the necessary work in a village of moderate size which, with surrounding hamlets, might number two thousand souls. His income would be increased by at least a part of the 6d. allowed for additional drugs if necessary, and there is also the maternity benefit, a part of which goes to the doctors for their services.

The *Nation* predicts that for the doctors to continue resistance and thus permit the inauguration of a state service will spell ruin to their association, a collapse of the organization, and an internecine war, the effects of which will endure for years. Acceptance of the terms with such amendments as the government can afford to accede to, even though it involves a surrender of some minor details, means, on the other hand, to quote the *Nation*, a triumphant and early success of the largest measure of social reform that England has ever seen.

#### DOPE, DIPLOMACY AND A DELIBERATIVE CONGRESS

In his first message to Congress this year, President Taft called especial attention to the fact that Congress has been overnegligent in its attitude toward the anti-narcotic legislation which has been before it for some time, the passage of which he recommended in an earlier communication. The situation is a curious one, and





illustrates the slow acting nature of the federal law-making body. Moreover, it is an internationally embarrassing one, since this government took the initiative in the International Opium Conference of two years ago, and is now affording the spectacle of refusing to do its share of work in the establishment of a reform which its diplomatic representatives have ardently advocated.

There are now before the lower House two bills recommended by the International Conference. Both these measures were introduced in June, 1912, by Representative Harrison of New York. One provides that a heavy internal revenue tax shall be levied upon smoking opium manufactured in the United States; the other imposes a tax upon and regulates the production, manufacture, and distribution of opium, morphia, coca leaves, cocaine, chloral, cannabis, their salts, derivatives, or preparations. It is believed by experts that the passing of these bills would do much, to use President Taft's words, 'to correct the deplorable narcotic evil in the United States.' He further points out that they have behind them "not only the moral sentiment of the country, but the practical support of all the legitimate trade interests likely to be affected."

#### BOOKS AND PRISONERS

Plans are on foot for the establishment by the New York Public Library of carefully selected branch libraries in the penal institutions of the city. In many of these the inmates remain only a short time, but there are at least six in which residence is for a period long enough to make consecutive reading among well-selected

books quite possible. It is not unusual for city libraries to maintain "traveling libraries"—sets of books regularly replaced by other sets—in jails or prisons, but so far as is known, no place has yet established actual branches such as are scattered about the larger cities for use by local neighborhoods. Various plans for the supervision of the proposed branches have been suggested, one being the appointment of a superintendent to have general charge of all with "trusties" as librarians in each branch.

The need of the man in prison for wholesome and informing reading matter, and the deplorable scarcity in our prisons of books answering that description, as well as the availability of trashy or unsuitable material, are forcibly brought out by Miss Curtis elsewhere in this issue. An interesting corroboration of her conclusions is furnished by an intensive study made recently by Frederick W. Jenkins, librarian of the New York School of Philanthropy library, of some of the penal institutions in New York and read at the recent meeting of the New York Library Association at Niagara Falls. Comparison was made at this conference between the prison library and the prison school, which in many places has been raised to a reasonable degree of excellence. The prisons of New York state have paid citizen instructors in charge of their schools. Yet it was pointed out that the library is often guarded by an ignorant convict who exercises his small power autocratically. Not only the place of long detention needs books, it was said; the men in the jails must be allowed to read also. Here was declared to be a splendid field for co-operation with local public libraries.

Mr. Jenkins found that the books at the work-house and the penitentiary on Blackwell's Island were the best of the collections, but still nearly worthless. Of the 650 books in these two places the only ones of value, he declares, are a few novels given by the New York Public Library. Fully 90 per cent, he goes on,

"are of the Sunday school story type of fifty years ago. They have been donated by persons at the time of some house-cleaning or house-moving period—The Next World Interviewed; Angel's Song; Little Prudy's Dotty Dimple; School Girl's Garland (published in 1864); Above Rubies, a Memorial of Christian Gentlewomen; Which: Right or Left (published in 1859); Thoughts on the Death of Little Children (published in 1861); How Readest Thou (published in 1854); Violet's Idol; Wheat or Chaff (published in 1853).

After expressing the hope that the time is near at hand when the person in charge will have power to destroy as well as to save books intended for prison readers, Mr. Jenkins utters this anathema:

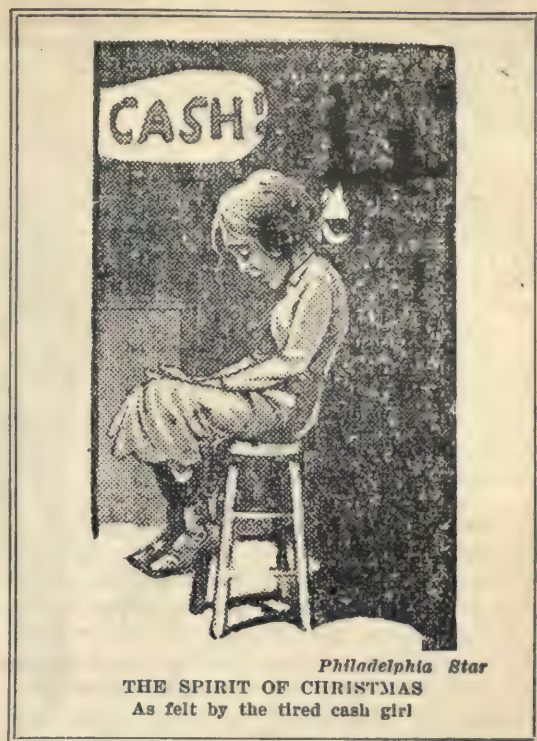
"I trust some dire end awaits those people who send their gifts, often utterly worthless material,



to the prison and the reformatory. There is nothing worse than this, unless it is the act of him who goes in person and distributes thousands of sheets of religious literature, reminding the man to whom it is given of the number of talents which he has wasted. I have listened to the flatulent remarks of such people. Men and women of this stamp and the books which they give constitute the most serious menace to good work among prison libraries. Much of the so-called religious literature distributed is absolutely worthless, unreadable by the inmates, and represents sheer waste of time and energy on the part of the distributors. Worse than this, the broadcast distribution of leaflet and pamphlet makes extra work for the prison officials. It is thrown unread on the floor and adds hugely to the waste matter that must be removed. Is it any wonder that the warden does not welcome the general diffusion of literature? All this should be stopped, and no distribution made except through the library."

In answer to the question, What books are really needed? Mr. Jenkins enumerates three kinds; first, those aiming to teach English to foreigners. This applies especially, of course, to institutions where there is a considerable percentage of immigrants, such as the prison on Blackwell's Island, where there are many Italians and Germans. Not a single book teaching English to Italians is to be found there, yet the half dozen German books have been read out of their covers. Mr. Jenkins's second suggestion is vocational books, dealing with plumbing, stenography, carpentry, etc. It is for these two classes, he finds, that there is the greatest demand from prisoners. Third, he emphasizes good novels—"novels of real life without a moral printed on every page, dealing with real people under real conditions." Finally, he urges that the desires and tastes of the men themselves be studied. Let the library represent an intelligent response to an ascertained demand. Three hundred volumes, he thinks, is enough for the shelves of any prison. A printed catalogue should go into every cell, and it should contain an invitation to the prisoner to make his reading wants known. In conclusion he says:

"Of course, no appeal, however sincere, can reach all or even the great majority, but it may go far. I am told that the men sometimes mutilate the books; so do the readers of any public library. I am told that they underline certain passages of personal interest; not all who do this are in jail. And finally I am told that the men show their disapproval for some of the literature handed out to them by spitting in the book and calmly returning it. In polite society this could not be countenanced, but after an examination of the library on Blackwell's Island, I am of opinion that such an act shows a valuable power of discrimination; it is proof that the man doing it is capable of and deserving of something better."



## BROADENING INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

WINTHROP D. LANE

Any change in our educational system is the vital concern of the social worker. Among the changes proposed at the present time, none is perhaps more drastic than the one vaguely described as industrial or vocational education. The philosophy back of this suggestion, and others growing out of the same observed social needs, is that education, taken in its broadest sense, is co-extensive with environment. In this view, education ceases to be a mere preparation for life and becomes life itself, to use a phrase made current by Prof. John Dewey. It is this philosophy which is increasingly leading educators, social workers and others to try to recast the public educational system so that it will offer to a maximum degree the actual environment of life.

Where in this scheme of recasting does vocational education take its place? Distinction should be made between what are called prevocational and vocational instruction. One of the proposed means of securing greater harmony between the public school system and the actual environment of life is the making over of the elementary curriculum to include, side by side with reading, writing and arithmetic, training in manual dexterity, in the purposes and use of tools, and perhaps in some of the elementary processes which may be found to underlie modern



trades. The need for and nature of such prevocational instruction, the purpose of which should be not to fit for specific vocations but only to secure a more all-round development of the child during the age of eight or ten to fourteen, were discussed in the recent conference held in New York.<sup>1</sup>

Another proposed means is that of real vocational education, the purpose of which shall be to fit for successful wage-earning occupations, and which shall begin where elementary education stops for large numbers of American children, namely at the age of fourteen, and continue for two or four years, as may be found necessary.

This second proposal was thrashed out at the sixth annual meeting of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, last week in Philadelphia. In spite of the phrase "industrial education" in the title of the society, it was vocational education which was discussed and which was defined to include the following three forms of specialized training, the controlling purposes of which are to fit for useful occupations; industrial education, designed to meet the need of the manual worker in the trades and industries; agricultural education, which fits for occupations connected with the tillage of the soil and the care of domestic animals; and household arts education.

The facts showing the need for instruction of this sort are substantially the same as those cited to prove the need for prevocational instruction, namely the glaring unfitness of boys and girls who leave school at fourteen to do the work which nearly all of them go into, with the consequent shifting from job to job where nothing is learned and advance is impossible. A hopeful sign at Philadelphia was that these facts were taken for granted. No one thought it necessary to demonstrate the need for vocational education.

Few thought it necessary, moreover, to question the purpose of the education to be given. Debate was chiefly over the machinery for administering it and the training of teachers to impart it. It was generally assumed that the purposes of vocational education, beginning at the age of fourteen, shall be to fit for specific and limited occupations, such as plumbing, tin-smithing, dairy farming, etc. There was little, if any, reference to the suggestion that perhaps what the boy or girl of fourteen, who has had only such elementary instruction as the present school system affords, most needs is greater training of the brain through the hand, greater training of observation, of ingenuity, of imagination and even of logical thought through a general acquaintance with materials and machines. It seemed also to be taken for granted that one's bent is quite determinable at the age of fourteen,

in spite of the fact that Prof. George M. Forbes of the University of Rochester described how only fourteen out of eighty-three boys who had received fairly adequate instruction in specific vocations in a Rochester school were later found to be following the trades which they had there learned. Criticism of the discussion on these grounds was accompanied by the further suggestion that even if we are to train youths of fourteen for specific occupations, we have not made a sufficient study of industry to decide what should be the content of vocational courses, nor just what it is that rapidly changing trades require to be taught; the point being that it is perhaps unwise to set up an elaborate scheme for teaching something until you know what you are to teach. The answer made to this was that a beginning must be made, as it already has been made where such schools have been established, by teaching what is actually done now in the factory, the shop and on the farm, and that the broader educational content of the courses will then be worked out as industry is more intensively analyzed and the common elements of trades are discovered.

Among the teachers, school administrators, social workers, manufacturers and law-makers gathered together in Philadelphia there was practical unanimity of opinion that vocational education aiming to fit for trades must be publicly provided for and that this provision must be made jointly by the states and local communities. In a statement of principles advocated by C. A. Prosser, secretary of the society, and later adopted by the members, it was held that local communities should be permitted, if they so desire, to initiate and maintain schools entirely apart from state support and supervision, yet it was declared that state aid would be found necessary to stimulate and encourage them. The amount of state aid should be, in general, sufficient to furnish this encouragement and to justify participation on the part of the state in control and administration, but not large enough to sacrifice local initiative. Both Mr. Prosser and Edwin G. Cooley, former superintendent of schools in Chicago, thought that the best results are secured when the local community is required to furnish the school and equipment and pay one-half of the operating expenses. This also was embodied in the statement adopted.

Chief among the questions relating to the machinery for teaching vocations was that which asked whether it is better to set up vocational schools as integral parts of the present secondary school system, or as a dual system provided for by distinct laws, under distinct supervision, housed separately, and having nothing in common with the present school system except public support. John A. Lapp, secretary of the Indiana Commission on Industrial and Agricultural Edu-

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY for November 23.



cation pointed out that Massachusetts began several years ago with separate schools under separate boards, both state and local, but changed to permit either a separate school or a school as an integral part of her former system. Wisconsin has adopted the separate school idea and such a plan is proposed in Illinois. New York, New Jersey, Ohio and Maine on the other hand, make the work a part of their old systems. This is the recommendation of the Indiana commission of inquiry appointed last year.<sup>1</sup> On behalf of the separate school Mr. Prosser urged that that plan leaves the vocational school freer at all times to realize its dominant aim of preparing for definite occupations. In justification of joint administration Mr. Lapp thought that it is easier to modify existing school courses to meet vocational needs than to create new courses and that greater harmony in public education will result. The one-system plan is favored by the majority of educators connected with the present school system, a notable exception being Mr. Cooley. The trend seems to be in its direction.

Whatever the system of administration, the vocational school, it was insisted, must approximate the actual conditions of the workshop, the home and the farm. If it be an industrial school, it must forego the formal air of the school room and realize the freedom which surrounds the bench and lathe. In the accomplishment of this, of course, the teacher will be the vital factor, and so there was earnest debate over the kind of teacher required for this new type of instruction.

Emphasis was laid on the need of teachers who can make competent craftsmen of their pupils. Mary Schenck Woolman, president of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, and Florence M. Marshall, principal of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls, New York, who spoke from the standpoint of girls, together with David Snedden, commissioner of education for Massachusetts, and Charles R. Allen, agent of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, who spoke from the standpoint of boys, were united in the opinion that so far no satisfactory method of producing such teachers has been worked out. "At present," said Mr. Snedden, "we are obtaining teachers much as the early settlers obtained their food—we are trusting to an accidental and variable supply produced by no effort of our own." All four of these speakers agreed that they can not be secured by drawing on the regular public schools and giving a little additional training to the instructors there found, nor can the present normal schools turn them out. They must be trained specifically to meet the pedagogical demands of the vocational school, which has problems peculiar to itself. We shall have to go direct to the industries themselves, said Mr. Snedden, and select experienced workers with a gift

for teaching. For such workers we can then provide evening courses of instruction in such pedagogical problems as the organization of courses, methods of instruction and class management. Attendance at these classes can then be followed by employment as assistant teachers in actual vocational schools. Thus a normal training will be added to craftsmanship. In the evident distress over the failure so far to secure even good instructors in trades, it seemed to be regarded as unimportant that the teacher should be alert to the cultural value of all work; that he should keep his students' minds open to the onward movements in the conservation of material and in mechanical invention; that his personality might become as vital a factor in success as that of the teacher of history, literature and language.

A final point under discussion was one which has long been the subject for debate in connection with industrial schools in reformatories. What shall be the output of the vocational classes and how shall it be disposed of? Shall it be commercial, and sold on the open market in competition with other products, the proceeds of the sale being used to defray school expenses? Helen R. Hildreth, director of vocational training for the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, and E. H. Fish, director of the Worcester Trade School for Boys, Worcester, Massachusetts, urged that only by making commercial products can the schools supply those conditions to which the successful wage-earner must be accustomed when he leaves. The work of the school must be put upon a business basis, said Mr. Fish. Miss Hildreth went so far as to insist that products should be turned out for which definite orders have been taken. To this Harry S. Bitting, president of the Williamson Free School of Trades, Pennsylvania, objected that when a contract is entered into, the fulfilling of that contract then becomes the absorbing aim of the instructor and his attention is diverted from the primary task of teaching. Discussion at Philadelphia failed to bring agreement and the question is evidently an open one. The experience of our prisons, now slowly adopting the plan of selling their products back to the state and its political divisions, may hold a suggestion for the vocational schools of the future which shall find created wealth hanging heavy on their hands.

## WHAT THE CONVICT READS

FLORENCE RISING CURTIS

Instructor University of Illinois Library School

There are about fifty thousand men and women in the state and national prisons and reformatories of the United States. Under the operation of the present laws, from 70 to 80 per cent of these are confined from one to ten years, at the expiration of which they will

<sup>1</sup>When ready, copies of their report may be secured from Mr. Lapp, State Library, Indianapolis, Indiana.



come out into the world again. The prison doors are opening daily to the man who is going out with the prison label still upon him, for the new clothes taken from the piles in the outfitting room are recognized at once by both the policeman and the saloon-keeper. Ignorant, untrained and uncontrolled, he came into prison chafing at the "hard luck" or the "spite" which had put him behind the bars. Detaining him for one year or for ten has made little difference, if he comes out with the same standards of conduct, the same ignorance and lack of control.

When the evening and Sunday hours may not be spent in handicraft, the prisoner eagerly avails himself of the opportunity for reading. The circulation per capita of the books in the prison libraries is largely in excess of that reported by the public libraries of the country. Books serve to occupy his mind during the long silent hours of the day; the scenes are lived over again, the arguments debated, the characters of the history, biography or novel are real companions to these men taken away from neighborhood and family life.

If the prison library has been the dumping ground for gifts of literary rubbish, if the books which are purchased are cheap in tone as well as in price, if the language is vulgar, the characters and situations low and suggestive, the prison is providing bad company and poor ideals for the men who are sent there for correction and reformation.

A study of the catalogues of twenty-three prison libraries shows that this is a matter which should receive attention. These were limited to no one section of the country, eight being in the East, twelve in the Middle West, two in the West and one in the South. With few exceptions, they are far below the grade of the average public library of the same size; the classes of history, biography and travel, which should be especially strong, are often filled with out-of-date and unreadable books. It is surprising that detective stories figure largely in the fiction lists, for it would seem dubious policy to furnish stories of crime which suggest ingenious plans and point out the weak spots in the method of their execution.

Books which emphasize sensual details are surely not good mental food for men taken out of normal human intercourse and shut away with their thoughts, yet the prison libraries contain the novels of the modern "realistic" writers: Lucas Malet, Robert Herrick, Robert Hichens, David Graham Phillips, Robert W. Chambers, George Gibbs and many others. Elinor Glyn's *Three Weeks* is probably not on the shelves of a single American public library, but it is listed in three of the twenty-three catalogues examined. Such books as George Moore's *Evelyn Innes* and

Sister Teresa, Anatole France's *Red Lily*, and Smollett's *Peregrine Pickle* and Roderick Random, interesting and often harmless to some, are of questionable moral tone for such readers. Fiction of inferior merit, with characters and situations often at variance with real life, fills page after page with such alluring titles as *Wife in Name Only*, *Between Two Sins*, *Maid, Wife, or Widow*, *A Woman's Temptation*, *Sharing Her Crime*, *Lost for a Woman*, *The Changed Brides*, and *A Beautiful Fiend*.

The make-up of the prison library catalogue is seldom good; of those examined, only fourteen were classified and in many cases the divisions were too general to be of much value. Two were arranged only by author, four by title only; two had no authors given, and one of these was arranged in the order of the receipt of the books. In many catalogues the printing was poor and the entries inaccurate. In one, the books seemed to have been classified by the sound of the title as the section of "Religious Books" included *The Sorrows of Satan*, *The Breath of the Gods*, *The Conquest of Canaan*, *The Little Minister*, *The Choir Invisible*, and *The Fruit of the Tree*.

The tabulation which follows shows the result of an investigation of these twenty-three library catalogues, applying to them the same tests that a librarian would use in judging the catalogues of as many public libraries. In the cases where a large section was labelled "Miscellaneous" or "General," the lists were gone over carefully, in the effort to decide the character of the books which belonged to each particular class named in the table. The libraries listing no foreign books are in states where it is probable that some foreign nationalities are represented in the prison population.

THE LIBRARIES OF TWENTY-THREE AMERICAN PRISONS

	CHARACTER OF BOOKS					NUMBER OF LIBRARIES
	Good	Fair	Poor	None	Few	Many
Religious .....	2	5	16		4	
Philosophy and Sociology ..	6	3	9	5	0	
Science .....	6	4	12	2	6	
Technical Arts and Trades..	12	3	3	5	3	
Essays, Poetry, Drama, etc	5	6	10	2	7	
Travel .....	7	4	12		10	
History .....	4	6	13		5	
Biography .....	3	3	17		12	
Encyclopedias, Dictionaries, etc. ....	3	2	13	5	8	
Magazines .....	4	5	7	7	4	
Fiction .....	2	6	15		2	2
In Foreign Languages ....	4	6	6	11		

These libraries have received in bulk a large number of the old Sunday School collections of out-of-date religious and temperance books; they are decidedly lacking in readable informational literature—biography, travel, science and books on present-day invention and progress. Such literature is especially needed here, for it is the experience of those in charge that prison men tire of stories, and crave more solid reading.







## INTERSTATE IMMIGRATION, LAND AND LABOR PROBLEMS

FRANCES A. KELLOR

Chief Investigator Bureau of Industries and Immigration,  
New York Department of Labor

Following the three interests represented in its organization the National Conference of Immigration, Land and Labor Officials,<sup>1</sup> representing thirty-eight states, is now at work on a federal bill to be presented to the new administration, creating in the department of labor, which it is hoped will become a fact during this session of Congress, a bureau of distribution which will deal with interstate immigration, land and labor problems, and which will co-operate with the various states in their work within state limits.

This bureau will be concerned wholly with matters in this country. In matters of immigration it will include the supervision and protection of admitted immigrants in transit and the establishment of branches of the bureau for this purpose at re-distribution centers; the licensing and regulation of steamship ticket agents doing an interstate business; the distribution of school children's names from ports of entry to school authorities, and the investigation and adjustment of interstate complaints and difficulties which now arise. That this latter field is large is seen from the fact that in the past year the New York State Bureau of Industries and Immigration has been called upon in hundreds of cases to adjust matters between residents of California and Pennsylvania, and between the North and South in such matters as steamship tickets, lost baggage, lost relatives, colonization, employment contracts made in the agencies in one state and consummated in a far distant state.

In the matter of labor, it is proposed that this new bureau shall include and extend the work of the present division of information, which now has one branch office in New York for distributing labor; shall license and regulate all private agencies doing an interstate business, and shall favor and co-operate with state free employment

bureaus in furnishing a reliable governmental clearing house for labor.

The enormous frauds now practiced by some land and colonization companies and the inability of the states to reach settlers and farm laborers make it necessary for this proposed bureau to have the power and facilities for registering and furnishing information on lands offered for sale. The bureau is also confronted with the need of working out some plan of having the federal government adopt a method of providing long-time, low-interest loans to settlers for the purpose of aiding them to purchase land and make improvements on it or to discharge indebtedness on the land. It also proposes to make an investigation of such governmental methods in use elsewhere.

All of these matters are interstate, and no existing bureau is dealing with them. They are fast becoming difficult problems to handle. This bureau will have the opportunity to work out real measures for the relief of congestion, at the same time safeguarding the persons distributed and making state connections which will give them a fair chance for prosperity.

In its program for state activities the conference set itself the task of making a study of existing governmental agencies in the states and in co-operation with state authorities to secure sufficient appropriations, and new legislation for whatever is needed. It will endeavor to have established bureaus of labor where none exist, and bureaus of immigration where needed. It has adopted minimum standards for the establishment of free employment agencies and the regulation of private agencies. It is also at work on means of getting the settler upon the land, and of safeguarding him in his purchases and settlement. In this respect it has taken up the matter of state advertising, the registration of lands for sale, the approval of form of contracts for the sale of land, the inspection of advertising material and prosecution of fraud and the publication of accurate information concerning the land for sale.

The need of a standard and the extension of this state work in order that there may be co-operation between the federal and state governments, may be seen from the fact that no state now safeguards purchasers of private lands, nor adequately reaches the settler through its present advertising. Sixteen states have free employment bureaus, with no means of co-operation between them; eighteen states regulate private employment agencies, though in nearly one-half of these only a license fee and bond is required and there is no inspection provided for enforcement of the law; thirty-five states are dealing with the problem of labor with the greatest variation in scope, powers and appropriations. One state has an industrial commission; six have

<sup>1</sup>The officers and executive committee for 1912-13 elected at the second conference of the organization held in Chicago in November were:

Honorary President: T. V. Powderly chief of the Federal Division of Information, Washington, D. C.

President: John R. Commons, member Wisconsin State Industrial Commission, Madison, Wis.

Vice-President: J. F. Denochand, secretary, Louisiana State Board of Immigration, New Orleans, La.

Treasurer: Charles F. Gettemy, director, Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics, Boston; and

Secretary: Frances A. Kellor, chief investigator, Bureau of Industries and Immigration, Department of Labor, New York.

Members Executive Committee: Robert N. Lynch, member California Immigration Commission, San Francisco; John Nugent, commissioner of Immigration in West Virginia, Montgomery; Charles Harris, director Kansas Free Employment Agency, Topeka.



labor departments; eleven combine labor, industry, commerce, agriculture and immigration in some form or are limited to statistics and factory inspection. Seventeen, including some of the largest industrial states, operate as bureaus of labor statistics, some of them under limited and obsolete laws, exceeding their powers to meet the situation where there are able men at the head, or falling back on the limitations of the laws where special interests control them. Some of the labor bureaus are purposely crippled in appropriations and exist chiefly on paper.

The conference hopes to be able to establish four centers, under the supervision of its secretary and executive committee, to deal with its program: one in the East, one in the South, one in the Central West and one in the far West. These centers will take up the immediate work of study, standardization, legislation, education and publicity.

## SOCIALISM AS A PEACE MOVEMENT

SOLON DE LEON

*[The name De Leon is one to conjure with among American radicals. The author of this interpretation of the economic and political bearings of the international working-class movement against war is son of Daniel De Leon, the long-time leader of the Socialist Labor Party of the United States.—Ed.]*

Two hundred or more Socialists—the “arch enemies of society,” the “preachers of hatred and discord”—seated in the Burgvogteihalle at Basel, Switzerland, in solemn deliberation as to how best to utilize the unity of the working people of their respective countries to prevent the Balkan firebrand from scattering seeds of war throughout Europe—such was the spectacle presented on November 24 by the Ninth International Socialist Congress, a special session called in place of the regular tri-yearly meeting which was to have been held in Vienna in September.

It is too early yet to have details of what they did at the congress, but judging from the demonstrations at Paris on the Saturday following, where 100,000 men, women and children gathered to hear the returning delegates, an energetic “war against war” must have been decided and entered upon.

Even before the Congress met, the demonstrations had begun. Early in November huge meetings were held by the Social Democrats all over Austria, one of the countries closely concerned in the embroglio, at which the orators called upon their hearers to hamper in every possible way all military movements, and to sub-

mit passively to capture if finally dragged into action.

The special congress was the result of a meeting of the International Socialist Bureau, the executive body of the international movement, at its Brussels headquarters near the end of October. At the bureau meeting thirty-three delegates were present, representing fourteen countries, and the proceedings were full of interest. Vaillant, indomitable old veteran of the Paris Commune, declared it the duty of the working class everywhere to make it clear to the governments that foreign war might mean the outbreak of domestic revolution. Adler, Social Democratic leader in the Austrian parliament, took the position—“the Balkans for the Balkan peoples, and no intervention.” Even Kautsky and Molkenbuhr, attached as all Germans are to their Fatherland, enthusiastically told of the efforts of their comrades at home to maintain peace, and pledged a continuance of those efforts. The outcome was the proposition of Vandervelde, the Belgian deputy, to call a special congress

“solely to consider the international situation, and to decide upon common action by all the national sections against war.”

The bureau agreed, and issued a manifesto which says:

“Let the proletariat stand up against the policy of war with all the power of proletarian organization, and with all the mass action at its command. Let it cry out with all its voices, let it indicate by all its actions, that it will not allow itself to be hurled into stupid and sanguinary conflicts.

“Down with war!

“Long live the International!”

It is no new thing, this activity of the Socialist movement to suppress or prevent war. A year ago, when France and Germany were ready to fly at each other's throats over Morocco, who was it helped the respective governments “count five-and-twenty” and settle the affair without plunging two nations into mourning? It was the working people of the two capitals, listening by hundreds of thousands to exchange-speakers from across the borders, and applauding to the echo their appeal to answer the call to arms by refusal to mobilize against their brothers of another language.

July, 1909, saw the King of Spain summon out his troops for an African campaign—ostensibly to avenge the death of four soldiers at Melilla, in reality to enable a society of French and Spanish mine owners to operate in that district. That same month saw the people of Barcelona and the surrounding district rise in mass, declare a general strike, and refuse to march to the war. Catalonia, of which Barcelona is the capital, is



the leading industrial province of Spain, and an old center of radical and Socialistic thought.

It is said that, during the Russian-Japanese conflict, Russian peasants had to be herded with the bayonet to the recruiting stations, and that even when placed face to face with the Japanese in Manchuria they had to be driven into battle with whips. The year of that tremendous war was also the year of the most tremendous Socialist uprising a Czar of all the Russias ever had to withstand.

In June of that same year Norway declared its independence of Sweden. The war drum was beaten in Stockholm. "Revenge" was to be taken. But the workers of both countries had something to say. Demonstrations under Socialist auspices, in which thousands participated, protested against bloodshed to settle the dispute. When the Swedish Riksdag met in extraordinary session, the King counseled peaceful measures, and the storm was allayed.

What means this incredible refusal of the workers to get themselves shot at the behest of their governments? It means that the spirit of Marx is mighty yet and growing mightier. The old International has gone down, but a new one is risen in its place. A movement millions strong throughout the world today proclaims its belief that, "Workmen of all countries unite!" is not an empty phrase, but the "*In hoc signo vinces*" of a new social era. The abolition of the profit system in its entirety is decreed; war, being one of the most gruesome manifestations of that system, must perish.

No sketch of Socialism as a peace movement would be complete without reference to the monumental figure of Gustave Hervé, the incarnation of anti-militarist propaganda in France, and indeed in Europe. A professor of history and a lawyer, he has thrice been prosecuted and once served a prison term for his advocacy of anti-patriotism, as he calls it. In 1905 he signed a poster calling on the recruits not to join the colors. Hear him as he addresses the Paris jury in his own defense:

"The nation for you, Mr. Advocate-General, is a kindly mother; for us, a step-mother, a shrew, who detests us.

"Patriotism is for you a sentiment, natural and profitable; for us, it is a fool's trap.

"We may retain for the town or village where we were born, where we grew up, where we suffered or loved, a deep affection, a natural and even instinctive feeling which is in no way akin to your love of country; but we have lost all sentiment of love for such countries of privilege and iniquity as are the great nations of today.

"For us, the world contains but two nations: that of the favored of fortune, and that of the dispossessed, whatever may be the language which they speak, whatever the land

which gave them birth. Our compatriots are not the capitalists of this country, who would massacre us if they could, as they massacred the fathers of the Commune; they are the class-conscious proletarians, the Socialists, the revolutionists of all earth, who are everywhere waging the same battle as we for the inauguration of a new society.

"In case of an order to mobilize, we would seize the moment to attempt the revolution, to place our hands on the social wealth usurped today by a minority. We would transform the dwelling-houses today belonging to individual landlords into common property. We would operate the factories, the mines, all the great enterprises, through our trade unions and our technical engineers. Our unions would conduct the great storehouses and marts as immense co-operative establishments. By a more equitable and rational organization of production, we would bring about a society in which there would be wellbeing, science and beauty for all, a society better than the present even for your sons and daughters, a Socialist mother-country which would be beautiful enough and good enough to warrant our taking arms to defend it, whether against invasion or against bourgeois intrigue.

"Rebellion sooner than war!"

Not a bad object, surely, however much one may be inclined to disagree with the means. This is the "horrid doctrine of anti-patriotism" to which both the French Socialist Party and the General Confederation of Labor, the latter half a million strong, are committed; on account of which the French government recently compelled the school teachers' union to withdraw from the confederation. Not only has the doctrine taken hold of the ranks of workers in the trades and professions, the armies also have come under its influence. The *Internationale*, which is heard with increasing frequency and power in America (witness Lawrence and the recent suffrage parade in New York), bids fair to supersede the *Marseillaise* as the Socialist anthem. It contains a stanza, prohibited in France and little known here, which runs:

"The kings, they smother us in gun-smoke,  
Oh, peace between us, war to them!  
The strike! Apply it to the armies,  
Fire in air, break ranks again!  
And if still these cannibals and tyrants  
Would of us make 'heroes' curst,  
Soon shall they learn that our own generals  
Will taste our rifle fire the first."

Such is the new conception of solidarity that is permeating the ranks of labor everywhere. Like it or not as we may, it is a factor to be reckoned with, and many a Socialist bases upon it his claim to being a member of the greatest peace movement on earth.

<sup>1</sup>Gustave Hervé, *Anti-patriotism*, New York Labor News Company, 1907.



## EDITORIAL GRIST

### THE FAMILY—THE COMMON DENOMINATOR IN SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS WORK

GRAHAM TAYLOR

It is strange that the family should have been so long ignored that it has become the most latent and unutilized of the primary factors and forces upon which social and religious progress depends. For, it is the most originating and persistent, the most formative and final of all the forms of our social organizations. However we date or account for its origin, the family has certainly furnished both the initiative and type of church and state. Interdependent though state, church and family have ever been, yet religion has always rooted in the home—the church has always been cradled in the household. It is the more conceivable therefore to imagine religion surviving the loss of the church than the loss of the family; to think of restoring the lost church from the surviving family, than the lost family from the surviving church.

The scriptures of the Old and New Testaments would fail to reveal God and our relations to Him and to each other were we to eliminate all the family terms from them by which our spiritual relationships are revealed. Are not these family terms the well-known quantities by which those unknown relations are revealed?

Forms of religious faith and organization have come and gone, political power and control have passed back and forth from autocracy to democracy, from republic to empire, but the family relationship has persisted, essentially unchanged, however changing the forms of marriage itself have been. As the most primitive and persistent form and force of human life, therefore, we should expect the family to reassert its social significance, primacy and supremacy. And it is so doing by becoming the common denominator of social work in the three equations which state the problems common alike to the church and the community.

1. To set a human standard for life is the first and perhaps the greatest of social problems. And the family furnishes both church and community with the test and task of setting it.

Religion sets the maximum standard in that heavenliest family type of life to which man can aspire—fatherhood like that of the heavenly Father, motherhood like the brooding mother heart of God, marriage like the mystical union between Christ and his bride, the Church, brotherhood such as only the children of God can have,

homes like the household of faith, and yet a heaven that shall be as homelike as only our "father's house" can be. The family is the common denominator of the heavenly ideal and the earthly reality whether you look to the heavenly to set the standard for the earthly, or to the earthly family to set the type by which the heavenly ideal is to be interpreted.

Equally significant is the present tendency of the community to fix a minimum standard below which it cannot afford to have family life fall. This is the incentive for limiting the hours and kinds of work for woman, so as to protect and promote her mothering the child; for relating the rate of wages to the cost of living, so as to fix a minimum wage that will keep earnings from falling below the possibility of family life; for infant welfare work, so as to reduce the death rate of little children and enhance their right to be well born and to get a fair start toward a normal life; for the protection of the child's play time, growth and schooling, so that the shop will not rob the child of its home or the home of its child. Below such a motherhood, birth-right, standard of family living, and adolescence, the community cannot afford to have human life fall. But it is the family life that measures the minimum, up from which the community thus encourages the standards of living to rise.

2. The very task of substituting other agencies to take the place of the family when it has failed or been lost, which is undertaken both by church and state, emphasizes more and more how indispensable the family form of association is recognized to be. The orphan asylum or "home," even at its best, has been found so unhomelike and such an inadequate substitute for the household that it is considered to be the better policy only to gather them there and keep them long enough to be placed out in the foster homes of families who assume their care or adopt them. The "cottage" plan of grouping and housing inmates of children's institutions not only, but those of asylums for the insane, hospitals for the sick, colonies for the epileptic, and reformatory farms are superseding the congregate plan. This recurrence to the lost or incapacitated family form of life in the effort to substitute the next best thing for it is the significant emphasis which modern scientific philanthropy is placing upon the family itself.

The very clubs and other reputable substitutes for home shelter and family circle are attractive to those deprived of, or temporarily detached from, these natural associations just in proportion as they are homelike. Even the saloons, brothels and other disreputable resorts which appeal to the man away from home, the stranger in the strange city, the starved hearts of the lonely, and others without the restraints and sup-



ports of kindred and father's house, point their appeal by simulating the appearance of homelikeness, offering bread but giving a stone, tempting with an egg which turns out to be a scorpion.

Nothing but the nearest thing to the home itself can be substituted successfully either for real family life or for those perversions which pervert virtue itself into vice, love into lust. The evangelistic use of the family, the efficacy of the home in rescue, the preoccupying, prepossessing, restorative resources of the household have not only not been exhausted, but have very seldom been applied. Neither the "mission" apart from the church, nor the church apart from the missionary spirit, is adequate to the rescue of the lost. Missions can at best be the vestibule of churches, and the vestibule fulfils its function only by leading into the dwelling. The mission is likely to be all "gate" and not "the way." Many a church is all "way" and "no gate." Only a homelike church which is a mission and a mission which is a homelike church can be the home of the soul. Little more than "foundlings" are the new born who are left on the doorstep of the mission to live. Cardinal Manning well said that such converts "are exposed to the last peril of the spiritual life—the storm in the harbor." When the prodigal comes to himself he needs to go to his father. The "lost" are "found again" only when we home them.

3. The third point at which the family becomes the common denominator in the social solution of the problems of human life is where it is necessary to supplement and assist the home in fulfilling its functions.

Here the whole cluster of agencies tributary to the family test their social efficiency by their actual success or failure in rehabilitating, encouraging, equipping and enabling the family itself to fulfil its own function. The midwife and the doctor, the hospital and the nurse, the infant welfare station and the day nursery, the school and the playground, the public library and the neighborhood center, the health and building departments and the housing reform associations, the local improvement society and the town planning commission, the municipality and the state legislature, the nation and the church are alike weighed in the balance and found wanting or fulfilling their function just in proportion as each protects and promotes the family, conserves and perfects the home.

So at last both the church and the community seem to be starting over again, where each alike began, to renew their strength by serving the families of the people. And that church or state serves itself the best that serves its families the most. That local church or local government best fulfils its function which builds family life up out of itself and not itself up out of family

life. Thus only can either of them protect or promote the perpetuity and progress of the community and religion.

## THE RINGING CALL FOR SOCIAL SERVICE

FREDERIC ALMY

Secretary Buffalo Charity Organization Society

Social workers can serve their cause well by spreading broadcast the remarkable social service report just published under direction of the Men and Religion Forward Movement.<sup>1</sup> It is a pity that this Protestant movement could not include the older Roman Catholic church and the still older Jewish church, but it is no small gain in the world that the Protestant church is at last willing to co-operate with itself. Coming from all Protestant denominations, in all quarters of America, such a report might have been expected to be conservative or timid. It is the opposite. It is a ringing call, not from social workers to the church, but from the church to the church, for social service. It goes to every little hamlet in the land with the *imprimatur* of the church, making social service an orthodox duty. Even where the churches do not budge, they must at least change front so that the next step will be our way. Copies should be sent to active church members and pastors of every faith. Every society should order some.

The report contained in Volume II of the series is by a committee of which Henry Sloane Coffin of New York is chairman, and which includes Washington Gladden, Graham Taylor, Walter Rauschenbusch, Charles R. Brown, Edward T. Devine, Frank Mason North, J. Howard Melish and more. The little volume of 180 pages includes also brief addresses by Jane Addams, John Mitchell, Dr. Gladden, Dr. Coffin, Prof. Rauschenbusch and others. It costs a dollar, and is invaluable.

When the "fifty-seven varieties" of the Protestant church pull in fifty-seven different ways at fifty-seven different times for the causes which they all have in common, it impairs both church unity and church efficiency. Moreover, when social religion supplements and re-enforces individual religion, as social medicine has supplemented individual medicine, sin and vice in the community will begin to yield as disease is yielding. Individual character often overcomes bad conditions, but so do bad conditions often overcome character, especially in children who

<sup>1</sup>Social Service: Volume II of the Message of the Men and Religion Movement. 180 pp. Price \$1 postpaid.

There are seven volumes of the Messages of the Men and Religion Movement: Congress Addresses, Social Service, Bible Study, Christian Unity, Boys' Work, Rural Church and The Church and the Press. Published by the Association Press, 124 E. 28th St., New York. \$4 the set.



are weak; and towards bad conditions the church is but just beginning to do its duty. If the churches of America come to feel that social work for the poor is God's work, and that it is part of their work to inspire and support it, then, and not until then, organized charity will cover the land as the Young Men's Christian Associations have covered it.

When social conditions become intolerable to the conscience of the nation, as was the case with slavery, some solution will have to follow. Inexorable necessities are always met. The church has the ear of the rich, who more than the poor are responsible for the causes of poverty. The rich create conditions of labor and life from which the poor often cannot escape.

The conscience of the nation is already stirring. Politics has at last come into social work, the chambers of commerce are coming in, the labor unions are in, the Young Men's Christian Associations are extending their various social interests—"Everybody's doing it, doing it, doing it." If the Protestant churches can only be made to hear the report made to them by the Men and Religion Movement, we shall see a rapid gain for the religion of Christ's second commandment: "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." This commandment "is like unto the first," and translates it into action.

A few extracts from the report will show its quality:

"At the present hour the world is blessed by widespread discontent. . . . We are to spiritualize this discontent." (P. 9.) "Social responsibility is the chief sacrament of religion in our age." (P. 15.) "The problem of housing and of food prices concerns the church. 'I was hungry and ye did not give me to eat.' When the food and fuel of the people are made artificially dear for the inordinate enrichment of powerful groups, there is no doubt where the church of Jesus Christ should stand." (P. 21.)

"The most fundamental form of social service is to put a stop to unearned profits. . . . If any one claims any part of the land as his own his rights are subject to the needs of the common welfare, and he must render to his fellows a just equivalent for the special privilege he claims. The moral title to property rests on social service." (P. 27.) "Industrial democracy is our Christian destiny, and henceforth a man's Christianity will have to be measured to some degree by the intelligence and enthusiasm with which he sets his face to meet that destiny." (P. 29.) "The workers must be granted an increasing share in the government and control of their common work." (P. 30.) "The organization of labor has come to stay." (P. 31.)

"Surely the church should legitimize play, and glorify it. . . . The ethics [of baseball]

are low. If play is vital in the lives of boys and men this important game must be saved. The church can provide, in co-operation with other agencies, the moral leadership in athletics in America." (P. 58.) Sections follow on dancing, the drama, the home, the income, health, sex-education, etc.

"The discharge of one's civic duty is a most vital part of Christian consecration." (P. 71.) "The rehabilitation of families and the complete elimination of pauperism is the goal." (P. 81.) "It is important that the churches should be led to recognize the necessity for some central organization in all the large cities corresponding to the office of the associated charities already established in many places." (P. 82.) Such an organization "can maintain a staff of experts. . . . The day of the amateur is over in all the more serious lines of effort. . . . In the difficult work of relief men and women who have studied these problems under competent guidance, and who are familiar with the best methods employed in other cities, are indispensable. In this central office records can be kept," etc. (P. 82.)"

"The one great thing which the Men and Religion Forward Movement has done for the American churches is to set blazing before them the truth and the tasks which are suggested by this phrase 'social service.' This truth they can never again deny, these tasks they can never again evade, without the consciousness of apostasy. . . . Religion will either mean a great deal more in America in the next ten years than it has ever meant before, or it will find itself, before the end of that time, in the way of meaning nothing at all." (P. 90.) "There are still millions of church members in America who need to be convinced that the kind of work to which Jesus Christ devoted a large part of his time is Christian work." (P. 94.)

"It is not the church's function, any more than it was her Lord's, to give specific directions to its members for the readjustment of civic or business life. . . . Service, not leadership, is the church's mission." (Dr. Coffin, P. 115.) "This movement has made the social gospel orthodox in the church. For a long time we had been regarded as heretics." (Prof. Rauschenbusch, P. 121.)

Prof. Rauschenbusch prophesies "that within a short time a reactionary movement is likely to take place," and that "one of the first things we have to do in the service of this movement is to stand up against that reaction when it comes." If social workers would delay or prevent such a reaction they must not only be efficient; they must match in some degree the humility, sincerity and courage shown by the leaders of the church in this movement. As Dr. Coffin says, of the church, social workers also must seek "service, not leadership."



## THE NEW YORK 54-HOUR LAW

JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK

National Consumers' League

"When I went to school, forty years ago, the last word in political economy was *laissez faire*, or letting people do as they like. The experience of fifty years has taught us that the millennium doesn't come from letting people do as they like, so legislatures have taken steps to protect those who need protection; but the judges, who were mostly educated about forty years ago, are still talking about *laissez faire*."

"This issue affects no individual woman, but the human race, and the human race has got a right to defend itself."

"What right have the judges got to read their individual conceptions into the constitution? If you go back to the original meaning of the Bill of Rights, 'liberty' meant freedom from physical restraints; not the so-called liberty of contract."

Five years ago such remarks would doubtless have been held as disrespect, contempt of court, by most New York lawyers. But a judge can scarcely be in contempt in his own court, and these observations were made, not by any lay critic of the judiciary, but by Justice Blackmar himself, sitting in the Supreme Court of New York State on November 29, 1912, to hear argument on the constitutionality of the fifty-four hour law for women.

This law, as is well-known, was enacted last winter by the New York legislature, and limits to ten hours in one day and fifty-four hours in one week the employment of women in manufacture. It is similar to the statutes of Massachusetts, Michigan, Ohio, Missouri and Utah (except that the last two states prohibit more than nine hours' labor in one day).

The New York law is thus in good company and can be considered in no sense radical. Indeed, it lags behind the other statutes which include women not only in manufacture, but in a variety of other occupations. And two states, California and Washington, are still further in advance in affording to working women by law a protection which workingmen have secured for themselves by trade agreement in many great industries—the eight hour day and forty-eight hour week.

That the New York statute is similar to laws in other states is of course in no way conclusive in the case at bar, except in so far as it bears on the reasonableness of the act. And it is precisely to emphasize the reasonableness of the act that Assistant District Attorney Egginton, who argued the case before Justice Blackmar, has filed with his brief a compilation of the laws of all the states, restricting the hours of labor of women. He has filed also a copy of Mr.

Brandeis's brief, submitted to the United States Supreme Court in the Oregon ten-hour case.

The New York law went into effect on October 1, 1912. Candy manufacturers proceeded at once to test its constitutionality. A test case was brought in Brooklyn, where William Hoelderlin was arrested on October 7 for violating the law. He was released on a writ of habeas corpus, and now seeks to have the writ sustained and the law declared invalid.

The attack upon the law centers upon two judicial decisions, holding invalid two previous labor laws. The first was rendered in 1905 by the United States Supreme Court in the bakery or *Lochner* case, overthrowing the New York statute which limited to sixty hours in one week the employment of men in bakeries. Certainly the opinion in this case (written, as Justice Blackmar vivaciously exclaimed, by "that fine type of the old school lawyer, Justice Peckham") might carry weight if it had not been subsequently overruled, so far as women are concerned, by the Supreme Court itself in the now famous case of *Muller vs. Oregon*. The latter decision settled in 1908 for all time the right of a state, under the federal constitution, to limit the hours of labor of women in order to protect the public health and welfare.

The second decision by which Mr. Talley, counsel for the candy manufacturer, seeks to bolster up his case is that of the New York Court of Appeals which, in 1907, declared invalid the law prohibiting the employment of women at night in factories. Again there is set forth in his brief the employer's concern for the "rights" of his woman employe upon whom "the doors of the factories are closed," after she has worked fifty-four hours a week, and 'who "must walk out of her place of employment . . . while her fellow workman may continue on with his work" for a quite unlimited number of hours, a privilege which the working woman, if allowed to speak for herself, usually declines with emphasis. The district attorney, in his brief, points out that the case at bar is concerned solely with the fifty-four hour law, that the prohibition of night work is not in question and hence the Williams decision does not affect the present case.

He goes further and significantly submits that the New York Court of Appeals would today uphold the entire New York law including the prohibition of night work. For the reasoning in the Williams decision "is adopted completely from that of the United States Supreme Court in *Lochner vs. New York*." Since the latter court has itself "completely repudiated the doctrine of the strict property right in labor contracts with respect to woman and her calling, and in view of the fact that throughout the country the many cases in the various states . . . have followed the doctrine of the *Muller vs. Oregon* case and up-



held the constitutionality of the acts, it is submitted that today the Court of Appeals, if the question were squarely presented to it, would reject their reasoning laid down in *People vs. Williams* and adopt that of the United States Supreme Court as expressed in *Muller vs. Oregon* and uphold this entire act with respect to adult females as valid legislation."

The candy manufacturers contend further that the law is discriminatory, because it exempts the canneries from the restriction of hours. Yet as the district attorney shows in his brief similar exemption of the canneries has, since the Oregon decision, been held constitutional by the Supreme Courts of Ohio, Michigan, California and Washington, on the ground that the legislature had the right to use its own judgment in deciding to what classes of employment the law may reasonably apply.

The candy manufacturers announced that, in order to show that the cannery were unfairly favored, they would file with their brief the report of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission, whose investigators have found in-

tolerably long hours of labor prevailing in the canneries of the state. Justice Blackmar expressed doubt whether he could properly take into account a document which was not in existence when the act in question was passed and which does not contain matters of "common knowledge" but the results of a subsequent investigation.

Justice Blackmar announced that his decision would not be rendered for several weeks, as he is about to sit in the Appellate Division. If his informal words in court count for anything, he means to decide the case on its broad merits instead of on narrow technicalities. "Do you think I need the courts to tell me that?" he exclaimed, interrupting the district attorney's plea that the overwork of women saps the vitality of the race, "every human being knows it."

Thus a technical expert shows his impatience with technicalities, as against the deeper elemental facts of life which underlie them. Such elemental facts, known like hunger and thirst to "every human being," are the real issues in the Hoelderlin case.

## THE TREND OF THINGS

### LEADERS IN THE MONTH'S MAGAZINES

**UNKNOWN HEROES OF INDUSTRY.** By Hugh C. Welr. *Technical World Magazine*. Tells of some commonplace every-day trades which carry in their processes dangers of insidious disease often more deadly than the ordinary industrial accident. The article tells the dangers, the pictures point out some of the cures.

**INSURANCE FOR WORKINGMEN.** By Burton K. Hendrick. *McClure's*. In healthful contrast with the pitiful human stories that were written under the old liability system, Mr. Hendrick tells just what the compensation laws already passed have done to ease physical pain by providing peace of mind.

**BURNS OF THE MOUNTAINS.** By Emerson Hough. *American*. The story of a Cumberland mountaineer, a man of the breed of Lincoln, who is trying to free the native American people of the Southern Appalachians from the "white bondage of arrested civilization." Powerful in body and powerful in mind, they lack schools, roads and money.

**OUR PRISON SWEATSHOPS.** By Julian Leavitt. *Pearson's*. The secretary of the committee on prison labor of the National Consumers' League again takes up in this series the subject of prison labor and its effect on prison life to which he first gave publicity in the *American*. In this first article he shows contract prison labor as a traffic in men for gain, hardly less shameful than the white slave traffic in girls.

**THE INASMUCH MISSION.** By Blair Jaekel. *World's Work*. Four "buns of the uttermost, guttermost type" drifted into the same mission, where gradually, to use their own words, the saving power of Christ worked upon them and they came together, resolved to carry this power to others in like case. The result was the Inasmuch Mission, the story of whose two years' work is told by a friendly observer.

**TUBAL CAIN.** By Walter M. Urban. *Atlantic*. An attempt to estimate the moral and social philosophy expressed in the art and literature of the new labor movement, in its bearings on the society of the future.

**MY LITTLE SISTER.** By Elizabeth Robins. *McClure's*. The first installment of what promises to be a disturbing piece of fiction, which essays to show how fashionable houses of prostitution are recruited.

**GOOD WILL TO WOMEN.** By Ida M. Tarbell. *American*. An account of some of the human material Dr. Davis has to work with in Bedford Reformatory, and how she works with it.

"WE heard of the mountaineers in the Civil War," says Emerson Hough writing in the *American* on the work of the Cumberland leader, J. A. Burns, "when a hundred and twenty thousand of them fought for one flag. Then we forgot them." He continues:

For many decades we have had no news regarding them, save garbled news about their feuds and moonshining. Moonshiners? Yes, but Prohibitionists. Illiterate? Yes, yet wise in the loyalty which has held them to the flag and to the government, a loyalty which by some strange intuition they have retained through a century of isolation. Slave-owners? Never, but workers themselves. Feudists? Yes, but carrying on feuds as a religion. In short, a half million splendid Spartans living in a rough land two hundred by six hundred miles in extent, and held in the worst of bondage for more than a century; while meantime our civilization, first simple and strong, now mad and sordid, has roared on across the land.

Mr. Hough retells in Burns's own words the story of the meeting in an old mill-building when this Cumberland mountaineer called his treaty meeting for the gathering of the clans in 1899. They were twenty-odd men on a side, about equally divided:

"It was a mighty quiet meeting. They sat, all armed, squatted on opposite sides of the great room in the old mill, and Burns,



feudist, mountaineer, schoolteacher, preacher, got up now and addressed them.

"He said to them that they were all rearing their sons for the slaughter, that they were living as heathen, that it was all wrong, and that there was only one way to right the wrong. He told them the only thing to do was to educate the boys, and the only way to do that was to bring in a college for their education. He said that he had no money, but was going to start a college, and asked if they cared to help him. That was in 1899, two years after the killing of Tom Baker. I have visited Tom Baker's home, have eaten with Tom Baker's daughter, now married and a Hensley by name. Crane Creek Valley, late bloody, is now quiet again. They say that feudism and moonshining is done in Clay County; and they date back to 1899 and the meeting in the mill.

"We keep treaty pens. We make paintings of historical events. There is no pen preserved by which these feudists made their marks on this charter application. There is no painting of that scene in the old mill on the bank of the Kentucky River. Fifty men, silent, armed, fearless, ignorant, illiterate men, fifty yearning, ambitious, anguished men, held in the thrall of a false idea, yet ambitious for their sons—fifty men ranged half and half, opposite each other, silent, alert, watching one another, and listening to the first prophet of the Cumberland Highlands—ah, that was a picture! 'I didn't know what they were going to do,' said Burns, 'but I was right glad when Lee Combs got up, and when Dan Burns got up too, and they met in front of me. They did not draw, but they shook hands. Then I knew that Oneida College was going to be a success.'

"So they signed their charter and went home; and the Baker-Howard feud has halted since then, and feudism and moonshining have passed in Clay County."

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**THAT** is a great saying of Arthur Young, the cartoonist of labor conditions.

"Not art for art's sake," says he, "but art for man's sake."—*Coming Nation*.

\* \* \*

**IN** this month's installment of the series on The Battle Line of Labor (*World's Work*), Samuel P. Orth quotes a picturesque characterization of the strike-breaker from the head of a detective agency:

"They are a wandering class. Some have a past, some are ex-union men who went to work contrary to instructions and were ostracised, moved away from their old home, and are doing this as a sort of way of getting even with the unions. Most of them love adventure and, when the danger is over, get restive. I have had them come to me, after things got quieted down on a job, and ask, 'Say boss, ain't there some place

where there is something doing, it's too church-like here.'

"They get their fun out of the danger, are used to guns and clubs, and can hit hard when necessary. They have a sense of loyalty that is remarkable. They obey orders like soldiers, and you can't tell me they do this just for the money there is in it. I have been followed many times, have had five men attack me in the dark, have had a price on my head, have had my men followed by four or five to each man. I have had men clubbed, stabbed, and shot; and their orders are to return the compliment. I have sent men out of besieged works with orders to do business, if they were attacked, and I have myself used the gun. It is war and excitement, and when a bunch of infuriated men are after you, you use the weapon and don't shed tears."

A circular advertising the services of these stalwarts reads:

"Secret men attend all meetings and report proceedings. The service possesses the equipment, such as Winchester rifles, police clubs, cots, blankets, etc., to handle any sized trouble."

\* \* \*

**THIS** human interest story of the operations of the Washington Insurance Law is told by Burton K. Hendrick in *McClure's*:

One of the most contented and useful citizens of the state of Washington is Edward Sweum, for many years an industrious worker in the lumber-camps. As Sweum sits day after day in his pretty mountain shack, however, there is little about his outward appearance that suggests any adequate grounds for contentment or self-satisfaction. In place of arms, this once hardy lumberman has merely two useless stumps; one is cut off at the shoulder and the other at the wrist. Sweum can not dress himself, feed himself, hold a book or a newspaper; unless, as he himself optimistically says, "I could yust find one of dem artificial hands, so I could put on my clothes and eat my foodt," he will remain a helpless cripple for life.

And yet, hard as seem his circumstances, Sweum has certain marked compensations. He owns, free of mortgage, his little home and its surrounding acres. Instead of being a charge upon his relatives or upon public charity, Sweum is still the financial mainstay of his family. His calamity has not driven his wife to the wash-tubs, and his children, comfortably clothed and adequately fed, are still regular attendants at the public schools.

In Sweum the state of Washington gives the nation an illustration of a new sense of governmental responsibility. That a man can have both arms cut off, and his family still maintain its dignity and integrity—herein the state has made a striking contri-



bution to the cause of advancing civilization. Washington, in a word, has a new law which compels employers of labor to make financial provision for injured workmen. Edward Sweum was the first to go upon this pension list for total disability.

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THE *World's Work* characterizes as the "beginnings of a revolution" the system of agricultural and domestic training quietly set into operation by Wisconsin, and already being copied by nine other states. "The Wisconsin schools," says the *World's Work*, "are coeducational, with courses of two years; the entrance requirement is work equal to the eighth grade of the public schools; the state gives \$4,000 to each every year and a county tax yields the rest of the money. The faculty of the Dunn County school, for example, consists of the principal, who teaches field agriculture and horticulture, a teacher of agricultural engineering, a teacher of animal and dairy husbandry, a teacher of domestic science, and a teacher of history, economics, and English—three men and two women. Last year there were 84 students. In another school there were 153. The buildings of these schools range in value from \$20,000 to \$60,000; the cost of maintenance, from \$6,000 to \$14,000."

\* \* \*

JULIAN LEAVITT ends his first prison labor article in *Pearson's* with a practical suggestion aimed to stimulate local prison reform organizations. Says he:

The contract system exists to-day, either openly or in disguise, in the twenty-three states named in the following list.

If you live in one of these states you can, individually, start a movement in the right direction by writing to the secretary of your local prison reform organization, asking him

1. Whether he knows what is going on in the prisons of your state?
2. If he does know, is he giving the facts proper publicity?
3. If he does not know, is he taking any steps to find out?

Missouri	Tennessee
Nebraska	Vermont
New Hampshire	Virginia
New Jersey	West Virginia
Rhode Island	Wisconsin
South Carolina	Iowa
Alabama	Kentucky
Connecticut	Maine
Delaware	Maryland
Florida	Michigan
Illinois	Minnesota
Indiana	

\* \* \*

"WHY is Ann B. here?" asks Miss Tarbell, writing on the Bedford Reformatory in the *American Magazine*. Ann's story is one of a dozen which will give those who



Alice Beach-Winter

Courtesy of The Masses

"Quit cher bellerin'! Look what I gotta carry! Look what we all gotta carry!"

read them a glimpse of the human problems to be studied in the laboratory for social hygiene at Bedford described in THE SURVEY for December 7. She has the look of innocence, and is lovely as women rarely are—oval-faced, delicate and gentle, red-brown eyes that are clear and direct, hair that matches and coils in knots almost too heavy for her little head to carry. Why is she here? Certainly not for shameful living! Here is her story:

Her parents, decent and hard-working at the start, quarreled. At twelve they put her into an institution where for a year they visited her. Then they separated, finally. Ann is now nineteen, and she has never seen them since. The institution doubtless did the best it knew for her. It fed her, clothed her, taught her fragments of things, and she worked it out—washing dishes, scrubbing floors, and making beds. At sixteen they "found her a place." But what kind of a place could she fill? No decent one, unless there was a woman at its head who saw in her an opportunity and an obligation and was willing to give of her time to train her and save her. She was turned from kitchen after kitchen as "ignorant," though she did her best.

She had as hazy ideas about morals as about housework—the catechism doesn't mean much save to those who have tasted life—and when given warning for the third



or fourth time, a janitor offered her a home with him; she took it gladly. He tired of her soon. *But he had taught her how to earn her living, something which neither Christian institutions nor Christian housewife had done.* She applied the teaching quite naturally, and on the whole happily. She was no longer met with scowls and cross words, and it was not so dull as the asylum and the solitary unfriendly kitchen.

\* \* \*

**T**HE *Literary Digest* translates excerpts from an article by Leonie Sienicka in *La Revue*, on the songs of Siberian prisoners or vagabonds escaped from prison. Their accompaniment is the comb or the clanking of chains, as musical instruments are forbidden in prison. Mme. Sienicka thus describes a concert given by a Russian composer who had collected many of these Siberian melodies and songs:

The "March of Irons" will linger in my memory forever. Imagine a chorus chanted with closed lips. Sounds thus produced resemble groans. . . . As accompaniment the sharp shrilling of combs, like the wail of the north wind in a bank of reeds. And to mark the rhythm the sinister clauking of the chains shaken by the arms they hold in gyves.

Unforgettable orchestra! A young girl of sixteen fainted during the execution of this march. Within the hall every face was pale, every lip quivering with emotion.

Here is one of the songs, a funeral dirge for an escaped prisoner, a vagabond on the steppes:

To-day, when the dawn broke  
I buried my pal.  
Not far from the bend of the road  
I put him in the cold grave.

No funeral bells were heard,  
No songs for the dead . . .  
But our mother, the frozen earth, took  
him forever  
Received him without priest and with-  
out candles.

I have kindled upon his tomb  
The trunk of a young birch-tree.  
And I have wished for my vagabond pal  
That he may rest in peace.

\* \* \*

**LYMAN ABBOTT**, looking back over sixty years' citizenship, thus formulates the message of the Nineteenth Century to the Twentieth in the *Outlook*: Says the Nineteenth Century:

We have made a political union; you have to make a vital union out of a heterogeneous population.

We have liberated the slaves; you have to teach this Nation how two races, preserving their racial purity, can live happily, hopefully, and prosperously together on a basis of mutual self-respect.

We have organized industry on a basis of selfishness; you are to pervade it with the spirit of love and service.

We have banished famine and are banish-

ing pestilence; you have to banish poverty and war.

We have opened wide the doors of the school-room and given intellectual instruction to a great ignorant population; you have to learn how to supplement that intellectual education with moral training.

We have taken from our fathers religious liberty, perfected and completed it, and handed it over to you; it is for you to bring together the several members of conflicting churches and unite them in a common effort for what Mulford has well called the "Republic of God."

\* \* \*

**S**ING a song of farmers,  
Up at early morn,  
With four-and-twenty chores to do  
Before the breakfast horn.  
When the breakfast's over  
There's little to be done,  
Except to plow the fodder  
And let the harrows run,  
And mow the sheep and prune the beets  
And curry up the swine,  
And shear the hens and dig the hay  
And shoe the gentle kine,  
And saw the wheat and rake the rye  
And wash and dress the land,  
And things like that which city folks  
Can never understand.

—Life.

\* \* \*

**W**ITH respect to the rise in general prices, Prof. Irving Fisher holds that "the end is not yet in sight." The index numbers of Bradstreet and the *London Economist* show that the price level—an average of several commodities in common use—of the first eight months of 1912 was 5 per cent in America and 6 per cent in England above the year before and the highest point yet reached in this generation.



Donahy in the Cleveland Plain Dealer  
WHEN MOTHER GOES TO MARKET



## PERSONALS

**NO MINISTER**, I believe, was ever a truer teacher and exemplar of a socially applied Christianity than Robert Collyer, who died on November 30 last, rich in honors and in years. His theology was all summed up in the simple phrase "the Fatherhood of God"; his religion was never interpreted in any other terms than the Brotherhood of Man; his life was one long service of the needs of humankind.

His lowly birth and early experiences in the mill and at the forge were the guarantee of his uncompromising democracy, and the source of his life-long interest in, and service of, the so-called lower classes of our two greatest cities, Chicago and New York. His father and mother were both orphan apprentices in the factories of Fewston in Yorkshire, and in the case of neither parent could he trace his descent back more than a single generation. At eight years of age, owing to the necessities of the family, he was himself put to work in the factories, where he remained for six years. "The hours," he tells us in his *Memories*, "were thirteen a day five days in the week, and eleven on the Saturday—rising at six in the morning and out at eight in the evening, with an hour for dinner. And if we got a chance to sit down for a few moments when the overlooker was not round with his leather strap to lay on our small shoulders, we were in luck." Speaking to me once about living his life over again, he said that he would gladly do it all, except these six dreadful years, for which even added blessings could not compensate.

At fourteen he was apprenticed to a blacksmith, and from this time until his entrance into the ministry, in 1859, he labored at the forge. At intervals when the smithy was idle, he made hay in the fields, carried a hod for bricklayers, dug wells, worked on the turnpike, and broke stones. Thus did he know the joys and sorrows of the laboring man if ever a clergyman did, and was uniquely fitted to serve their needs and voice their aspirations.

Beyond his actual experiences, however, was a temperamental attitude toward religion which gave him a supreme interest in its social aspects. "I never cared for what we call dogma," he writes in his autobiography; "I preached about the life that now is, because this was what always lay near my heart." It is not surprising, therefore, to discover that he was an ardent Abolitionist in the early days of ill-repute; that he began his professional work, not as a preacher, but as a minister-at-large to the poor; that he was released from his parochial duties during the civil war to go to the front as a nurse and agent of the sanitary commission in the hospitals and on the battlefields; that he was the official representative of the state, commissioned by the governor, in times of devouring floods in southern Illinois; that he was one of the commanding figures in Chicago in the terrible days following the great fire; that throughout his life he was



1823—ROBERT COLLYER—1912

an untiring servant of the needs of men, whatever their class or condition or church. Religion means nothing, he always declared, unless it be made practically useful in the work of individual and social betterment.

The social question, as we know it today in all its complex ramifications, had scarcely appeared at the time he was laying by the active labors of his ministry. Our modern scientific methods, our elaborate machinery of investigation and accounting and relief, and our radical movements for the extension of governmental functions to social needs, would have bewildered him, had he known or studied them. The social question of his period of activity had hardly reached beyond the question of the helping hand and consecrated heart of the individual. But as he was faithful to the social work of his day, as defined and understood, so he would have been faithful to the social work of this day, had this day been his. As it was, even in his extreme old age, every cry of justice which reached his ears awoke a response in his heart. Every appeal for human betterment had his sympathy. He never was happier than when I invited tuberculosis experts, child labor reformers, peace advocates, etc., into our pulpit. A church aloof from the world of men was to him an abomination—a church in and for the world of men, at once an ideal and a reality.

JOHN HAYNES HOIMES.

[Church of the Messiah, New York.]



THE Frank Wayland Higgins Memorial Hospital was formally presented to the city of Olean, N. Y., recently by Mrs. Frank Sullivan Smith of Angelica. Mrs. Smith is a sister of the late Governor Higgins of New York. The new building is a general hospital of forty beds. In its planning careful study was made of the latest methods of hospital construction. It filled up immediately, and the operating room has been engaged nearly every day.

At the dedicatory exercises Homer Folks of the State Charities Aid Association said: "A hospital prevents suffering, conserves strength and vitality, relieves bitter poverty, adds to the sum-total of our knowledge of the causes of illness, and thus aids in the prevention of the innumerable evils due to disease. In doing these things through the uncounted years of the future, this hospital will accurately and worthily express the great motives and purposes of Governor Higgins' life."

\* \* \*

THE Women's Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church voted recently to send to the schools under its jurisdiction, a special lecturer on eugenics and sex hygiene. Irene Earll, lecturer on the staff of the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, was chosen and is now in the field, with headquarters at Asheville, N. C.

\* \* \*

HAMILTON HOLT, editor of the *Independent*, is one of the three judges under the protocol of the cloak, suit and skirt trade in New York. His confreres are lawyers, and they form a permanent tribunal ready to make final decisions on issues which are raised by either employer or employe and which the two parties to the protocol are not able to settle between themselves.

To illustrate the sort of decisions which come up and also the niceties of the position of a layman who must act as the deciding voice between lawyers of such stands as his fellow members, Louis D. Brandeis of Boston and Morris Hillquit of New York, Mr. Holt tells how they settled a moot question as to the burden of proof.

A man who is discharged by his employer, under the protocol, has the right to appeal. Such a case failing of adjustment reached the three judges. The point was whether the burden should rest on the employe to prove that he ought in all fairness to be reinstated; or on the employer to prove that he was justified in discharging the man. Mr. Holt talked it over with Mr. Hillquit in New York, and they were of one mind. Then a letter came from Boston in which Mr. Brandeis took the opposite point of view. The lay member found himself impressed with Mr. Brandeis's logic, and he went backward and forward, something of a football between the two men of law. To help clear his mind before casting the decisive vote, he called on his father, Judge Holt of the Federal Court, who, he found, agreed with Mr. Hillquit; but Dean Kirchwey of the Columbia Law School, to whom he also appealed, lined up with Mr. Brandeis. Then Mr. Holt be-

thought him of the fellow members of his college class—such of them as had gone into the legal fraternity—and wrote them all letters. The answers came back about evenly divided. Here seemed to be a cleavage that was about to rend the legal profession as well as the garment industry.

Finally Mr. Brandeis came on from Boston, to meet with his fellow members at the City Club, as the issue seemed an important one. Mr. Holt was perhaps five minutes late in getting there, and was fairly staggered when he found that his two fellow members had come to an entire agreement between themselves before he arrived. Their solution was simple. They had decided that it was up to the workman to turn in all the proof he could muster to go to show that he should be reinstated; and, on the other hand, that it was up to the employer to turn in all the proof he could muster to go to show that the discharge should hold. And then the arbitral court, with the facts from both sides completely before them, could pass on the case.

So the protocol in this garment trade still stands, however much the legal profession may be racked in its own mind on an abstract question of law.

\* \* \*

KATE BARNARD, state commissioner of charities of Oklahoma, has been in New York recently, and Dr. Robert E. Ely of the League for Political Education gave a luncheon which proved to be a remarkable mustering of the nations—a Finnish exile, a Japanese professor, a Russian revolutionist—so the people ran around the table. This circumstance prompted Martha Berry of Georgia to tell an interesting experience she had had in a New York settlement. Governor Wilson has said that the difference between a stump and a Georgia Cracker is that the stump sometimes moves. Miss Berry described to a room full of East Side children just what new and wonderful things a chance at schooling means to the native-born youngsters of the stagnant country districts of the South. She told it in story fashion, and while the head of the Rome School is an old hand at making raids on fashionable gatherings of New York people of means, she made no financial appeal to this little audience. She noticed, however, some of the children going out and in, and at the close of the evening a much soiled and bespotted handkerchief was passed up to the speaker. In it were pennies—the pocket pieces of all nations—German, Russian, Italian, Austrian and American, a gift quite out of their hearts, deep out of their pockets, from the children of the world to the children of America.

\* \* \*

A "HERO of peace" was recently described by Alfred C. Reed in the *Outlook*. This was Dr. Thomas Brown McClintic of the United States Public Health Service, who during the last year eradicated the tick, the cause of a virulent fever much like typhoid, from an infected area in Montana, but himself fell victim to the disease. "As it went, it struck down the man who had conquered it."



## COMMUNICATIONS

### ERADICATING THE SOCIAL EVIL

TO THE EDITOR:

I am interested in your warfare against vice and would like to submit in the following form the reasons for my belief in the eradication of the social evil:

American  
Effective  
Reasonable  
Advantageous  
Desirable  
Important  
Christian  
Timely  
Imperative  
Obligatory  
Necessary!

PAUL E. DUBOIS.

[Union Theological Seminary.]  
New York,

### THE NEW YORK COURT OF APPEALS

TO THE EDITOR:

Verily, yea verily, Mr. Devine is "agin" the New York Court of Appeals. I awaited, with interested expectation, the encomiums which I thought he would surely shower upon its enlightened decision in the Fitzwater case. But, 'twas a case of budding hope crushed to earth again. He still laments. His quarrel with the justices now is that they most naughtily refuse to "retrace their own steps in contrition and remorse," that forsooth they still decline to hold an employer, who is free from negligence and in no way at fault, liable for all injuries received by his employees. If this is to be done—I quite agree with Mr. Devine that it should be—the courts should not do it. The people, and the people alone, by the legal and orderly process of state constitutional amendment, should inaugurate such a fundamental proposition. The situation in the Knisely and the Fitzwater decisions, on the one hand, and the situation in the Ives case, on the other, bear no more resemblance or analogy, from the legal and juridical viewpoints than crickets do to doughnuts.

I. MAURICE WORMSER.

[University of Illinois.]

[Our correspondent is mistaken. I am not "agin" any court; but I am unalterably and indignantly against certain decisions which that court has made. I rejoice in the conviction, now confirmed by positive evidence, that those decisions are not regarded in other jurisdictions as good law, and that one of them at least is no longer good law here. It is the Court of Appeals itself, and not this commentator, that connected the Ives case with the Knisely and Fitzwater cases. Justice Cullen expressed the opinion that the present attempt to divorce compensation from negligence is due in part to the fact that the courts have refused damages even when there was negligence. Mr. Wormser, I am glad

to see, apparently agrees with me that this is a mistake. I agree with him that legally and juridically—I will add sociologically, morally and logically—the two questions have nothing to do with each other. The step in advance taken by the Court of Appeals in the Fitzwater case is only a baby step but it is in the right direction; and my intention was to express, as to this decision, all of that ardent, pent-up enthusiasm, which is at any moment equally ready to burst forth whenever the court decides to reverse its position in the case of the Gerry Society, in the Grimmer case, in the Jacobs case, or in the Ives case.—E. T. D.]

### OF VERDICTS

TO THE EDITOR:

I hardly know in what terms to refer to Everett P. Wheeler's letter in *THE SURVEY* for November 30. I am no lawyer, but I have been instructed that it is a principle in law to assume innocence until guilt is proven. That it is merely fair to suspend judgment, and so I must confess that Mr. Wheeler's letter shocked my sense of justice. He says he has served on law reform committees "for a good many years in promoting the work of reform in the administration of criminal justice." How, then, can he in his next sentence use these words: "I have no doubt that Giovannitti finds it very uncomfortable to be in jail. But he ought to have thought of that before he committed the crime of which he is charged. But that is the question to be determined by the jury." Exactly so, and it just happens that the jury brought in a verdict contrary to Mr. Wheeler's. The jury agreed with Miss Sumner. Probably Giovannitti was as little uncomfortable in jail as though he had reflected before going there upon the possible consequences of being charged with a crime he did not commit. Certainly before going to jail his mind was preoccupied with the wrongs and sufferings of others rather than with such speculations as Mr. Wheeler suggests.

CAROLINE B. LA MONTE.

Bound Brook, N. J.

### A SETTLEMENT IN TURKEY

Those who read Emily Ray Gregory's appeal for Social work in Backward Countries' may be interested to know that a young Armenian woman, who graduated a "Heart Christian" from the American College for Girls, Constantinople, is a pioneer in settlement work in Turkey. After her graduation she started a school which proved very successful. Hearing of a village in Central Asia Minor, where the people had had no instruction to uplift them, and were living degraded lives, she asked that a missionary be sent them. When no one could be found to go she decided to give up her school and go herself to live and work in Chalgara, a village so inaccessible that the last day's journey had to be made on donkey back. She sent on word she was coming and asked that a room be cleaned for her. An effort in this direction was made, and although a high ideal was not reached the attempt was encouraging.

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY* for September 14, 1912, p. 745.



Here Miss K. lived for a few years without any helper, giving object lessons of cleanliness and friendly neighborliness.

"You cannot teach Christianity," she said, "until you first teach self-respect."

In a letter received this year she writes:

"Indeed there are some changes in my neighborhood, and among my friends and girls. They try to be clean so I feel myself rewarded. I did a great deal of washing and scrubbing floors my first years, and it was like an object lesson to the women, and some have clean houses, clothes, hands and face now.

"My villagers will not be extremely poor if they have some kind of home industry. The women know how to weave some coarse cloth which they use for their households. I got some cotton and tried to make them weave for me. At first they had many excuses and did not like to work. But after some months several came and asked for work. I hope it will spread in the village and many more will work and earn some money. I had an instrument brought with me which set up the warp for the loom which is a great help, making weaving easy and successful.

"There are sixty girls in my morning school. my old girls can read and write easy things, know verses from the Bible and can sing hymns."

This is certainly practical "social work in a backward country." L.

#### A NEWARK MENDICANCY SQUAD

TO THE EDITOR:

Would it be possible for me to get a half-dozen more copies of THE SURVEY of October 26? You will be interested to know that our police commissioners have appointed a mendicancy squad (two plain-clothes men), and that the article describing the Baltimore mendicancy plan crystallized the matter. I would like to put it into the hands of all the police commissioners, judges, etc., concerned. The two men are intelligent and capable, and the plan promises to work out satisfactorily.

A. W. MACDOUGALL.

[Secretary Bureau of Associated Charities.]  
Newark, N. J.

#### COUNTY CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

TO THE EDITOR:

Fitly supplementing the educational work attempted by the national and state conferences of charities and correction, the times are favorable for extending this work to the local community life of the people by the organization of county conferences of charities, correction and health.

The county is the unit of state government and in the larger cities which conduct business under independent forms of charter government, the union of research and relief in manner to make all reports county reports is a simple matter of detail.

In Minnesota the county commissioners in sparing numbers share in the deliberations of the state conference. The effort to organize county conferences in the larger counties has

begun, and will be pressed to a successful development.

The state board of health does not enjoy the merging of health interests under the titles of charities and corrections, and hence the addition of the word "health" to the name of the county conference. Township organizations to gather information, and distribute literature giving advice to every home concerning the methods for battling and baffling disease can be fostered by the parent county conference.

Delegates from the county conferences carrying their reports and problems to the state conferences, and delegates from the state conferences carrying well-digested summaries of these reports and problems to the national conference, cannot fail to mark a beginning of the co-ordination and co-operation, vital to progress.

The national conference will readily adapt its plans to needs thus developed, and will be stronger in public esteem because of the encouragement of a definite plan of social welfare work which reaches to the homes of the people through the channels established by themselves. Let us begin the organization of county conferences of charities, corrections and health.

C. E. FAULKNER.

[Superintendent Washburn Memorial Orphan Asylum.]  
Minneapolis, Minn.

#### PRIVATE PROPERTY IN LAND

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of September 14 is a letter on Abolition of Poverty from John K. Lewis, Santa Barbara, Cal., which contained the only reference to the "fundamental injustice of property in land" that I have seen in your paper.

I read THE SURVEY every week; it is doing splendid work. But what is the underlying cause of most of the problems with which THE SURVEY deals? Why do we need minimum wage boards, laws to regulate the hours and conditions of working women and children; why, indeed, need any child in the land work, or any married woman outside of her own home? Why is the cost of living high and getting higher until even people who do not belong to the laboring class find—like A. S. W. in your issue of October 26—that living on a salary has become a problem? In the final analysis, private property in land is the cause of it all, or nearly all. Why do vast armies of working people have to live on the terms of the steel magnates, the coal barons, the oil kings and others like them, but because these have a "corner" on the iron, the coal, the oil, etc., provided by nature? In other words, because, by being primarily great land owners, they possess the things that the earth holds for all, and that all must use to live.

We cannot abolish poverty until land values are properly taxed, so that no one can afford to hold more land than he can use, and we must also remit all other taxes so that labor shall receive the full value of all that labor creates. Until land and labor are thus freed we must expect the industrial problems of today to grow more complex and the suffering they cause more widespread.

Troy, N. Y.

ELLEN A. FREEMAN.



## JOTTINGS

### COUNTY INDUSTRIAL TRAINING SCHOOLS

County industrial training schools for boys was one of the suggestions made at the recent South Carolina Conference of Charities and Corrections. In making it Professor Wallace of Spartanburg, who has seen the evil effects of premature labor by untrained children in his own state, urged industrial training for all children. Deaconess Sands who, as welfare worker in the mill village of Graniteville, has seen at first hand the reaction of labor conditions on the workers, urged a state industrial school for white girls. A more direct interest by the state in educating its Negroes was called for by N. W. Brooker, president of the South Carolina Prison Association, who declared that homicide and other crimes are not decreasing and that only through education can they be made to do so.

### WORKHOUSE FOR DELINQUENT HUSBANDS

On October 1, a law went into effect in Prussia, which allows the courts to send a man to the workhouse on the complaint of poor relief officials, if he fails to support his family properly. The man's surplus earnings from work in the workhouse are used for the maintenance of his family.

### A GROWING LIBRARY

While the average public library throughout the country is rapidly increasing the number of its books on civic and social subjects, the more specialized sociological libraries are multiplying and growing also. A recent report of the library conducted by the New York School of Philanthropy and the Russell Sage Foundation declares that the shelves now contain 10,000 volumes and 15,000 pamphlets. Special classes of books in which the library is particularly strong are—city problems, charities and correction, housing, civic welfare and recreating, health and disease, vocational training, vagrancy, church socialization, labor conditions, with special collections on child labor and women in industry, social progress and reform. Seven bibliographical bulletins were prepared and printed during the year as follows: farm colonies for vagrants and convicts; vocational guidance; selected list of books on social subjects published in 1911; juvenile delinquency—causes and treatment; social aspects of town planning; improved housing; feeble-minded children—education and training.

### CENSORSHIP FOR FILMS

Saxony and Bavaria have established bureaus of censorship for moving-picture films. In Berlin also strict censorship exists and the number of cinematographs decreases every month on this account and on account of rules for fire protection, exclusion of children during evening hours and prohibition of smoking.

### CHILDHOOD'S BILL OF RIGHTS

The "Bill of Rights for Childhood," written by V. H. Lockwood, has begun going the rounds in Indiana lately. It has been adopted as a slogan by the state federation of women's clubs and three sermons were preached on it during the recent conference of charities and correction. Every child has the inalienable right, it declares,

To be born right.

To be loved.

To have his individuality respected.

To be trained wisely in body, mind and spirit.

To be protected from evil persons and influences.

To have a fair chance in life.

### MORE HOUSES AND TWO WAYS TO GET THEM

"What we need is more houses, not the regulation of existing houses," said Frederick C. Howe, director of the People's Institute, New York, recently at the Massachusetts Conference of Charities and Correction. To his mind "more houses" can be secured in only two ways—state or municipal building or taxation of land values. For twenty-five years," Mr. Howe went on, "we have treated the symptoms of the housing problem rather than the disease itself. Our efforts have been directed to sanitary regulation, to the control of private initiative. As a consequence, we have increased building cost; that in turn has increased rent. Increased rent in turn has meant greater congestion. The city itself must enter the competition as a housebuilder or must tax land values so that men cannot sit idly on vacant lands which should be used for the proper housing of the people. For a score of years, Germany and England vainly attempted to solve the problem by regulation just as we have done. But rents continued to increase. The proportion of income paid for rent continued to rise. Finally, in Germany and in England, both about the same time, old methods were changed, and the cities, boldly, courageously and intelligently, proceeded to build houses themselves or to encourage co-operative building. Germany supplemented this policy by taxing unimproved lands at twice the rate of improved lands, as well as by the unearned increment tax, first adopted by Frankfurt in 1904 and now made an imperial tax covering all the towns and cities in the empire. The land taxes in the English budget of 1909 have led to the breaking up of estates and the opening up of the land to use, showing the effect of land value taxation on speculation.

Mr. Howe's statements were of particular interest to a Massachusetts audience because the state for several years has been committed to the policy of state aid for the construction of houses for workingmen.

### SUBJECTS FOR PRIZE ESSAYS

The London School of Economics and Political Science, Clare Market, Kingsway, London, England, will award a social research prize of £100 for the best monograph on an assigned subject written during the session 1912-1913. The following interesting choice of subjects is offered:



"1. An analysis, quantitative and qualitative, of the annual consumption of wealth in the United Kingdom, showing in what the total product of commodities and services actually consists, and how and by whom it is 'consumed,' and as far as concerns any parts of it, with what unsatisfactory or positively deleterious results.

"2. The actual working and ascertained results of the Old Age Pensions Act; with suggestions for its improvement.

"3. A survey of any village or small town in Great Britain accompanied by an estimate of its characteristic advantages and its limitations, with suggestions for improvements (a) from within, (b) from without.

"4. A new factory bill, which should, without adopting any new principle, by appropriate technical clauses in parliamentary form, extend and make applicable to every section of employed persons in the United Kingdom all the various protective provisions now applicable only to particular sections in the existing Factory, Workshops, Truck, Shop Hours, Railway and Mines Regulation, Trade Boards, Merchant Shipping, and similar acts; with a view to securing by law to every worker such a national minimum of education, sanitation and safety, leisure and rest, and subsistence as is already prescribed by law for some workers.

"5. Whether, and if so in what manner and to what extent, the best economic use of land in Great Britain, urban or rural, is prevented by (a) considerations of sport or pleasure, (b) restrictive covenants in leases or other conditions of tenancy, (c) life interests, trusts and other forms of limited ownership; and (d) the system of assessment and rating, and other methods of taxation.

"6. Whether, and if so under what circumstances and to what extent, the agricultural industry as it is or as it might be carried on in Great Britain could afford higher wages to those engaged in it."

#### JEWISH FARMERS IN CONVENTION

The fourth annual convention of the Federation of Jewish Farmers of America was held in New York, November 17 to 19, in the Educational Alliance Building. At the opening session Rev. Nathanson read the memorial service in memory of Isidor Straus, Ida Straus, Morris Loeb, David Blaustein, and Arthur Reichow.

Discussion of the work of the purchasing bureau of the federation which buys fertilizers, seeds, agricultural implements, etc., at wholesale, and sells them to the farmers at lower prices than they could otherwise be obtained brought out its value. The bureau also acts as a clearing house for new and better methods of agriculture.

Co-operative credit unions, long in existence in European countries, a national movement for which is now being pushed in this country, is another of the federation's activities. Started with the help of the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, eight of these Credit Unions have now been established, four in New York and four in Connecticut. Small loans at short notice and upon easy terms are supplied. Religious in-

struction for the children of Jewish farmers and various social activities are other phases of the work of the federation.

Resolutions were adopted by the convention to petition Congress to consider the subject of agricultural banking, particularly the establishment of co-operative credit unions; and to hold an agricultural fair and bazaar in New York City in 1913, where products raised by Jewish farmers will be exhibited and sold directly to city consumers.

#### IMMIGRATION LEGISLATION

Representative Henry, chairman of the Rules Committee of the House, has stated that every means at his command will be given to aid in the passage of the Dillingham immigration bill, which passed the Senate last summer. This bill includes an illiteracy test requiring that aliens coming to the United States shall be able to read and write in the language of their country. Certain exceptions are made for countries where there is religious persecution. Opposition to this measure is illustrated by a recent caucus of the Democratic representatives from New York state, which met in the office of Governor-elect Sulzer, and, it is announced, unanimously voted to stand out against the bill. The situation, therefore, is at this writing a confused one. As the legislative mechanism of the House is of such a nature that it is perfectly possible for three or four powerful members to hold up legislation indefinitely, it is within the range of likelihood that the bill will go over till next session at least.

## FATIGUE AND EFFICIENCY

By JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK

Publication Secretary, National Consumer's League

NEW PRICE \$2 POSTPAID

#### CONTAINS

¶ An interpretation for laymen of the findings of physiologists in regard to the toxin of fatigue.

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# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 12

December 21, 1912



*Boardman Robinson in New York Tribune*

HIS NEW REGALIA

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



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## Young Women

National Board, Y. W. C. A., 600 Lexington Ave., N. Y. C. Official magazine: *The Association Monthly*. Pres. Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty. The advancement of Christian Social Service. Free literature (all departments).

## The American Seamen's Friend Society

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Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

## Mental Deficiency

The American Association for the study of the feeble-minded, publishes the proceedings and papers of its annual meetings in the *Journal of Psycho Asthenics*. Address Dr. A. C. Rogers, secretary, at Faribault, Minnesota.

## School Hygiene

American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M. D.; Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M. D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

## National Health

Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Executive Secretary, Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York.

To unite all the government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

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## Labor Legislation

Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws. Official publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.

American Association for Labor Legislation, Metropolitan Tower, New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

## Short Ballot and Commission Government

The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, President; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters*.

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## Charities and Correction

THE PROCEEDINGS of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. BUREAU OF INFORMATION on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 5, 1913.





Believing that the "reasoning" of both the Suffragists and the Anti-Suffragists is wrong,

MRS. MARGARET DELAND  
PRESENTS

### THE THIRD WAY IN WOMAN SUFFRAGE

outlining a plan by which men—for Mrs. Deland says "the men must decide it"—can reach the wisest solution of this problem, while now they are urged, teased and confused by a loud and clamorous lot of women on one side and "a brainless femininity" on the other. In this carefully thought-out article, the author of "The Iron Woman" makes a distinct contribution to the equal suffrage question. It is published in

THE JANUARY LADIES' HOME JOURNAL

For Sale Everywhere at 15 Cents

The Curtis Publishing Company, Independence Square, Philadelphia



## THE PITH OF IT

"IT IS within the power of man to rid himself of every parasitic disease," said Pasteur, and as if to justify his words, London has within two decades virtually cut her death rate in two. But this is only the beginning of what we may expect in the prolongation of life, thinks Irving Fisher, who surveys the whole public health movement in this issue. P. 370.

SENATOR LAFOLLETTE has introduced a bill into Congress limiting the hours of working women in the District of Columbia to eight in one day and the number of days to six in one week. P. 344.

WHEN Governor Baldwin, of Connecticut, in discussing modern ideas of prison reform before the House of Governors, scored "sentimental humanitarians and theoretical psychologists," many wondered whether he possibly had in mind Governor Shafroth, of Colorado, who told of trusting 400 convicts on the roads with no other guards than trustees; or Governor Eberhardt, of Minnesota, who said he would like to see prisoners get more pay and the state less profit from their work. The governors effected a permanent organization. P. 347.

A NEW spirit in factory inspection has appeared, says Irene Osgood Andrews; it is the spirit of co-operation and education, and at least three states have started out to attain it. That it is necessary Mrs. Andrews shows by briefly summing up the tale of miseries annually caused by accidents to workers. P. 355.

"A BOY has a right to grow up," said a speaker at the housing conference, "in a neighborhood where he can identify his home without looking at the number." As Jacob Riis puts it, the "most determined note was to call for a general housing law to cover all the land and the dwellings thereon, in the interest of all the people." P. 349.

THE physicians of Great Britain have been carrying on an animated discussion about the fees under the new Insurance Act. Meanwhile their fellow-craftsmen in the United States are looking at the larger significance of the law—declaring, to quote one writer, that it indicates—"an assumption, on the part of the government, of the responsibility of providing proper medical care for citizens who are financially unable to secure it for themselves." P. 367.

WOMEN in blue coats have appeared in the East, three of them having been attached to the regular police force in Baltimore City. On the Pacific coast, where they have become numerous enough to hold their first annual conference, they declare that women are of more value than men in remedying the vice conditions of a city. P. 345.

# THE SURVEY

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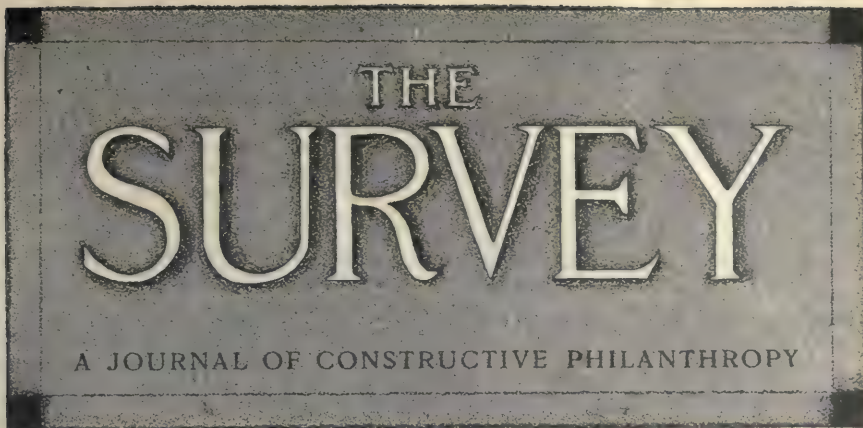
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IN SINGLING out for attack such specific evils as child labor, overwork, underpay and ill health, the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America made important additions at its recent quadrennial meeting to the declarations of social faith already enunciated by other religious bodies. An "ecumenical council" is the phrase used by our correspondent to describe the world breadth of the outlook there found. P. 368.

DECLARING, among other things, that almost all European and American precedents are against forcing the cost of accident compensation back upon the workers, I. M. Rubinow argues the advisability of rejecting the brewers' compensation and pension plan. Hugh F. Fox, of the Brewers' Association, replies that the plan was carefully drawn by competent actuaries and that Mr. Rubinow, also an actuary, is not sufficiently familiar with the brewing industry to predict how it will work. Pp. 360, 363.





VOLUME XXIX, No. 12

DECEMBER 21, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### HOME WORK AND THE HOLIDAYS

The Christmas spirit in New York has been disturbed by the hearings on home work before the State Factory Investigating Commission.<sup>1</sup>

The sanitary conditions described have been of the sort to give fidgets to shoppers of wearing apparel. But it has been the facts as to pay and hours, under which women and children do this work sent out to the tenements by various lines of factories, which have reached to the conscience of the community.

The conditions are themselves more or less an old story to readers of *THE SURVEY*, but the season at which they have been brought out has gained an altogether new reception for them. Moreover, new and startling instances of how not only the cheap lines to be bought on Fourteenth Street, but the goods to be bought at certain Fifth Avenue shops with exclusive names are frequently worked on in tenements, have been gathered by a special staff, working under Elizabeth Watson.<sup>2</sup>

One of the commission's investigators found that some of the handmade linen of the "richest babies" in America was made in a home not subject to inspection. A good part of the "French" handmade or hand-embroidered underwear, bed and table linen comes to us from the tenement house, as does the hand embroidery on our "best" shirt-

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY* of March 18, 1912.

<sup>2</sup>The early part of Miss Watson's investigation was exhibited last spring and described in *THE SURVEY* of April 6 last. The distinctive thing about the exhibit was its coherency, being designed to show the manner in which home work violates the letter or the spirit of the successive clauses of Child Labor and Compulsory Education Laws.

waists. At embroidery alone on both underwear and outside garments some 61,000 outworkers are employed. The same situation prevails with many other things in daily use. Nuts are picked and sorted by tenement children. "Sanitary" hairbrushes, the output of a firm which boasts in large advertising type of its sanitary factory and in small type advertises for home workers, are fitted with bristles on tenement dining tables. Babies of a hundred cities play with tenement-made or finished toys. The paper tubes of cigarettes are rolled by tenement hands, and their edges, when the paste goes dry, are licked by tenement lips. Through the homes of one hundred Greek families in New York no less than one million cigarettes pass each year. The women suffragists of New York, who make the protection of their homes, as well as labor laws for women and children, planks in their platform, scarcely realized that their husbands were bringing home tenement licked "Votes for Women" cigarettes from Hammerstein's Suffrage Week.

With these tenement products, come not only dirt but disease germs. Miss Watson's list of contagious diseases found among outworkers is startling. One employer who lets out home work told of the death of his own child by diphtheria brought to her from a tenement home. Dr. Annie S. Daniel, of the out-patient department of the New York Infirmary for Women and Children testified that she had in the last year found contagious disease in the households of no less than seventy-nine tenements workers.

But after all, these seventy-nine cases speak even louder of the danger of disease to the out-worker than to the well-fed, well cared for con-



sumer. The youth of the workers, their long hours and low pay are the things that make them peculiarly susceptible to disease.

Miss Watson's tables, based on intensive study of 204 of the homes visited, give some idea of home work under the three heads of age, hours, and pay of the workers. On the score of age the lisping reply of one child tells volumes. This was a tiny girl of about five who on being asked how long she had been at work, answered: "Ever since I wuz—". The tables show 24 per cent of the workers in the 204 homes visited to be between five and ten years old; 45 per cent under fourteen and 60 per cent under sixteen. As to hours the tables show that during the season 24 per cent of the adult home workers work eleven hours or more; of the children, exactly one quarter work after school five hours or more every day.

On the score of pay, the tables show that 76.5 per cent of the families earned less than ten cents an hour as families. The earnings of the separate members were not computed. One employer's pay roll showed an average of \$1.47 earned by a family of one adult and one child. Crochet work is the worst paid work, next feathers, then beads. On underwear, children of all ages can be put to work, and the average, from a pay roll of families in this work, was therefore higher, \$4.83.

Some of these little home-working girls get out to play, not while the daylight lasts, for that is good to work by, but late at night. What this night play on the streets of New York may mean to some of these was suggested by Maud Miner, probation officer of the Women's Night Court, who testified before the commission.

#### 8 HOURS AND 6 DAYS FOR WOMEN IN D. C.

Robert M. LaFollette, United States senator from Wisconsin, has revised his bill regulating the employment of women in the District of Columbia and last week submitted it to Congress again. It calls for an eight-hour workday and a six-day week for all women employed in factories and workshops. Consumers' leagues, federations of women's clubs and other organizations interested in bettering the working conditions of women, are declared to be in favor of this measure. Something of the attitude of the present Congress toward similar legislation for men may perhaps be indicated by the passage at the last session of an eight-hour law applying to firms working on government contracts.

The scope of Senator LaFollette's measure is indicated by the first section, as follows:

"No female shall be employed or permitted to work in any mill, factory, manufacturing or mechanical establishment or workshop, includ-

ing, among others, any laundry, bakery, printing, clothing, dressmaking or millinery establishment, store, hotel, restaurant, office or where any goods are sold or distributed, or by any express or transportation company, or in the transmission or distribution of telegraph or telephone messages or merchandise, more than eight hours in any one day or more than six days or more than forty-eight hours in any one week."

The bill also prohibits any girl under eighteen from working before 7 o'clock in the morning or after 6 o'clock in the afternoon. A notable feature of the measure is that it puts upon employers the task of finding out whether their women employees are engaged in other work, and if so of seeing to it that the total time of their employment does not exceed that allowed in a single establishment.

To enforce the law three inspectors are to be appointed by the district commissioners.

#### CHRISTMAS SALE OF RED CROSS SEALS

Preliminary reports indicate a larger sale of Red Cross Christmas seals this year than in any previous season. The National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis estimates that the number purchased will probably reach 40,000,000, and that it may even be as high as 50,000,000.

Over 100,000,000 seals have been printed for the 1912 campaign. Millions of pieces of advertising matter have been distributed. No less than 100,000 workers have co-operated in the campaign, and the active agents selling the seals, including stores of every kind, booths located at almost every conceivable point of vantage, individual agents and others, will amount to well over 25,000. Very few commercial concerns organize for so short a time a campaign as far flung as the Red Cross seal movement.

Seals have been sold in every state, with the exception of Wyoming, Idaho, Nevada, Oklahoma and Florida. In the latter an independent seal issued by the State Federation of Women's Clubs has been on sale. The Red Cross seals are no respecters of persons. Society women, leaders of "the four hundred" in almost every large city, have superintended booths, sold seals in hotel lobbies, helped to pack them, and have canvassed from house to house to raise money for the prevention of tuberculosis. The shop girl, in her sphere, has been no less active or successful. A cashier at one of the large department stores in New York City, disposed of nearly \$100 worth of seals to her friends and customers. Even governors and mayors have co-operated in the campaign. Governor Dix auctioned the first sheet of seals in Albany for \$130. The mayor of Rochester was even more successful and knocked down the first sheet in that city for \$434. Proclamations and letters of





*Phil in the Trenton Times*  
SHOP BEFORE NOON—IT PAYS

commendation have been issued by governors and mayors throughout the country. Working men have responded by buying seals through labor union headquarters, in their factories and elsewhere. Churches, lodges, clubs of all sorts and kinds, bankers, brokers, merchants and men and women in every walk of life, have striven to make the campaign a success.

#### NEW YORK'S PROTEST AGAINST BUDGET CUTS

In response to insistent requests from civic and charitable organizations and private individuals throughout the city, Mayor Gaynor granted a public audience to hear arguments both for and against the cuts made by the Board of Aldermen in the New York budget for 1913. The reductions voted by the "city fathers" aroused a spontaneous opposition among welfare workers because so many of the slashes affected social service activities for which public-spirited citizens had fought. Following the hearing Mayor Gaynor by a veto message sent to the Board of Aldermen on December 10, restored \$212,000 of the \$583,000 which had been eliminated. Among the items put back are appropriations made to the Board of Health for child hygiene, the prevention of tuberculosis and social service work amounting to \$85,000.

The mayor also restored appropriations for the Civil Service Commission, for the standardization of supplies for social service nurses in the charities department and for keeping health records in child-caring institutions. The largest single cut, which was \$229,000 for special teachers in the public schools, was allowed to stand. The reason assigned was that the Board of Educa-

tion has persistently refused to furnish the data which is essential to the consideration of its budget. The mayor said it was impossible therefore to know whether the reduction was unreasonable or not. He intimated his belief that probably the school officials would not be hampered owing to accruals arising from replacing teachers who die or resign by younger ones at smaller salaries. Another reduction which was not vetoed was that in the appropriation for the Playgrounds Commission.

#### WESTERN WOMEN AS POLICE OFFICERS

Everyone knows that in the United States and other western countries the steady progress of women toward active citizenship and public service is gradually emerging from a nebulous into a more and more clearly defined state. Because the process is so even and widespread it is intangible, and we eagerly dissect all substantial indications of its growth. This is one reason why there has been considerable interest in the first conference of women police officers, held recently in Portland, Ore. The meeting drew attendance only from the Pacific Coast, but thus served the better to point out in what part of the country women police officers are taken for granted. At the close of three days' discussion it was decided to effect a permanent organization at Seattle at the time of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Cities were variously represented: San Francisco by the travelers' aid secretary of the Y. W. C. A. who, with four assistants, comes in contact with 10,000 women and girls every year; Sacramento by a woman in the pay of the South-



ern Pacific Railroad and the Y. W. C. A., who works both in the station and out; Oakland by two representatives of its vice commission and the general secretary of the Y. W. C. A.; Seattle by both regularly appointed women members of its police force and a special police officer who works under the pay and auspices of the Y. W. C. A.; Spokane, North Yakima, Tacoma and other cities on the northwest coast by protective officers regularly appointed to the police force.

In many of these cities the same pioneer demonstrations of the usefulness of women in improving moral conditions had to be made before they were entrusted with public duties. A typical story is that of Lola G. Baldwin, of Portland, who was elected president of the temporary organization of the conference. The need of protective work for girls had been plainly seen by a few citizens of Portland for some time, when the exposition emphasized it. To meet this need traveler's aid work was organized by the Y. W. C. A. and Mrs. Baldwin was put in charge with two assistants. At the close of the fair the immense good which had been done and the number of girls remaining in the city caused the work to be continued. For three years it was carried on by the Y. W. C. A., Mrs. Baldwin being given police power and being sent for by the police every time a woman was brought into court.

As her work often brought her into contact with the regular police department, it was deemed wise to turn it over to the city and ask for a special appropriation. Immediately there was opposition. But when it was pointed out that the request was for only half the sum—\$6,000—which the city was spending on its dog-pond, the financial side of the case was won.

When Mrs. Baldwin, after her appointment as city employe, tried to get the side doors to saloons and public dance halls closed, she was twice threatened with shooting, once received a package of poisoned tea and once was told that if her activity didn't cease a way would be found to get rid of her.

The view was expressed at the conference that a new movement for women protective officers in a community ought to be started under the auspices of a women's society. This would enable its possibilities and point of view to become well established before the work was brought into intimate relation with the police force. The change in the system may then usually be effected by an ordinance, although Portland thought it better to incorporate the reform into the city charter.

When the question of cost was brought up, figures were given to show that the *per capita* price of police protection last year had been \$3.50 in New York, \$2.43 in St. Louis, \$2.46 in Philadelphia, and \$2.13 in Chicago, whereas in Portland the cost had been \$1.09.

Only through the appointment of women officers, declared the chief of police of Portland, can the problem of city vice be solved. He said that if he put fifty men on burglary cases they would come back better and wiser; but if the same fifty were assigned to cases involving sexual immorality, the chances were that "in thirty days half of them would have fallen for the paint and powder, and beguiling ways of the women who prey on man's weakness."

Three main conclusions seemed to rise naturally from the discussion. First, women will work harder than men to protect and save and will think less of punishment in dealing with those who are destroying themselves and others through vice. Second, women will do better work than men in cleaning up the vice conditions in a city. Third, women should be appointed on the pay roll of the city under some sort of supervision or co-operative work with volunteers of their own sex. It was declared that every city should have at least one protective officer for every twenty-five policemen.

#### EASTWARD TREND OF THE MOVEMENT

Not in the extreme West alone are women police officers to be found, however. A year ago the movement reached Minneapolis, where as yet only one has been appointed. A month ago George Creel, Commissioner of Police of Denver, appointed as a member of the detective bureau, Josephine Roche, who will be intrusted with the execution of the new dance hall ordinance<sup>1</sup> and will aid in the fight against the social evil. Miss Roche was last year connected with the Vocational Guidance Survey of New York. Still more significant of the growth of the movement, however, is the fact that there are three police women in Baltimore, and one woman detective in New York. A Maryland law of 1912 provided for five, calling them "matrons to the police force," to distinguish them from "station-house matrons."

Mary S. Harvey, for ten years connected with the Federated Charities, was the first to be appointed. Two months later Elizabeth Faber, a Swiss who speaks fluently English, French, German and Italian, and Margaret Eagleton, also connected with the Federated Charities, were named. Their work is varied. Minors of both sexes are looked after; moving picture parlors are watched; balls and dancing classes are supervised; prostitutes who are reported as entering a house of ill fame for the first time are visited. Any preventive or aggressive work that a woman can do seems to come under what may be called police-woman's work.

The Philadelphia director of public safety, after listening to the arguments of Alice Stebbins Wells, of the Los Angeles police force,

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, September 28, 1912, p. 788.



announced that he would request at once the appropriations necessary to employ women detectives. Mrs. Wells is visiting various parts of the country to widen her acquaintance with police methods and conditions elsewhere, and incidentally she is securing publicity for arguments for putting women in uniforms.

## THE GOVERNORS CONFERENCE

A. J. McKELWAY

The "House of Governors," may better be termed an experience meeting than anything else. Each governor explains the practices of his state and its method of solving the various problems under discussion. At the Richmond meeting early this month—the sixth since Ex-President Roosevelt first called the body unto being—one listened in vain for any scientific or, in most instances, any very advanced treatment of present day problems. The organization seems to have become an informal one, the chief benefit of which is the exchange of gubernatorial experiences and the delivery of individual opinions. Fully half the states were represented this year and the people of Richmond overwhelmed the visitors with their hospitality.

Penology was the topic of discussion the first afternoon of the conference. It was illuminating, at least in so far as it indicates a great educational work yet to be accomplished by such organizations as the National Conference of Charities and Correction and the American Prison Association.

Governor Shafroth of Colorado gave an interesting account of the working out of his theory of trusting convicts to observe obligations under humane treatment. During the last four years in his state only four prisoners have escaped, and there has been no general plot to escape. Half the prison population, which numbers 800, out of 800,000 people, are working on the roads without guards other than trustees. Governor Shafroth declared he was about convinced that paying convicts for the support of their families was wise; and that he favored the indeterminate sentence as an alternative of a too free use of the pardoning power.

Governor Baldwin of Connecticut had a good deal to say about the "sentimental humanitarians and theoretical psychologists,"—about, as usual an introduction to the opposing of all modern ideas of prison reform as the reference to the capitalist system is to a Socialist speech. Instead of the indeterminate sentence for some criminals—wife beaters or burglars who torture their victims—he favored the restoration of the whipping-post, as the "apprehension of bodily pain is a strong deterrent, and whipping is often the best incentive to education and

reform." Governor Baldwin made a fine legal distinction between the folly of keeping a man in prison at the will of one man or a set of men, and sending him there with his exact term of punishment measured out for him by a judge or a jury.

Governor Donaghey of Arkansas had never pardoned any man sentenced for carrying concealed weapons or selling whiskey. Usually, he declared liquor was the cause of lynchings. He denounced the convict lease system as one that "murders men alive." Governor Hadley of Missouri, said that he had paroled 450 men under twenty-one years of age, only thirty of whom had broken their parole. Governor Eberhardt of Minnesota opposed capital punishment, took a shot at the present jury system, declared there were "fifty-seven varieties" of insanity that a prisoner might plead, and believed in abrogating the right of appeal except where there had been a miscarriage of justice. He criticized the prison labor system in saying that his state had a twine factory that made \$150,000 in profits while only \$3,000 was paid to the families of prisoners, and he would like to see the men receive more and the state less. Governor Gilchrist of Florida announced that one variety of crime he never pardoned—the stealing of trust funds.

At this point the first real sensation of the conference was felt when Governor Blease of South Carolina took the floor. He defended his pardon record, especially the releasing of Negroes who had been sentenced for long terms for slight offenses. He also condemned the prison labor system of South Carolina saying that he had found the hosiery mill in the penitentiary a tuberculosis incubator, the inmates being constantly sent to the tuberculosis hospital and the prison farm to recover their health. He said he had pardoned 400 persons in twenty-four months, and hoped to make the record 800 before his second term expired. The governor then launched into the theme of lynch law for one crime and declared that he would never order out the militia to quell uprisings of people who threatened the life of a black man who had laid his hands upon a white woman.

Governor O'Neal of Alabama in reply denounced lynch law, told how a sheriff in Alabama had been removed from office for allowing a lynching, and that his warning to another sheriff had resulted in the protection of a prisoner though the sheriff had to pay fifty dollars for the hire of an automobile to do it. For that reason there had not been a lynching in Alabama for four years.

Governor Kitchin of North Carolina said that a jury in his state might be trusted to punish lynchers, and therefore there had been no lynching in that state for six years. Governor Mann of Virginia declared he would order out the



whole state militia to protect any prisoner, and that there had not been a lynching in Virginia in eight years.

The question on many lips was how Governor Blease could reconcile his refusal to enforce the laws of the state with his oath of office, and during the discussion of the divorce problem, Governor Carey of Wyoming asked it. Governor Oddie of Nevada had been discussing the uniform divorce law. He said that Nevada was not proud of Reno, that most of the divorce colony came from five eastern states with too ancient divorce laws. However, Nevada he said had declared for a reform of her law at the last election, by requiring a residence of a year instead of six months, in voting for legislators. He took the "civil contract" view of marriage explicitly and said he believed that divorce should be treated from the standpoint of eugenics rather than according to the conventions of religion. He favored a uniform divorce law, but not one drawn on too strict lines.

Governor Hawley of Idaho suggested that health certificates be required for marriage, and as a working basis for a uniform divorce law suggested that divorces should be granted for five reasons only. Governor Carey wanted no divorce law, and Governor Baldwin raised the point that the fourteenth amendment forbade legislative action on this subject and that he had vetoed a bill granting divorce for special reasons. Then Governor Blease took the floor. He defended the provision of the South Carolina constitution which says that no divorce shall be granted for any reason, and drifted into an allusion to the marriage of Jack Johnson to a white woman, saying that this could not happen in South Carolina. He declared that he was a real friend to the Negro, notwithstanding the misrepresentations of his attitude.

Then Governor Carey asked him about his oath to support the constitution, and he said: "Whenever the constitution of my state steps between me and the defence of the virtue of the white woman, I will resign my commission, tear it up and throw it to the breezes and march to the defence of her honor and her virtue." He then quoted from one of his campaign speeches in South Carolina which, he said, 75,000 people had endorsed in the last election: "If the constitution causes my state to blush and allows her women to be forsaken, then I say 'To hell with the constitution.'" At this point half the women present left the hall. There was another fiery outburst from Governor Blease when the conference passed what was virtually a resolution of censure. The resolution, offered by Governor Mann, was as follows:

"Resolved, that it is the sentiment of the governors' conference that the whole power of the several states should be used whenever necessary

to protect persons accused of crime of every kind against the violence of mobs and to provide for speedy, orderly and impartial trials by courts of competent jurisdiction, to the end that the law for the protection of life and property be duly enforced and respected by the people."

It was really worth the excitement incident to the expression of Governor Blease's peculiar views to show that they were peculiar to himself, at least among southern governors.

Other interesting discussions were on state income tax by Governor McGovern of Wisconsin, the back-to-the-farm movement by Governor Eberhardt of Minnesota, Governor Hadley of Missouri and Governor Mann of Virginia. The irrigation of arid lands and the draining of swamp lands were both thought to be the duty of the federal government.

The problems of rural credits and co-operative loan associations received considerable attention and were discussed quite fully at a gathering following the conference, when the governors met at the White House at President Taft's invitation. A committee was appointed to draft a bill for adoption by the states.

Mary Johnson and Mrs. Valentine of Richmond were given the privilege of the floor for an appeal for woman suffrage.

Perhaps the most effective speech of the conference was made by Kate Barnard of Oklahoma. She pleaded for the conservation of the human assets of the nation, told of the thousands of toiling children, of the six million working women, "whose most important business in life should be the building of the bodies and the souls of little children," and appealed to the governors to recommend the enactment of child labor and compulsory education laws, laws for workmen's compensation and for mothers' compensation, for free employment bureaus, public works for the unemployed, and a minimum wage. Then she preached to them a little, telling them that she had come to them bearing the burden of responsibility for her message, but that she had rolled upon them the burden for remedial action, and that she hoped to be able to congratulate them upon something accomplished when they all stood before the great judgment seat. It did not hurt the conference to have a small dose of religion, and, judging by the way the governors wiped their eyes and crowded around the tiny Oklahoma commissioner of charities, they seemed to like it.

A permanent organization was effected, with Governor McGovern of Wisconsin, Governor O'Neal of Alabama and Governor-elect Ammons of Colorado as the Executive Committee, which elected M. C. Riley of Madison, Wis., executive secretary. The conference will meet at Colorado Springs next year.





#### HOUSING EXPERTS SIZING UP PHILADELPHIA

A party of delegates to the Second National Housing Conference inspecting the Octavia Hill Association houses in Mifflin Place, Philadelphia.

## CIVICS

### THE NATION-WIDE BATTLE AGAINST THE SLUM<sup>1</sup>

JACOB A. RIIS

[Reprinted from the *New York Sun*.]

Less than three years have passed since the National Housing Association was organized to carry the war on the slum into the farthest corner of the land, wherever it might be burrowing, and thirty full-sized automobiles were not enough to carry the delegates to its second annual conference about Philadelphia to hunt it in the town whose proud boast is that it is a city of homes.

They came from far and near, from Maine and California, from Washington in the far Northwest and Georgia in the South, and from across the border of Canada, from twenty-three states and provinces, and from seventy-six cities. The Dominion government sent a representa-

<sup>1</sup>Two of the New York newspapers sent Jacob A. Riis to Philadelphia to report the second National Housing Conference. Mr. Riis's lifelong battle against the slum has made him perhaps the one writer in America best qualified to catch and interpret the spirit of this meeting. His article in the *New York Sun* of December 8 seemed to the officers of the National Housing Association so valuable from this point of view that after getting special permission to use it they have asked THE SURVEY to publish it practically in its entirety.

tive, and so did the Public Health Service of the United States. City health officers without number took notes. Chambers of Commerce, City Clubs, Civic Leagues, great corporations which face the problem of securing good homes for their employees, charity organization societies whose work is so largely due to bad housing, builders, life insurance companies, building and loan associations and more than a score of housing associations or committees, sent delegates.

When they all got together they owned to a common stake in the war upon the common enemy. "There is not a growing town in the United States that does not know the slum," they declared, and the health officer of Toronto added that to deny its existence was to admit lack of investigation.

^ If any community had kept it out it might be supposed to be William Penn's town, for he built it with the ideal in mind of a "wee small bit of green grass in every dooryard" to be-



guile his people into the belief that they were still in the country. That was why the delegates had come here; but they had not been awheel twenty-minutes before they were in a worse slum than most of them had seen in many a day.

The Philadelphians took them straight to the old quarters where nasty alleys abound and showed them tumble down tenements, malodorous cesspools, undrained yards and passageways, cellars full of water, and when they stood aghast they told them that there were thirty or forty thousand vaults and cesspools in the city, whereas on Manhattan Island there is scarce one left.

"But why?" chorused the delegates. "These streets," was the answer, "have no sewers or the houses are not connected."

In every alley there was a lamp post with a gasoline burner. "Who put this post here?" asked one of the health officers. "The city." "How does it come that the power which put it there does not drain the alley, too? It is at least as important." The post made no answer. The inquisitive official eyed it meditatively and asked another question: "Who lights the lamp?" "It is a private corporation," explained the native without pride; "it has a contract with the city."

"Oh," said the health officer and scratched the head of a gray cat by the hydrant.

When, the next day, the automobiles rolled past miles upon miles of little two story houses, new and neat, and were told that fourteen thousand of these had no sewer connection either because there were no mains under the pavements, the wrath of the chief sanitary inspector of Chicago found vent in the exclamation: "Then, why don't you get them? We can tell you the way in Chicago: Not a house let them build till there are sewers in the streets!"

In the conference that afternoon Chief Inspector Buchholz of Philadelphia's Tenement House Division offered the city's excuse. It was, he said, a question of money. Philadelphia needs six millions of dollars for sewers and has appropriated a million and a half in the last twelvemonth. All the previous council was able to afford was \$7,500.

The far famed small homes of the Quaker City are built on shallow lots, with a minimum width of fourteen feet and depth of forty-one. There are 200,000 such in Philadelphia. Some of them are very pretty, with gardens in the middle of the street; mostly the delegates found the unending brick blocks, with their expressionless fronts, rather trying.

"A boy has a right to grow up," cried one exasperated member, "in a neighborhood where he can identify his home without looking at the number," and the conference applauded wildly. For all that, there were workingmen's homes at rents within their reach, \$13 to \$16.

But the automobiles took the delegates at last to a place that made them feel at home. They halted in Mifflin place at one of the properties managed by the Octavia Hill Association. There were the old houses in which the British officers made merry in the winter when George Washington's army froze and starved at Valley Forge, a score of miles away. The rare woodwork and carved mantels are there yet, and in the yard the slave houses became tenements like their masters' quarters. Where the tulip gardens were is now a playground common to the children of all the houses, and there are trees and green things in summer.

The old governor's mansion does not seem cast down a bit because poor people live in it, and it needn't. It is in good hands. Mr. and Mrs. Clark, who own it, have handed it over to the association, desiring no profit, not 5 per cent or even one, and yet the profit is there, to be still further applied to the further reduction of the rents. For the property is managed with such skill and care and such mutual good will and helpfulness that last year's bill for repairs due to carelessness of tenants in all the 500 houses of which these in Mifflin place are a sample was just \$50. Hence, when the question was asked in the conference what blame the tenant bore for bad housing conditions their representative answered promptly "None." That was Philadelphia at her best.

When President Robert W. de Forest's gavel fell in the hall of the Young Men's Christian Association he looked upon seats filled with clear-eyed men and women, fellow fighters all, and he smiled at the sight, for he saw the finish of the slum. "We are here to help," he said: "let us aim at practical things. Do not let us try to do everything, for we can't. Some things we can do; let us pick the most important and do them and everywhere let us hold up the hands of our officials at home, not merely pursue them with hostile criticism."

Then the floodgates were opened, and for three days paper followed upon paper, speech upon speech, and never a delegate left his or her seat except to go out to luncheon at the Hotel Walton. But they had no sooner sat down there before the gavel banged once more and reports kept flowing in from every point of the compass of what was doing at home. Mighty interesting were they, too, in all their brevity. The city of Cleveland reported that her mayor cared a good deal less whether his town would have a million inhabitants in 1920 than whether it would be a fit place for a million souls to live in. Chicago's Association of Commerce declared that it had picked out its job, namely to get a big enough appropriation for the Health Department to enable it to do good work. Boston, said the secretary of the Massachusetts Civic League, was waking up, but hadn't hurt anybody yet.



The trouble was that Boston people were satisfied.

Cincinnati was hopeful in that it had just found out how sick it was; and so on." It was always a word of cheer, even when it was bad, for that meant that it was going to get better right away. Even Philadelphia herself declared that she had just wrung from the general assembly power to put water into the alley shacks—not much, only one hydrant for every house with a yard and one for every three without, but it was a beginning.

"We don't usually speak of these things," said Newman of the housing commission, "before strangers. Only today when they were brought up in our state conference we were charged by a member of the assembly with defaming our state. It was good enough for him, he said. He would rather be hanged in Pennsylvania than die a natural death in any other state." The reformers sighed. They knew the signs; behind them the slum barrens unchallenged ever.

The whole range of human experience and endeavor did these reformers traverse with unabated enthusiasm, for all paths led these days to the housing problem. The balance they showed was no less noteworthy than their zeal. Cried one: "We have cemeteries aplenty, fine hospitals and institutions without end in which to keep the brother whose home we neglected, but they altogether did not answer the challenge, 'Am I my brother's keeper?'" The housing question is not merely a sanitary problem—it is a human problem, and it holds in our cities the right answer. Until we house our people decently we cannot make them efficient workers.

Politics got many a hard knock in the conference. Until health departments ceased to be a football of politics they would never justify our hopes. That advice came from Canada, too. Woman's place in the fight was never in doubt. She was needed as an instructive sanitary inspector, in the tenement family, leaving to uniformed men the stern enforcement of law. But some things she could do better, for instance to teach the tenant that the family bed was not a good place to raise the family's bread in. A cheery note of faith in the tenant was sounded by that untiring pioneer in model tenement building, Alfred T. White of Brooklyn, who, after thirty years, is at it yet.

"If I had my life to live over again," he cried, "I would rather do without any other investment I have ever made than the one I made in tenement houses," and he bore witness to the willingness and fitness of tenants as a class to profit by whatever opportunities were put in their way. "We hear no more of the old libel that they won't take care of the improved houses. Who nowadays opposes stringent legislation? Not they, but the landlords. The health of the people is the test of civilization. When we find the death rate going down to nearly one-third in step with tenement house reform we know that we are on the right road." And he added that the tenants could better afford the higher rents than the old slough and its mor-

tality; that really they were gainers and knew it.

In American cities the inadequate powers of many of our health departments has proved a stumbling block in the way of improvement. Ontario cities have an advantage in this respect according to one of the Canadian delegates.

In Toronto the health officer ordered a member of the Council to abate a nuisance. His dignity ruffled, he sought out the city solicitor, who listened to his grievance. "Did the health officer tell you to do that?" he asked. "He did." "Then all I can tell you is that if the health officer tells you to go to hell, you've got to go."

The conference heard all the theories and squared them by all the facts. The factories ought to go to the suburbs, but they can not and will not go unless they have adequate transportation facilities. Wage earners would be better citizens and industrial conditions more stable if they owned their homes, but if paying for them was too great a handicap exactly the reverse might happen and the standard of living be fatally debased in the effort. Small family houses are better than tenements, but tenements can not be entirely abolished.

In New York, Tenement House Commissioner Murphy reported things were mending fast. Landlords were coming to see that co-operation with the authorities, not opposition to improvement, paid them best. Washington had torn down 1,503 hopeless tenements since 1907, Boston 1,138 in eleven years, Cleveland 220 in a single year. The national capital still has its 275 alleys left, in which the baby mortality is 375 in each thousand of the population, while in houses fronting on the street it is 157. But Congress bears the blame for that and can fix it. The ancient evil of the lodger in tenement families is about to be attacked. Need and greed of the tenant, said Lawrence Veiller, are the causes of it with race solidarity. The proposition is to forbid the lodger except with consent of the Health Department, and make the landlord responsible.

Though the thousand dollar house has not yet been discovered, the conference agreed that Philadelphia had, after all, come closest to it. Its most determined note was to call for a general housing law to cover all the land and the dwellings thereon, in the interest of all the people. And so it passed out, with the warning of Ambassador Bryce at the closing dinner, that do what we might to help, our cities were growing a menace in their bigness, and that the stand of the mayor of Cleveland was, after all, the one worth taking. Bigness is no cause for pride; only fitness is.

#### INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON PUBLIC BATHS

Three hundred delegates from the Netherlands, Austria, Germany, Belgium, France, Norway, Sweden, Italy, Spain, and Greece and the United States attended the first International Conference on People's and School Baths at Scheveningen, The Hague. It was regretted that the State Department at Washington declined



to send a delegate, which left the United States without official representation to the conference. The American Association for Promoting Hygiene and Public Baths, however, was represented by three delegates, Dr. William Paul Gerhard, Rev. Thomas M. Beadenkoff and William H. Hale.

An instructive exhibition formed a part of the conference. The largest number of plans were from German cities, which have paid particular attention to the establishment of people's and school baths. The borough presidents of Manhattan and Brooklyn sent an exhibit which was in charge of William H. Hale, the superintendent of the Brooklyn Public Baths. The New York Board of Education also exhibited many photographs of school baths.

The program of the conference, which lasted three days, was supplemented by a number of excursions, receptions, concerts and banquets. These were arranged for by the Netherland Union for Public and School Baths.

At the first business session, the delegates from the different countries presented reports on the status of the public bath question in their countries. The Progress of the Public Bath Movement in the United States was summarized by Dr. Gerhard who presented statistics tending to show that New York, Brooklyn, Chicago, Boston and Baltimore have done the largest amount of work in the establishment of bathing facilities for the masses. Philadelphia, San Francisco, Washington, Los Angeles and Minneapolis are among the cities making the poorest showing. Syracuse and Utica in New York seem to have failed to act under the New York state law of 1905, which makes the establishment and maintenance of people's baths in cities of more than fifty thousand inhabitants mandatory. Many of the large manufacturing cities, such as Hartford, Springfield, Mass., Trenton, Lowell, Grand Rapids, Fall River, Paterson, Schenectady, Lynn and others, he declared, have done little or nothing to provide cheap baths for the army of working men and women.

Among the papers presented by delegates from the European countries, two by German engineers were considered especially notable for the suggestions which they contained. The first of these was by Herman Recknagel of Berlin on the Construction and Equipment of Swimming Baths, and the other by Oberbaurat Wolff of Hannover on the Planning, Construction and Installation of People's Baths. Herr Recknagel urged that in order to reduce the running expenses, a bath house should be connected with a steam power plant, or electric light works, so that it may utilize the waste steam of such establishments. A distance of even two miles constitutes no objection to the plan. The increased expense for supplying water for public baths from the city water works, he urged, amounts to but a fraction of a cent for 250 gallons, because only the coal for pumping the additional water needs to be considered. He also suggested that the roof over the swimming pool should be arranged so as to slide open, in order to permit in summer time bathing in the open air.

Oberbaurat Wolff in his paper on People's Baths made a special plea both for economic and hygienic reasons for the tepid douche or rain bath. In special cases he urged the instalment of Turkish, electric light and air and sun baths. A point upon which he laid especial emphasis was that the establishment of baths in schools, factories, military barracks and in other special places does not render people's baths any the less necessary.

#### AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION MEETING

New and important phases of subjects that have been considered more or less fully by the American Civic Association in previous years were presented at the eighth annual conference of the association last month in Baltimore.

George A. Parker, superintendent of parks in Hartford, Conn., urged that public parks can be made self-supporting without curtailing their present freedom, while at the same time increasing their beauty and usefulness. Mr. Parker advocated the maintaining of various park, recreation, rest and refreshment accessories under the direct management of the park boards rather than the usual concessions method. He drew the line sharply between the service as rendered by concessionists as compared to the service that should be given by the park board, whose object would not be primarily the realization of large dividends. Mr. Parker declared that even with better service substantial revenue might be derived, which, together with other special resources of income, would make city parks self-sustaining.

Another address that attracted attention was that of J. C. Nichols of Kansas City, Mo., who told of Creating a Neighborhood by Planning. He described the safeguards which he employed while building a modern residential district in Kansas City to insure the permanency of the locality as a region of homes.

National Parks, the Need of the Future, formed the text of speeches by Walter L. Fisher, secretary of the Department of the Interior, who told of the recent conference on National Parks held in the Yosemite, and by Ambassador James Bryce. Mr. Bryce commended the United States upon its wisdom in securing for its people large areas for national parks, and urged that under no conditions should they be encroached upon by private interests.

Walter D. Moody, managing director of the Chicago Planning Commission, who spoke on Teaching a City's Plan to Its Children, announced that the commission proposed in the near future to prepare a text-book for use in schools in all cities.

The concluding feature of the program was the description by Walter Burley Griffin, who won the prize offered by the colonial government for the best plan for the new capital city of Australia. J. Horace McFarland and Richard B. Watrous were re-elected president and secretary.





*Courtesy of the Newark Shade Tree Commission*

#### THE APPEAL OF THE INNOCENTS

One Thousand Young Trees were Killed in Newark Last Year for Lack of Water.

### JOTTINGS

#### A PROBLEM FOR CITY PLANNERS

The National Conference on City Planning is to conduct this year a study in city planning of an area on the outskirts of a growing city of about 500,000 population. The tract is assumed to contain 500 acres of land located four miles from the center of the city but entirely within its corporate limits. Certain facts are assumed in regard to the rate and direction of growth of the city and the demand for the erection of dwellings, retail stores, local places of amusement, schools, churches, etc.

In order to avoid discrepancies in legal conditions, it is assumed that developments of private property are to be governed by the requirements defined in the building code approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters and in the model tenement house law.

The plan is to include the location of streets and other proposed properties, the development of private lands in accordance with the general plan, and the recognition of such control as might reasonably be expected to be exercised through real estate restrictions.

The purpose of the study is not that of an ordinary competition but rather a means of securing the co-operation of a number of people in preparing and assembling specifications and concrete illustrations of the application of a variety of important ideas and the principles and devices used in city planning.

Further information can be had by addressing Flavel Shurtleff, secretary of the conference, 19 Congress street, Boston.

#### COMFORT STATIONS IN PITTSBURGH

A short and successful campaign in Pittsburgh for public comfort stations came to a close last month, when a proposed bond issue for \$80,000 for this purpose was carried by a majority of 10,000. During the summer the Civic Club of Allegheny County submitted to the county commissioners, the directors of the municipal departments and to each member of the city council, a report regarding the establishment of comfort stations at the post office, on the north and south sides, at the west end, and in East Liberty, Lawrenceville and Soho.

On receipt of this report the mayor requested an approximate estimate of the cost for each proposed station. The council finally passed unanimously an appropriation of \$80,000, which was thereafter known in the bond issue of 1912 as Item 9. Boards of trade, church organizations, political clubs and the press were interested to such an extent that Item 9 for public comfort stations received the greatest number of votes. It carried by the largest majority, while five of the other items were voted down.

#### AN EROSION MODEL FOR SCHOOLS

A working erosion model has been a feature of exhibits made by the Forest Service at recent expositions. It showed the working out of the natural phenomena so well that Don Carlos Ellis has devised a similar model for the use of school classes in nature study, elementary agriculture and physical geography. The model consists of two hills sloping down into two val-





*Courtesy of American Forestry*

#### A WORKING EROSION MODEL FOR SCHOOLS

leys through which two streams wind in and out through farm lands and lead into two lakes at the front of the landscape. Both hills are made of the same kind of soil, but one is covered thickly with twigs to simulate a forest underneath which is a heavy carpet of moss, while the other hill is bare of all vegetation.

By means of a suitable sprinkling device, water in the form of rain is made to fall with equal force upon the two hills. On the unprotected slope the rain washes deep gulleys in the hillside. The erosion on the slope loosens stones; the silt deposited in the channels of the stream diverts the water, which opens up gulleys through the dry lands.

Mr. Ellis, describing his model in a recent issue of *American Forestry*, says:

"While the model is not intended primarily to show more than the erosion processes, it can be used to show also that a forest-covered slope acts as a reservoir in impounding the water and allowing it to seep slowly into the streams, and, on the other hand, that water runs off the surface of a bare slope as soon as it falls, resulting in floods when the precipitation is heavy and in droughts during a dry season. If the sprinkler is stopped and all the water taken out of both of the streams and the lakes, the lake on the forested side will, within a few hours, receive a considerable amount of water as seepage from the wooded hillside, while the other lake will remain practically empty."

#### THREE KINDS OF PLANTING

"My people perish," 'twas said of old, "for lack of knowledge," and as with the people so with the people's trees. This, in a nutshell, is the point emphasized in the last report of the Newark Shade Tree Commission, which points out that 1,000 young trees were killed in the New Jersey metropolis last year for lack of water.

Three kinds of planting are described and emphasized in this pamphlet, as follows:—

"Plant Trees; by all means, plant trees. That's number one. But don't forget to

"Plant Also the Love of Trees. That's number two. For this kind of planting the best soil is the heart of childhood and of youth. And while you are about it

"Plant Likewise Knowledge Concerning Trees. That's number three. Not necessarily the forester's technical knowledge; just a comfortable 'working knowledge,' you know. The leading species and how to distinguish them; how, and what kind, to select for planting—or to reject; how to set out a tree; how to care for and protect it; and so on. Not very recondite knowledge this, and easy to impart—also easy to take in. And useful? Yes, masters, eminently useful; and, if Newark is to do its best in trees, indispensable."

#### ALBANY BUILDS LOW PRICED HOMES

Two years ago in response to complaint because there was a scarcity of moderate priced dwellings in Albany, the Chamber of Commerce appointed a special committee to investigate the matter and report. As a result of its report a building association known as the Albany Home Building Company was organized with a capital of \$100,000. The company purchased two plots, one in North Albany and another just outside the city limits, and has now erected twenty-four two-family houses and thirty-nine single dwellings. The single houses contain gas and electricity and hardwood floors and sell for from \$1,700 to \$4,000 and rent for from \$14 a month to \$35.

The company was organized because it was felt that Albany needed more citizens who owned their homes and because the failure of certain large manufacturing interests to locate in Albany was due largely to the fact that there was no adequate provision for housing their employees. As rapidly as seems advisable the company expects to extend its operations in different parts of the city, provided the demand for houses erected continues.

#### THE NEWPORT SURVEY

A civic survey has been made of Newport, the summer home of the "four hundred" of New York. The investigation occupied a year's time. The report, which was recently published, made charges of lax moral conditions in the city. Among the specific items are references to gambling, both in upper and lower social circles, violation of the speed law by automobilists, and the dependence of young girls from sixteen to twenty-four years on moving picture shows for their recreation.

The survey committee is composed of representatives of the Citizens' Committee, the Charity Organization Society, Y. M. C. A., Civic League, Law and Order League, the Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, and the Ministers' Union.

The study of local conditions is to be pursued further for the committee under the direction of Carol Aronovici.



# INDUSTRY

## THE NEW SPIRIT IN FACTORY INSPECTION

IRENE OSGOOD ANDREWS

ASSISTANT SECRETARY, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

Did you ever try to read through the annual list of fatal accidents in the industries of this country?

Here are some samples:

Case 1. "While working at rolls, deceased was struck by bar of steel at white heat as it came through the rollers; abdomen punctured; died within ten minutes; married, aged 25."

Case 2. "Caught on shafting and whirled around to his death; neck dislocated, hands and arms burned, and otherwise disfigured; found wedged between shaft and cylinder of engine; single, aged 39."

Case 3. "He used stick to replace belt on pulley; stick was caught and hurled against him, penetrating the abdomen; killed almost instantly; married, aged 35."

Case 4. "While placing belt on pulley clothing caught on set screw and he was whirled around rapidly revolving shaft, receiving terrible injuries which caused death three hours later at hospital; single, aged 25."

Case 5. "Found in elevator with part of body extending over edge of floor; dead when found; married, aged 76."

Case 6. "While adjusting belt which runs over filter filled with boiling caustic, he slipped and fell into the caustic; terrible burns caused death within few hours; married, aged 42."

Case 7. "Fell into tank of hot chemicals; burns resulted in death nine days later; married, aged 23."

Case 8. "Clothing caught in screw conveyor and deceased was drawn in and 'slowly ground to pieces'; single, aged 22."

After you have finished this year's list try last year's, and the year before that,—35,000 of them a year, at a conservative estimate.

And then do the same for those who only had an arm torn out, a leg cut off, a foot crushed or an eye bored out—500,000 more a year. Then stop and think that large numbers of accidents are never reported at all.

There is always a sequel to these brief bits of history. The charity societies can tell it to you in many cases, and the court records will tell you of the many futile attempts to recover money compensation.

During the second quarter of this year, in New York alone, there were over 19,000 accidents—the largest number for any one quarter ever reported. These accidents were in factories, mines and building construction work only. No one knows the number of accidents not reported. In

addition, under the new law requiring the reporting of occupational disease, 164 cases of industrial poisoning and disease were reported during the first year's operation. And this law is scarcely yet in working order.

Until this year only twenty-three states had laws requiring the reporting of accidents and many of these apply only to one or two industries. In many more cases the laws are so inadequately drawn as to be practically unenforceable, and in other cases the enforcement is so lax as practically to annul the act. Several of the largest industrial states having comprehensive laws have been reporting less than 2,000 accidents a year; other states of similar industrial importance report from 10,000 up.

Obviously there exists a serious lack of protection for work people. Why do not our labor laws actually give the protection for which they were intended? Many will answer at once, "Politics!" But "politics" is only a part of the answer. Others will as quickly reply, "Not enough inspectors!" And this too is only a part of the answer.

### *The First Handicap*

Take a recent occurrence in New York. Last winter two men died and one was totally blinded for life as a result of breathing the fumes of wood alcohol while varnishing vats in a brewery. The law says: "If steam, gases, vapors, dust or other impurities be generated in the course of the manufacturing process carried on therein, the room must be ventilated in such manner as to render them harmless." Note the phrase, "in the course of manufacturing process." Now, varnishing vats in a brewery is not "in the course of the manufacturing process," but comes under repair work, and therefore, the enforcing officer is powerless, legally, to require proper ventilation to carry away the poisonous fumes.

Many factory laws enumerate a certain list of dangerous conditions, machines or appliances which are to be safeguarded; but they leave unmentioned many other dangerous conditions, appliances or machines which are in as great need of safeguarding as those danger points specifically mentioned in the law. Not being specifically mentioned, the inspection officials have no authority over them. The brewery case is merely one incident which illustrates the first great handicap in the present legal safeguarding of human life.

### *The Second Handicap*

The second handicap exists in the fact that many state laws place no obligation whatever upon an employer to safeguard danger points un-



less "the commissioner so directs" or "if in the opinion of the commissioner of labor it is necessary," or "in the discretion of the commissioner of labor."

These expressions occur in sections of the present New York labor law; for instance, relating to such vital points as providing belt shifters or other mechanical contrivances for throwing belts on or off pulleys, the guarding of elevator shafts and well holes, removing dust from woodworking machinery, lighting of halls and stairways, the number of toilets, and fire-escape requirements. In all of these instances the employer is under no obligation whatever to provide safeguards until an inspector has called and ordered him to do so. For a clear impression of what an accident in shifting belts means, read cases four and six again. Official reports show that at least twenty-eight men were killed in one year in New York because of unprotected elevator or hoisting shafts and well holes.

### *The Third Handicap*

The third handicap exists in the fact that most labor laws state merely that protective requirements must be "suitable," "sufficient," "adequate," "ample," "practicable," "reasonable," "proper." Furthermore, requirements may be enforced only "when necessary," "if possible," "as far as possible," "where practicable," or "when conditions are injurious to the health of the employees." The New York law, as in many states, requires that "all vats, pans, . . . and machinery of every description shall be properly guarded."

Take the case of David Brown, a laundry worker in one of our large cities, who, while cleaning out the inner kettle of an extractor or drying machine, slipped, as he leaned over to turn off the power, and whose arm was caught in the rapidly revolving kettle and torn out at the shoulder.

David Brown sued for damages under the employers' liability law, and the jury awarded him \$2,000. But the Appellate Department reversed the award on the ground that in the industry "covers are very rarely used upon such machines," and therefore they cannot be classed as "dangerous," and furthermore, if a cover had been provided, the court held that it might not have been used to prevent the accident since the purpose of the cover is to protect clothes from dust when they are drying. Two of the five judges dissented from the majority opinion.

To rule that any machine is not dangerous because it is not customary in the industry to guard it, creates a serious situation. But a more serious situation was disclosed when the judge held that the cover might not have been put on the kettle if it had been provided. He was quite right, considering the kind of cover he had in mind; that is, one that could be put on and off by hand. And evidently the factory inspector had in mind the same kind of a cover. Neither the judge nor the inspector knew the all-important fact that the "proper" guard for such a machine is, not one put on or off by hand, but one that is so attached to the machine that it closes automatically before the machine can be put in opera-

tion. With this kind of a safeguard the workman can take no chances.

Such a device would have prevented, in the first place, the occurrence of the accident and, in the second place, had the judge or the inspector been sufficiently informed as to what constituted a "proper" safeguard, the \$2,000 award of the jury would probably not have been reversed, and the man and his family would not have been condemned to poverty.

### *Protection and the Courts*

Prosecutions for violations of the factory law, with the existing small penalties, furnish but little incentive to the employer to provide proper safeguards. It is of but little use to begin prosecutions since, where no definite standard exists, the manufacturer's word is as good as the inspector's; and comparatively few prosecutions are undertaken. In New York, for example, during the year ending September 30, 1911, only nine prosecutions were begun for failure to safeguard dangerous factory machinery. Two cases were pending at the end of the year, three were dismissed or the defendants acquitted, and four convictions were secured, one with a suspended sentence and three with fines amounting to a total of \$70.

Not long ago a workman had his right hand crushed off while at his work of removing broken paper from between steel cylinders which were revolving at a very high rate of speed. In passing upon the case, the judge said:

"The plaintiff undertook to show by the testimony of witnesses that protection was afforded in some mills by what amounted to guards in front of the calender stack. I find no evidence of guards, as guards, at all. To the contrary, the evidence relied upon disproves the practicability of so guarding this machine as to prevent the possibility of such an accident. . . . The defendant's papermaking machinery was not shown to be defective, or unusual, and the statute had no application to a case where to guard, or to cover, a portion of it, might be to interpose a serious obstruction to the conduct of the manufacturing operations."

Another case: About ten years ago a workman in New York fell through an unguarded elevator shaft and was killed. Action for damages was begun in 1904 and the courts have had the case before them continuously ever since, trying to decide whether or not the killed man knew of the danger, whether he appreciated the danger, and whether or not he assumed the risk of the danger. The case has been tried six times in the Supreme Court, five times in the Appellate Department, and once in the Court of Appeals. The case is now for the seventh time referred again to the Supreme Court.

Surely the employer or the inspector is not stirred to action by these decisions. Thus it happens that the real protective elements of our labor law, because of lack of standards, are being made up largely by individual inspectors and by the judges. We find the inspector called upon, unwisely and unjustly, to interpret and ap-



ply the indefinite provisions; we find the employer without direct responsibility and more or less inactive because he cannot know exactly what will be required of him; and the judge, without definite standards before him, becomes umpire in a citation match between the contending attorneys.

Obviously the need is for standards.

### *The Making of Standards*

The use of general terms and blanket provisions in a law has, of course, several aspects. The frequent need of elasticity in legal provisions is obvious, especially under the rapidly changing methods of manufacture in America. But what is needed is the intelligent use of elasticity. The basis for this lies in the classification of industry according to the existing degree of danger found in each class. In other words, industries and the protection they should afford the workers, should be classified and standardized according to the risks found operating in each industry.

The important problem, then, is by what method shall industries be classified, how shall practical and enforceable standards of comfort, health and safety be made, and how enforced.

### *The New Spirit*

It is in answer to this question that the new spirit in factory inspection has so definitely appeared—the spirit of co-operation and education. This spirit is already developed in at least three states: in New York, through the Joint Board of Sanitary Control operating privately in the cloak, suit and skirt industry in New York City; in Massachusetts, through the Board of Boiler Rules operating wherever boilers are used; and in Wisconsin, through the Industrial Commission, operating for practically all industries with jurisdiction over such industrial problems as unemployment and trade disputes, as well as health, safety, comfort, and moral conditions in factories.

The Joint Board of Sanitary Control is governed by representatives of employers and employes and regulates sanitary conditions in the cloak, suit and skirt industry. It is an excellent example of what can be accomplished through the co-operative spirit, but is applicable only where there is a strongly organized trade union working in a highly competitive industry.

The Massachusetts Board of Boiler Rules, organized in 1907, has been formulating and putting into actual operation standards of safety not only in the use, but also in the manufacture of boilers. It has taken a step which is likely to become a fundamental factor in accident prevention—requiring devices for safety and comfort to be included in the manufacture of machines rather than to be attached after the machine is completed and in use. The board consists of one representative of the boiler-making interests, one of the boiler-using interests, one of the insurance companies, one operating engineer, and the chief of the boiler inspection department. Rules formulated by this board must be submit-

ted to public hearings, and, after adoption, are signed by the governor; they then have the force of law.

The regulations look to the layman and the average legislator like text books in higher mathematics, but they are veritable "gold mines" to all concerned with the operation of boilers. They have been copied by many cities of the United States and have traveled even so far as Manila of the Philippine Islands.

### *The Wisconsin Industrial Commission*

The Wisconsin Industrial Commission created last year had its real beginning as early as 1908, when James D. Beck, then commissioner of labor in Wisconsin, began calling conferences of employers, employes, safety experts, insurance inspectors and staff members to consider questions of safety for a few of the most dangerous trades. The constant necessity for expert experience and for the grouping and classification of trades in order to secure effective enforcement led to the formation of the commission.

This commission is given extensive powers to make rules for the comfort, health and safety of industrial workers, but it cannot establish regulations until both employers and employes, and any other interested parties are given an opportunity, through public hearings, to make recommendations. Rules are made for each class of industries to fit the different conditions and risks of each class, and are submitted for criticism to all who are concerned or interested. Under this method the legislature lays down the general rule and the commission is given the power to secure all the facts necessary to determine and promulgate safeguards that will actually render the industry as safe as possible.

When the commission took up the question of safety and sanitation it appointed a committee on safety and sanitation standards composed of representatives of the employes, the employers, the health departments, the Employers' Mutual Liability Company, and the experts of the commission.

The committee held meetings each week, and after two months submitted a partial set of rules to the commission. The commission issued copies of these rules, held a public hearing on them, redrafted certain rules, and appointed two subcommittees of inspectors and of employers and employes from certain industries upon which the commission wished more information. All suggestions were again considered at a public hearing, and the rules revised and unanimously adopted. They were published on May 14, 1912, in an illustrated bulletin of forty-three pages. The rules became effective June 14, 1912.

As an illustration, we find that the law on belts and pulleys covers six pages and contains definite, specific directions indicating special danger points, and includes eight cuts of devices illustrating practical effective methods of safeguarding. Six pages with two illustrations are given to explaining methods of preventing accidents on elevators and shafts. Thirty pages of illustrated information for employers, inspectors and employes!



# WISCONSIN INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION

## CLASSIFIED DUTIES



The introduction to the bulletin on corn shredders is as follows:

In the year 1911 in Wisconsin 94 farmers were seriously injured on corn shredders, corn huskers and feed cutters;

4 deaths resulted;

6 arms were lost;

21 hands were lost.

This is appalling!

Not so many Americans were injured in the battles of Manila Bay and Santiago.

Not so many were injured in boiler explosions in Wisconsin in six years.

Not so many were injured in Wisconsin in powder mill explosions in ten years.

Think of the pain and suffering!

Think of the economic loss:

4 deaths .....	\$40,000
6 arms .....	42,000
21 hands .....	105,000
Other injuries .....	120,000

\$307,000

This is the record of just one year.

The stories of nineteen recent accidents as told by the injured men are then reproduced, interspersed with mottoes such as the following:

"Better careful than crippled."

"A stick is cheaper than a hand—eight men lost hands unclogging rolls."

Another bulletin deals in the same way with bakery sanitation; reports on the workmen's compensation law, and on child labor laws have been issued; and others on unemployment and on sanitation and ventilation of factories are in preparation.

Through this method of publishing and illustrating specific requirements, each employer knows exactly what is expected of him, and each inspector knows exactly what he is required to enforce. He becomes mainly an inspection official and the opportunities for dispute and hard feeling between employer and inspector are greatly reduced.

An appeal to the courts from the decisions of the commission is provided for, but complaints as to the reasonableness of the commission's orders must be brought against the commission itself in one of the superior courts. Here again another cause of disagreement and antagonism between inspector and employer is entirely eliminated.

The commission, through its utilization of the information and the skill, not only of specialists in its official employment, but also of any other person able to render service, becomes a source of real service and aid to the employer and thereby to the workers. The result is a remarkable spirit of mutual co-operation and striving toward a high ideal of industrial wellbeing.<sup>1</sup>

### Progress in Other States

Several other states are moving in this direction. Massachusetts has this year established a State Board of Labor and Industry. Illinois has had several temporary commissions which have achieved excellent results. The Factory Inspection Department of Illinois has announced the establishment of a permanent exhibit and also a special "school" where inspectors are called to

<sup>1</sup>For a fuller analysis of the powers of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, see the address of John R. Commons in the *American Labor Legislation Review*, Vol. 1, No. 4. 131 East 23rd Street, New York.



gether at regular intervals for interchange of ideas and for instruction from experts attached to the regular staff as well as from volunteer specialists. Minnesota carries on a special educational propaganda within its factory inspection staff, and has established a growing permanent state exhibit of practical safety devices.

The net result to be desired, however, regardless of the specific method, is the establishment of effective, enforceable standards of comfort, health and safety. A study of the methods used successfully in this country and in leading European countries suggests organization along the following lines with the specific details in each case adapted to the particular needs and conditions in each state:

### *Reorganization Principles*

#### A. Scope of the department

1. The health, comfort, safety and wellbeing of workers in all places where persons are employed (except domestic service and agriculture where mechanical power is not used) and in the construction, repair and maintenance of buildings.
2. The administration of laws for the compensation of accidents and diseases.
3. The regulation of hours of labor of all classes according to statutory law and with such discretionary power in unusual cases, as may appear reasonable after a public hearing.
4. The distribution and training of labor including the management or supervision of public and private employment offices.
5. Trade disputes, arbitration and conciliation.

#### B. The department to consist of

1. A paid advisory board or commission of not less than three members who shall have control over the general policy of the department in all matters, and who shall make rules and establish standards of health, comfort, safety and wellbeing for employes in the different industries of the state. They must hold public hearings before determining upon standards and may form subsidiary committees of employers and employes and other persons for the formulation of standards for specific industries.
2. An able, responsible chief administrative officer.
3. Specialists or experts on mechanical safety.
4. Specialists or experts on health protection.
5. An adequate staff of trained inspectors including inspectors for woman and child labor, appointed by appropriate civil service examinations.

6. A statistical bureau for the preparation, collection and publication of facts and information concerning the work and needs of the department.

C. Provision should be made for extensive educational work among employers, employes and inspectors by means of illustrated lectures and bulletins, photographs, permanent and traveling exhibits and personal work by inspectors.

D. In prosecutions, it is highly desirable that only questions of fact should be raised in the lower courts; questions of reasonableness or necessity should be appealed, first, to the board itself; then, if the complainant is not satisfied, the board should be prosecuted.

E. All employers coming under the law should be required to register at stated periods and employers conducting "dangerous trades" should be required to secure a license.

### *Economy in Administration*

Many features of this program can be easily adapted to existing systems, and some of them are already in operation in different states. The lack of adequate appropriations is frequently urged as a great hindrance to the cause of effective factory inspection. But as organized today in most states, from three to five separate departments are maintained for enforcing laws which deal with the relations of employer and employe, often with overlapping functions and duplication of work. The economy resulting from the union of these similar branches of work would go a long way toward enabling one department to be maintained on an efficient basis, and when inspection systems are so organized that more effective work is possible, the support for increased appropriations will not be lacking.

In 1909 the Association for Labor Legislation, realizing that efficient administration is the supreme test of all labor laws, began an agitation for administrative reform. Massachusetts had already in 1907 established her state Board of Boiler Rules, and has followed this year with her state Board of Labor and Industry; Wisconsin in 1910 created her Industrial Commission. In at least eight other states the need for a new basis of administration has found definite expression.

While protection from the accidents and diseases of industry has already received a marked impetus, especially among some of the larger employers, yet considerable "policing" will always be necessary to bring the backward employer up to the level of the more humane. There exists, however, especially where workmen's compensation acts are in force, an increasing group eager to learn, and the state which ultimately holds them responsible should not offer as its part of the duty a hollow pretense.

The business of factory inspection should never be based upon fear, force and favor. It must become to a greater degree a co-operative educational effort on the part of the employer, the employe and the state.



# THE PENSION PLAN FOR THE BREWING INDUSTRY

I. M. RUBINOW

*"Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes."*

The appearance of a strong and healthy movement toward social insurance in this country has been a source of great satisfaction to all who believe in social legislation. Only three or four years old, this movement has as yet been limited primarily to insurance against industrial accidents. But here and there one finds the first traces of an extension to other causes of poverty, such as old age and unemployment. For this reason the news of the proposed organization of a pension fund for the brewing industry has received a hearty welcome from *THE SURVEY*<sup>1</sup> as well as other publications.

While pension funds organized by individual corporations, such as railroads or the United States Steel Corporation, have been known before, the brewers' plan was doubly interesting because it proposed a type of organization hitherto unknown in the United States, though not unfamiliar in Europe—a pension fund organized by many employees of one industry working together. This type has one essential advantage over the pension fund of an individual corporation—it does not interfere with the mobility of labor within the industry.

The praise bestowed upon this experiment was almost extravagant. *THE SURVEY* review spoke of it as a constructive program for the improvement of conditions of labor, which was revolutionary. The author expected the plan to "make for greater harmony and mutual good feeling in the industry."

The fact that this plan was rejected by an overwhelming majority of the membership of the International Brewery Workmen's Union, to whom it was submitted for a referendum, attracted much less attention. It was considered as one of those evidences of social strife which it does no good to underscore. The truth of the matter is that of 35,824 votes cast, only 12,888, or 36 per cent, were in favor of the plan, and 22,936, or 64 per cent, against it. The verdict, unmistakable as it appears to be, came as a distinct surprise to the employers who were favoring it.

The actuary of the plan, Edward Bunnell Phelps, in discussing this verdict at great length in his magazine, the *American Underwriter*,<sup>2</sup> chose the following picturesque title for his article, American Brewery-Workers' Surprising Rejection of Their Preferred Workmen's Compensation and Old-age Pensions—A Clean-cut Case of the "Consciousness of Kind," and quotes extensively from Prof. Franklin H. Giddings' famous work on Principles of Sociology,<sup>3</sup> as containing the only rational and complete explanation of the "amazing vote." On another page Mr. Phelps further mentions "the predominance of the German race in the ranks of brew-

ery-workers, the pronounced Socialistic leanings of that race, and the honest but misguided suspicion of a considerable proportion of the labor element, the world around, that all moves of capital are necessarily bad and selfish moves."

One cannot help feeling that the phrase Mr. Phelps was groping for is rather "class consciousness," and the key to the situation may be found in Marx rather than Giddings, though to be sure, "class consciousness" may be looked upon as one of the many manifestations of Professor Giddings' principle of "consciousness of kind."

The facts themselves, as already related, would justify a careful study of the brewers' pension plan, even though it might appear, in view of the decisive vote of the Brewers' Union, to be a matter of mere historical and theoretical interest. At the last convention of the International Union, however, it was decided to re-submit the proposal through another referendum. The problem thus again becomes one of tremendous practical importance, as the plan, if accepted by the union, would cover some 40,000 employees, and is therefore almost as wide in its application as a compensation act in one of the smaller states.

The subject of private and industrial compensation schemes as against statutory compensation acts, of industrial pension schemes against governmental pension and compulsory insurance laws, is a broad and complicated one. It is not the intention of the writer to launch here upon an exhaustive discussion of the basic principles of social insurance. His purpose for the present is a very practical one. Here is a proposal submitted for the second time to a large body of wage-workers as a desirable solution of certain economic problems they are forced to face. It bears the approval of the employers; it has been O K'd by an actuary; it is recommended in good faith by people sincerely desirous of their good. It has, therefore, a fair chance to become a fact, for even rabid "class consciousness" often yields to arguments of economic advantage. Yet it is quite clear that both the employers and the sympathetic outsiders judge the plan almost exclusively by its general intent, and that in actual application the worth of every such scheme depends much more upon its detailed provisions. It is only because of his deep conviction that these detailed provisions are not what they should be, that they threaten to affect the interests of the 40,000 wage workers very unjustly that the writer makes this criticism of the plan before the harm is done.

The fund proposed is built upon a mutual contributory plan, i. e., both employers and employees contribute certain amounts. The exact proportions are: Three-fourths of the total amount (1½ per cent) from the employers, and one-fourth (½ per cent) from the employees. As far as old age insurance is concerned, this is a plan sanctioned by many European precedents, both in

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY* for January 20, 1912.

<sup>2</sup>See the *American Underwriter*, April, 1912, p. 122.

<sup>3</sup>Principles of Sociology by Franklin H. Giddings. The Macmillan Co.



national systems of compulsory old-age insurance (Germany, France), and in many industrial funds. It may be said in its favor that through such mutual contributions more liberal provision may be made for old age than if only one side contributes.

But the brewers' plan is much more than an old-age pension fund. It includes accident compensation as well. Yet almost all European precedents are against forcing the cost of accident compensation back upon the workers. It is the basic principle of accident compensation that its cost must be borne by the industry as a whole, and, with very few exceptions, all the fifteen American compensation acts thus far passed have accepted this principle. As the fund assumes the granting of compensation for industrial accidents, and as the employee contributes only three-fourths to the fund, it is evidently an effort to place upon the employee a certain part of this cost, unless it be assumed that only the employers' contributions are to apply to accident indemnity; then it follows that the employer contributes nothing to the pension feature.

There may be an argument in favor of a contributory accident compensation scheme, if no compensation act has as yet been passed. But such acts have been passed and are in force in at least a dozen states. Why should the workman be called upon to pay part of the cost of compensation, where the law guarantees him such compensation entirely free.

Article II, Section 2, provides that "the acceptance of benefits under this plan shall be in complete waiver of all (other) remedies . . . under common or statute law." It is very questionable whether this provision would be recognized as legal when a compensation law exists which is more favorable than the scheme provided. It is true that by Section 3 the employee, if injured, is given the right to decide whether he wishes to accept the compensation from the fund or prefers to sue his employer under the existing liability or compensation laws. Very well. The injured employee may feel that under the legislation existing in the state he may obtain a larger verdict. What happens then? Observe how differently the employer and employee are treated in such an emergency.

If the injured employee demands his rights "under the common law" or "statutory remedy," i. e., under the existing liability or compensation legislation, and if he is successful and obtains a verdict against his employer, very much in excess of what the fund was willing to pay, the employer need not be worried at all. In such a case the fund reimburses the employer for any amount paid on that verdict (Article II, Section 5). In other words, the fund guarantees the employer full insurance against employers' liability and workmen's compensation. For this the employer pays only \$1.50 on every \$100 of wages expended, while a casualty company would charge him \$2 or \$3. The arrangement is profitable from the employer's point of view, no doubt.

But, on the other hand, what happens to the employee who, after receiving a serious injury, has chosen to take advantage of his rights under

the laws of the state? He loses all his accumulated rights even under the pension plan. For it is provided (Article III, Section 2) that old-age pensions shall be granted only to such employees who "have in every case accepted the provisions of this fund in preference to statutory or common law remedy." Under this provision a workman may, after twenty or thirty years of membership and contributions to the funds, lose his accumulated rights for a pension because he has taken advantage of his legal rights and sued his employer for damages for injury sustained.

Thus the compensation plan is made practically compulsory. How does it compare with the compensation given under some of the laws recently passed? A weekly indemnity of 65 per cent of the wages is provided; an equal amount is given in two states, while others grant 50 per cent only. Singularly enough, only "total disability" is mentioned. One is loath to assume that there was a deliberate intent not to grant any compensation in the much more frequent cases of partial disability, though a literal interpretation of the by-laws would justify such a conclusion. A more charitable assumption would be that lack of familiarity with the nature of industrial accidents is responsible for this omission. It is quite clear, however, that only "first aid, medical and surgical," is provided, while many of the state compensation acts already adopted grant full medical aid for a certain length of time.

In one respect, the compensation scale appears to be rather liberal. The weekly compensation of 65 per cent of the wages may rise to \$20 a week, while in most state laws the maximum is placed at \$10 or \$12 a week. This generosity will affect only a few, whose wages are from \$20 to \$30 a week. But the generosity is a very illusory one. For an ironclad maximum of \$3,400 is placed both for permanent disability and for death. That means that the larger the weekly allowance, the sooner will it stop. In case the maximum allowance of \$20 is granted, it will last only 170 weeks, while even under the highly unsatisfactory scales of the acts passed up to this time, 300 or 400 weekly payments are usually provided for. Besides the maximum established (\$3,400) is smaller than that found in the act of Illinois (\$3,500), Kansas (\$3,600), or California (\$5,000). So much for accident compensation.

There is no doubt that the fund is very liberal in treating the superannuated employee. After twenty-five years of service, and having either become incapacitated or reached the age of sixty (in which case no evidence of disability is required), every employee may retire on a pension to continue the remainder of his life, amounting to one-half his weekly wages. A more liberal provision for old age could hardly be wished. But—there are several important "buts."

Suppose the employee is forced to leave his employment in the brewing business before twenty-five years of service have been completed? It may reasonably be assumed that an expert beer brewer will remain in the business for life. But not all of the employees in the brewery business are expert brewers. A good many are unskilled



laborers, drivers, machinists, etc., who may be forced by fluctuations in the demand for labor to seek other occupations. Is there any provision for such employees, to protect their rights if they have been shifted into other lines of industry? None whatsoever.

To be sure, this is a situation which no industrial pension fund can remedy altogether. Only a national policy of social insurance can meet this criticism, and there is in this difficulty an argument for such a national system, which no amount of benevolence on the part of the employers or of co-operation between employers and employees can meet. Nevertheless, it is obvious that in some way the interests of such workmen who may be forced to make the change may and must be protected, and all similar funds in Europe, with hardly any exceptions, contain various provisions to that effect. If twenty-five years of service justify a pension of half the wages, is twenty-four years worth nothing? A limit must be set, to be sure, but there is nothing to prevent the limit from being on a sliding scale, —so much for fifteen years of service, so much for twenty, and up to the full pension for twenty-five years. And if the length of the service was only very brief, then the workman has really had no old-age insurance, and the amount which he has contributed must be returned to him.

Again, it is one thing to promise a liberal pension, and another to be in a position to pay it. Suppose the money available in the fund is insufficient? The by-laws evidently foresee such a possibility, for Article III, Section 8, provides that immediately after the first year the Board of Directors must determine whether the compensation and old-age pensions promised may be safely paid, and if not, the amounts of either shall be reduced. There is no suggestion that the employers' contribution may be increased.

Suppose, furthermore (a situation which later will be shown to be inevitable), the fund proves insolvent and must be discontinued? Article VI, Section 4 (the last section of the by-laws), has foreseen even this emergency. Under such a condition "all claims by any past or prospective beneficiary or claimant shall cease and be at an end." That means that the injured and their families will cease receiving their compensation, after they have signed away all their rights under the law. By that the hopes of old-age pensions would be shattered into splinters for thousands of wage workers, perhaps after years of contributions.

The reader may rest assured that this is no deliberate painting of gruesome impossibilities, but the inevitable wind-up of this "benevolent scheme," for the simple reason that the amount of contributions collected (2 per cent of the wages) would be ludicrously inadequate to meet the cost of the pensions so lavishly promised, even if it were not intended to cover the cost of compensation as well. It is impossible to enter here into an involved actuarial argument of the proper cost of the pensions promised. But even a tyro in the theory of insurance will perceive the weak link in the chain of argument which was used to supply the rate. It was argued by

the actuary that since (according to a special investigation made by him)  $2\frac{1}{4}$  per cent of the employees in the brewing industry were men sixty years or over,<sup>1</sup> this represented the true proportion of pensioners to be expected. The palpable fact was forgotten that the number of old men within the industry is kept down by "firing" the superannuated, and that if all the men over sixty could be found who have been in the brewing industry, their number would be very much larger. Without quoting here statistical data, we may say that the experience of European pension funds has shown a constantly rising percentage of pensioners to employees. This, in the French railroad pension funds, for instance, has reached 20 per cent, notwithstanding the large increase in the number of active employees, which of itself would tend to keep the percentage of pensioners down. And the experience of European pension funds has shown that to pay a pension of half the wages at the age of sixty would require contributions up to 10 per cent of the wages. In short, the brewers' fund was devised with a disregard of actuarial conditions which would probably lead to insolvency in five years, or ten at the latest. And perhaps this inevitably rapid dissolution of the pension fund is its one redeeming feature, for the longer a fund exists which is not based upon correct actuarial principles, the more rights are accumulated which eventually must be forfeited.

Now, to sum up my criticisms in a few specific statements as to what should and what should not be in a compensation plan, my point of view is simply this: First, accident insurance must not be combined together with old-age insurance in one financial plan, so that heavy losses of one part of the insurance should not jeopardize the financial strength of the other part. Second, accident compensation should be given entirely at the cost of the employers. Contributions from employees are absolutely unjustifiable. Third, mutual accident compensation funds are feasible and desirable, provided they can be made financially sound by establishing liability of the employers in that fund for its solvency, and provided they are under proper state supervision. Fourth, under no circumstances should a mutual accident compensation fund grant a scale of compensation which is lower than that required by the law. It may give more, but it cannot give less. Moreover, that is the condition required by most laws, and if the scheme gives less, the acceptance of that smaller amount of compensation should not be and usually is not binding upon the employees. Fifth, surely under no circumstances should the failure of such a plan deprive their workmen of any accumulated rights. So much for the accident compensation scheme.

As to the old-age pension plan, my criticism mainly is based upon its apparent insolvency. I cannot conceive of any actuary believing that what remains of 2 per cent of the wages, after

<sup>1</sup>The census of 1900 shows that out of 20,984 brewers and maltsters, 422, or 2 per cent, were sixty-five years old or over; 1,278, or 6 per cent, were fifty-five to sixty-four years old. On an assumption that there were twice as many persons fifty-five to fifty-nine than sixty to sixty-four years old, it still follows that there were 4 per cent of persons sixty-four or over.



all accidents have been provided for would be sufficient to pay the liberal pensions promised. While it is true that we have no definite information as to mortality in the industry and the possible number of old-age pensioners, it is quite evident that the basis assumed, that is, the number of persons over sixty remaining in the industry, is not sufficient to judge of the number of persons over that age surviving, for, undoubtedly, a large number of persons surviving did not remain in the industry.

It is not assumed for a moment that the 22,000 members of the brewers' union, or even any con-

siderable number of them, were able to see through all these faults of construction of the scheme proposed. But if this "class consciousness" or "consciousness of kind," if you will, has moved them to reject it "on suspicion," the verdict appears to have been fully justified. Whatever one may think of this form of "mass consciousness" as a guide to mass action, its usefulness in this one case cannot be denied. The revival of the effort to gain the workmen's approval to this scheme should be resisted by all who have the true interests of 40,000 wage workers' families at heart.

## A REPLY TO MR. RUBINOW

HUGH F. FOX

SECRETARY UNITED STATES BREWERS' ASSOCIATION

Mr. Rubinow's criticism of the proposed old-age pension plan would have more weight if, as he unjustly infers, this was intended to be a final arrangement. It is clearly provided and stated that it is tentative and experimental, and the plan is so elastic that it can be adjusted in accordance with the experience gained under its operation. At present neither the insurance companies nor the brewery workers' unions have the facts upon which an actuary could base his conclusions with regard to the mortality in the industry, and the percentage of men who might qualify as old-age pensioners.

The proposed plan was submitted by the International Brewery Workmen's Union to their attorneys, and was referred on our side to several insurance experts and attorneys, and was discussed in detail, line upon line, by a joint committee of the employers and employes, and all of the objections most carefully considered. We are of the opinion that in some respects it may have to be modified, and in others it may be greatly extended, after the experience of a year or two. This has been carefully provided for.

Mr. Rubinow is concerned about the loss of forfeiture which the employe may suffer if he were to quit the brewing industry, and we are frank to say that this is a point that deserves consideration. At the same time, it should be remembered that the cost of the insurance for accidents and old-age pension to the average brewery worker would not amount to over \$5 a year or less than ten cents a week, which is not sufficiently serious to be a hardship, even if eventually he dropped out of the industry.

It is evident that Mr. Rubinow has very little knowledge of the brewing business in assuming that there will be a constant shifting of brewery workers into other lines of industry. As a matter of fact, the brewing industry offers rather peculiar advantages. It is a continuous industry, it pays exceptionally high wages, it is a non-hazardous industry, and it not only grows automatically with the population, but expands with the growth of our cities and towns and with the development of transportation facilities. In short, there is probably no industry that shows

so little fluctuation in the demand for labor as the brewing industry.

The discussion in regard to compensation for accidents in the brewing industry has been going on for fully two years and while the negotiations between the brewers and their men were still pending, several states passed laws making provision for compensation for all industrial accidents. We sincerely hope that such action will soon become so general in the United States that it will not be necessary for the people engaged in any particular industry to provide their own insurance, in order to get a more just and equitable arrangement than can be obtained through any of the casualty insurance companies.

Our proposed provision that "the acceptance of benefits under this plan shall be in complete waiver to all other remedies under common or statute law," with the qualifying clause in Section 3, that the beneficiary has eight days after an accident in which to choose between the fund and the legal remedy, was put in as a matter of ordinary business precaution. I can hardly believe that any sane insurance man or lawyer would endorse any accident plan giving the employe the opportunity to first accept the liberal benefits automatically provided, and then sue for additional compensation on the basis of his common law or statutory rights.

Mr. Rubinow's assumption that the plan only provides for compensation in case of total disability is in our judgment entirely unwarranted and perhaps I may say that although the plan was submitted to several experts in this field of activity and to a number of attorneys who have studied the subject, it did not occur to any of them to reach such a conclusion.

Mr. Rubinow is acting entirely upon assumption and without any knowledge of conditions in the brewing industry, when he states: "The palpable fact was forgotten that the number of old men within the industry is kept down by firing the superannuated, and that if all the men over sixty could be found who have been in the brewing industry, their number would be very much larger." It has been the general custom



of the American brewers to retain their old employes, even though they cannot do efficient work. One of the motives which actuated the brewers in the proposed pension plan is that it will enable them to take kindly care of such men and replace them with young and active workers. In computing the probable cost of the plan we have taken the actual experience of the American brewing industry itself, as the basis of calculation, rather than "the experience of European pension funds." The present average age status of the men employed is certainly a safe basis to go on, since this average will be very much reduced in the course of a short time under the operation of a pension plan. However, the discussion of the whole matter is at present somewhat premature since it is hardly likely that the employing brewers would consent to reopen negotiations until the Brewery Workmen's Unions have completely reversed themselves and take the initiative in urging the reconsideration of the plan by something like a two-thirds vote of their members.

I do not see the point of his criticism of the indemnification of employers, in case of claims made by those who elect to take their common law or statutory remedy in preference to the

benefits of the fund. Unless such a plan provides adequate insurance for the employer, he would be foolish to go into it.

Mr. Rubinow's query as to how the proposed plan compares with the compensation given under some of the laws recently passed, has already been answered in the Detailed Comparison of Recently Enacted Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation Laws of the United States, published only two months ago by the Aetna Life Insurance Company. Reference to this will show Mr. Rubinow that California and Wisconsin provide for 65 per cent of wages for disability, which is the measure of our plan, and Ohio provides for 66 2/3 per cent. All other states that have passed workmen's compensation laws provide for a smaller sum. Arizona, California, Illinois and Kansas fix a maximum death benefit higher than the benefit provided for in our plan, but Section 8, Article 3 of our plan provides that the benefits may be increased from year to year if the results of the operation of the fund justify it.

Mr. Rubinow's motto, "*Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes*," at the head of his article, discloses at the outset an attitude of prejudiced hostility that colors his entire statement and indicates that his criticism was not intended to have any constructive value.

## A TALE OF TWO CITIES AND A LOAF OF BREAD

Unsanitary cellar bakeries in Chicago have received a body blow from the Supreme Court of Illinois. In 1907 an ordinance was passed in Chicago establishing standards for bakeries that if enforced would have meant the end of most of the bakeshops below the street level. And to make supervision possible, it required bakers to take out a license issued by the commissioner of health and revocable by the mayor. A municipal court declared the ordinance invalid, but now the supreme court, having the case before it on an appeal, has upheld the ordinance at every point. That means that the work begun in 1907, when there were only 750 bakeries above ground, and carried on until there were 1,300 above ground and only 244 in cellars, will now go on to its logical conclusion.

It is unfortunate that this story of progress in the second city of the United States cannot be told also of the first city. Dr. George M. Price, who made a report on bakeries for the Factory Investigating Commission, found that most of the 2,489 bakeries in Greater New York are in cellars. He made an inspection of 485, and of these 479 were underground. And there is no law designed to bring them out.

In all the cellars investigated, the ceilings were found to be very low, the average height being about 7½ feet. The lack of dressing rooms and decent washing facilities and toilet accommodations prevailed almost everywhere. In most cases there was an insufficient supply of hot water, so that not only is it practically impossible for the workman to keep his hands clean, but proper cleansing of the utensils is out of the question.

As a consequence, the bakery products are not properly handled, very little effort is made to keep them clean and the danger of disseminating disease in this manner is increased many fold. Mice are attracted in large numbers, both on account of the location of the bakeries and on account of the flour and meal which is kept in them. Therefore it is quite generally considered necessary to keep a cat, which is another source of great danger as regards cleanliness of the product.

The report goes into a discussion of the characteristics of workmen employed in bakeries and into general conditions affecting health. As a rule, bakery workers are of a very low and unintelligent class, poor in physique and inclined to alcoholic and other excesses. "Undoubtedly," says the report, "this is due to the unsatisfactory conditions which are known to exist in the trade and which deter a better class of artisans from entering."

Conditions directly affecting the health of the workers include, besides the high temperature, three other very important elements. First, is the low scale of wages prevalent in the industry. Since 1894, when the commissioner of labor made an investigation of bakeshops, wages have advanced considerably, owing to the successful efforts of the bakers' union, but the rate for union bakers at the present time does not average above \$14 a week, and among the unorganized workers wages are lower. A second factor entering into the situation is the long hours of labor. The union shops have a ten-hour day, but in the non-union shops the day's work is never



less than twelve hours, and often is very much longer than that. It should be pointed out in this connection that there are a great many non-union shops in New York, and that these include most of the larger bakeries.

"It seems obvious," says the report, "that even in trades where conditions are exceptionally good and hygienic, extremely long hours of labor would act injuriously upon the health of the workers, and hence lower the vitality of the nation and the race. This is doubly true in an industry where, as we have seen, all other conditions of work are so unfavorable." A third factor of importance is night work, and it is pointed out that the unnatural manner of living necessarily resulting from working at night has a serious reaction upon the general health.

The report demonstrates in most striking manner the truth of its statements that the conditions described are unhygienic and dangerous alike to workers and the general public. A physical examination was made of 800 bakers by a staff of six physicians under the immediate direction of Dr. Price. It was found that 347, or 43 per cent. were free from any disease, while 453, or 57 per cent. "had some indication of defective physical condition."

The diseases found were in part as follows: Nineteen had evidences of tuberculosis, forty-seven were suffering from rheumatism, three from venereal diseases, ninety-two from eye troubles, ninety-five from diseases of the circulatory system, 206 from diseases of the respiratory system, seventy-six had digestive troubles, fifty-nine had skin diseases and fifty-four had flat feet. In addition to these, 183 had a general appearance such as to indicate anæmia.



A CELLAR BAKERY IN NEW YORK

#### THE EIGHT-HOUR DAY AND A MAN OF LAW

For many years an eight-hour law to apply to contracts let by the government has been earnestly sought at Washington. During session after session evidence has been placed before Congress tending to show the evil effects of long hours of labor. It finally remained for the report of the Bureau of Labor on the steel industry to furnish the convincing argument. Senator Borah, in favorably reporting the eight-hour bill, quoted extensively from this document to



prove the necessity of establishing a maximum period of daily labor.

After all this the attorney general of the United States, in an opinion recently handed down, thinks it was all meant to protect not the workmen who build ships but the material that goes into them from being worked on too long. He holds that a private shipyard, which has a government contract, may require its men to continue at work after eight hours, provided it applies their labor for the excess time to private contracts. The decision may be an excellent interpretation of the letter of the law but it is complete inversion of its spirit and defeats the purpose of its framers.

Think of the quivering wreck a fragile dreadnought might be if it had to endure the torture of having its insides riveted all through a ten or twelve-hour day! Or imagine the feelings of a delicate slab of armor plate after being pressed and pounded and variously abused for twelve hours at a stretch! Such atrocities will be stopped by the attorney general's ruling.

#### EFFICIENCY IN SETTLING INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

The topic for discussion by the Efficiency Society at its monthly dinner at the Aldine Club in New York on November 29 was the relation between employer and employe. The Protocol of Peace that has proven so successful in the cloak and suit industry in New York was explained and described as a long step toward permanent industrial peace founded on just regard to the claims of all parties, including those of the public.

H. F. J. Porter, who presided, described the chaotic conditions which had existed in the cloak and suit industry prior to this settlement. He referred to the alternate periods of activity and idleness that had prevailed, and declared that a condition had existed every two and a half to three months such as would be the case if the entire population of the city of Providence or Indianapolis should suddenly be dumped, without means of support, into the city of New York. The manner in which disputes are now settled in this industry was described by Hamilton Holt, editor of the *Independent* and one of the three members of the Board of Arbitration, and by Julius Henry Cohen, attorney for the manufacturers.

The working of the Joint Board of Sanitary Control was described by its chairman, William Jay Schieffelin. By way of contrast with this plan for industrial peace, where the public joins in the settlement of disputes and where the preferential union shop obtains, addresses were made by a representative of the New York builders, where the closed shop is recognized and an arbitration agreement was enforced for many years, and by a representative of the Metal Trades Association, whose members do not recognize the union in any form.

Charles Stelzle then spoke of the point of view of the members of craft unions, and Samuel

Stodel, a Socialist, explained to the diners the philosophy underlying the movement of the Industrial Workers of the World.

#### SAFETY IN WASHINGTON

The Industrial Insurance Commission of Washington, after ten months' experience with not far from 10,000 industrial accidents, "very many many of them preventable," has decided to follow the lead of Minnesota, Illinois and Wisconsin, and enter on a campaign of education in safety. Washington aims to "broaden and strengthen the safeguarding and inspection laws; to further the patient and persistent work of the State Bureau of Labor, and, so far as competitive conditions in other states permit, to standardize dangerous machinery and obsolete equipment and to penalize poor and careless management." Last month the commission issued general instructions to workmen and a placard on safety publications to be posted in factories.

The Wisconsin Industrial Commission has its safety work more fully under way. In addition to an excellent series of safety bulletins it has three safety exhibits, two of which tour the state, the other being located permanently in Milwaukee.

#### FACTORY BOYS SENT TO SCHOOL

Twelve of the biggest factories of Hartford, Conn., have joined hands with the public high school to carry out a co-operative plan of industrial education. The scheme is expected to prove an important and permanent addition to the curriculum of the high school. The firms co-operating with the school authorities are the following: Underwood Typewriter Company, Royal Typewriter Company, Johns Pratt Company, Sterling Manufacturing Company, Henry and Wright Company, L. E. Rhoades, Taylor & Fenn, Sigourney Tool Company, Veeder Manufacturing Company, Topping Brothers, Hartford Rubber Works Company, and the Pratt and Whitney Company.

The manufacturers as yet have sent only their brightest boys. Although the number selected from each factory is small and the boys are but beginning to find themselves, the mill superintendents express satisfaction with the results. "The boys seem to be taking a greater pride in their work," declares one, "and their activity seems to have an excellent effect upon the rest."

The boys sent from the shops are studying at the high school in three divisions, each section putting in two and one-half days a week over their desks or in the school machine shop. The greatest difficulty experienced is in adjusting the work to make it equally efficient for all the boys. Some have never graduated from a grammar school while one has completed part of a college course. Only a few pupils have been enrolled, as a good deal of individual work is necessary in carrying out the objects of the plan.

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY for September 28, 1912, p. 796.



## RAYMOND ROBINS VISITS PITTSBURGH

Efforts to secure the assurance of union wages and an eight-hour day on all city contracts in Pittsburgh resulted in a stand-up fight between manufacturers and labor leaders, in which Raymond Robins of Chicago figured prominently. Late in October, an ordinance was introduced and affirmatively recommended by a committee of Pittsburgh Council, providing the same rules for wages and hours that have been in force in school contracts since Pittsburgh's new school code went into effect in 1911.

Council weakened when confronted by the protests of contractors and manufacturers and the possible bidders won the final victory. The ordinance did not demand the exclusive employment of union men and was intended to apply only to construction work and not to supplies, but many printers and like employers were active in opposing the measure.

Raymond Robins, although invited as a representative of the Central Trades Council and the Iron City Trades Council, was not permitted to speak by Robert M. Garland, chairman of the finance committee when it held the final public hearing on the ordinance, November 7. Mr. Garland, who is president of a steel products corporation and originally from County Ulster, Ireland, waved the banner, "Pittsburgh for Pittsburghers," and issued a warning that advice from residents of any other cities was not acceptable.

Mr. Robins had made his position on the ordinance clear at the afternoon meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, of which Mr. Garland is vice-president. As was expected, the chamber adopted resolutions opposing the hours and wages ordinance.

Defeat of this important ordinance served, at least, to align the nine men of "Pittsburgh's Business Men's Council" into two groups, in which the interests of labor were reflected by three members, Messrs. Kerr, McArdle and Rauh.

Smarting under the treatment accorded Mr. Robins, Councilman McArdle, former president of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, the following week presented a resolution providing that thereafter parties interested in any ordinance should have a right to have their selected representatives heard. The resolution met defeat 6 to 3.

## BULLETINS

Following its elaborate report on workmen's compensation, published in 1909, the United States Bureau of Labor has issued three bulletins in a series on Workmen's Insurance and Compensation. These bulletins (Numbers 101, 102 and 103 of the Bureau of Labor) cover The Care of Tuberculosis Wage-earners in Germany, the text of the British National Insurance Act, and of the Sick and Accident Insurance Law of Switzerland.

The department has discontinued the publication of Annual and Special Reports, and in place of the bimonthly bulletin is issuing at irregular intervals bulletins on special subjects.

## MINE ACCIDENTS IN 1912

With Technical Paper 27, the Federal Bureau of Mines issues its first monthly statement of mine accidents in the United States. Future issues will cover simply a report of the number and causes of accidents during the month, with short descriptions of major mine disasters. This first report, however, gives total accidents for all states with mining inspection departments, except Kentucky, for the first eight months of 1912. These figures show 1,453 men killed during that period, and indicate that unless there are a number of exceptional disasters in the remaining four months of the year, there will be a substantial decrease over 1911 when 2,719 men were killed, or 1910, when no less than 2,840 met their death.

## INDUSTRIAL MEDIATION LAWS

Within the last month the National Civic Federation has organized a national department on industrial mediation laws, with Marcus M. Marks as chairman. The department is the outgrowth of the twelve years' experience of the federation's voluntary conciliation department.

## MAIMED WAGE-EARNERS

The Social Service Bureau of Bellevue Hospital, New York, has displayed for sale the needle and crochet work of two girls, whose records spoke volumes, on the one hand, of the havoc wrought by industry on young bodies; on the other, of the remarkable way in which handicaps can be surmounted. Both girls earned their living by handwork—and yet the records on the cards read:

"May S.—20 years old. Both hands injured in a laundry. Right amputated. Learned to embroider in the school for crippled children"

"Adelaide G.—15 years old. Hand became entangled in the clothes in a laundry washing-machine (work, it may be noted, which is generally done by men). Fingers on right hand amputated."

## "THE WAR AGAINST WAR"

The French General Confederation of Labor, with a membership of union men not larger than the American Federation of Labor, but an influence which extends throughout the whole unorganized working class of France, has anticipated action by the International Socialist Congress described in THE SURVEY of December 14. On December 16, the confederation called a twenty-four hour protest strike against the militarist spirit aroused in France by the Balkan War. The order promulgated by the federation reads in part:

"Only by the complete cessation of the means of production and locomotion and of work of all kinds can labor strikingly demonstrate its firm determination to refuse all co-operation in warfare, which work of death is contrary to the ideas of progress and humanity."



# CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

## THE CO-OPERATIVE FEDERATION OF PROTESTANT CHURCHES

In the great hall of Chicago's newest hotel, bearing the name of La Salle, the Jesuit-trained pioneer explorer who led the way of empire westward to the Great Lakes and the Mississippi, the Protestant churches of America have just held their second "ecumenical council." This world term, used by the early church to describe those great historic councils representing every form of the common faith in every land on all the earth, deserves to be applied to this second Quadrennial Meeting of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America.

The "National Conference of Charities and Correction" came nearer being "ecumenical" than any affiliated body of people sharing and serving a community of interests race-wide and as broad as the world. For it has always included in its great co-operative fellowship Jewish, Roman Catholic and Protestant representatives of wide organized efforts toward a common aim, together with many more who share their humanitarian spirit without holding allegiance to their religious tenets and organizations. This conference of the charities has not yet been superseded by any council of the churches in the inclusiveness of a membership representing all faiths within the bond of a common spirit and purpose.

But within the Protestant world there is nothing so "ecumenical" as this Federal Council. The 339 delegates, officially commissioned to represent twenty-eight of the thirty-two federated denominations, actually represented Christian bodies scattered all over the world and constituted by peoples of many races and languages. While they may seem to be a small proportion of the 184 Protestant bodies reported by the United States census for the year 1906, yet they include all the larger, well established and influential denominations, having in their memberships at least 17,000,000 of the 33,000,000 Protestant communicants enumerated in the census. To have federated so large a proportion of churches and communicants in the short space of four years since the first council convened at Philadelphia is surely a great achievement in social and religious unification.

The caution and conservatism shown by the high courts of ecclesiastical authority in choosing the delegates to represent their respective bodies were marked in the constituency of the council. Of its 339 members 309 were clergymen, only thirty were laymen, and only two were women. It was largely a body of officials, among whom were forty-three secretaries, twenty-nine bishops, four missionaries, fifty-eight presidents and professors from educational institutions, sixteen editors and 151 pastors. Forceful and capable as was the personnel of the council, it would have been more representative, and perhaps more practically effective, had there been a representation of men and women from the laity more commensurate with their numerical and influential proportions in the constituent bodies. The Society of Friends had the distinction of being represented by the two women delegates. The Commission of Social Service previously led the way for the appointment of women delegates by requesting the appointment of women upon the commission.

To those who test this federation by their aspirations for the organic unity of the churches, little advance toward that goal will seem to have

## DECLARATION OF SOCIAL FAITH

By the

Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America  
Quadrennial Meeting, Chicago, December, 1912

The churches must stand:

1. For equal rights and complete justice for all men in all stations of life.
2. For the protection of the family, by the single standard of purity, uniform divorce laws, proper regulation of marriage, and proper housing.
3. For the fullest possible development for every child, especially by the provision of proper education and recreation.
4. For the abolition of child labor.
5. For such regulation of the conditions of toil for women as shall safeguard the physical and moral health of the community.
6. For the abatement and prevention of poverty.
7. For the protection of the individual and society from the social, economic, and moral waste of the liquor traffic.
8. For the conservation of health.
9. For the protection of the worker from dangerous machinery, occupational diseases, and mortality.
10. For the right of all men to the opportunity for self-maintenance, for safeguarding this right against encroachments of every kind, and for the protection of workers from the hardships of enforced unemployment.
11. For suitable provision for the old age of the workers, and for those incapacitated by injury.
12. For the right of employes and employers alike to organize and for adequate means of conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes.
13. For a release from employment one day in seven.
14. For the gradual and reasonable reduction of the hours of labor to the lowest practicable point, and for that degree of leisure for all which is a condition of the highest human life.
15. For a living wage as a minimum in every industry, and for the highest wage that each industry can afford.
16. For a new emphasis of Christian principles to the acquisition and use of property and for the most equitable division of the product of industry that can ultimately be devised.



been made. But organic unity is not and never has been the aspiration of those constituting this federation. Indeed, time and again it was claimed to be a distinct advance to have reached an attitude of entire respect for and toleration of each other's differences, to have attained a common ground on which, without any sacrifice of conscientious conviction or waste of the hard-won results of historic heritages, these large, well-established and growing bodies of Christian people can federate to co-operate. And it was further claimed to be the greatest gain that this basis for co-operative unity had been reached not by minimizing differing tenets and polity to the lowest terms in an attempt to reach colorless uniformities upon which there could be no disagreement, but by magnifying the spirit and loyalty which all held who own allegiance to the one supreme Leader and Lord. As a matter of fact neither the observer from the outside nor those within the inner circle of the council could detect any breach in this bond of union, or even any "tender-foot" attitude begotten by the consciousness of any armed truce or by the fear of divisiveness. The only approach to this feeling, singularly enough, was shown, not at any point of possible sectarian attrition, but by a northern clergyman who feared that a quotation of Lincoln's temperance sentiment might raise objections from the South. Southerners, however, were quick to disavow any such feeling, and the supersensitiveness lest brethren should be offended was quickly shown to be groundless. Perhaps the line of cleavage along which dissent might have been most expected was that of the contact between evangelistic work and social service. But excepting a few trivial flings by a single after-dinner speaker, at substituting "settlements for salvation," the delegates who referred to either of these lines of work showed equal respect and interest in both of them.

Thus far, therefore, the creation of a new atmosphere, the generation of a new spirit, the organization of a new fellowship, the attainment of a common ground on which all alike can stand together without loss of self-respect or compromise of conviction, are the great gains attained by this federation. As yet this new atmosphere may only make breathing easier, but it is sure to create an atmospheric pressure that will make Christian comity between these denominations, and community co-operation between their local churches not only possible but imperative. Of course, the first, if not the final, test of sincerity and growth will be the capacity of these churches to eliminate wasteful competition and promote practical co-operation in the work of these local communities. Rural, town and city federations, more than the Federal Council and the Quadrennial Conference, will measure the spirit and the effectiveness of this

## THE TOLEDAN'S CREED

*"I Serve—I Conquer"*

**BELIEVE IN TOLEDO**, the City of **REAL VALUES**—the Nation's natural gateway of commerce and travel; in the heart of great resources and markets; with unsurpassed railway dock and harbor facilities and the near-centre of population of the United States.

**BELIEVE IN TOLEDO**, the City of **REAL OPPORTUNITIES**—with its great institutions of art, education, religion and business; a "Going concern" in industry, government and social uplift; a Home city with rest and recreation for all, by river and lake; where it is worth while to live, rear children, invest money and life.

**BELIEVE IN TOLEDO**, the City of **REAL PROGRESS**—modern in municipal equipment and spirit, aggressive in commercial activity and achievement, with inspiring visions and plans for tomorrow and a big chance for every man



church affiliation to promote the common Christian cause.

The social significance of the utterances and action at the Chicago meeting was emphasized, of course, more in the preliminary conferences of the Social Service Commission and in the discussion and adoption of its report by the main body. The report and resolutions took a far wider range than the noteworthy declaration made at Philadelphia four years ago, asserting the churches' attitude and aims toward industrial conditions and relations. The report dealt with the problems of rural and urban communities as those of the church itself. Enlistment of the churches with scientific agencies and public health authorities in the war against tuberculosis, the hook-worm disease and other plagues of unsanitary conditions, was urged as a Christian duty. "The new sense of the sacredness of womanhood" was borne in upon the conscience as an obligation to secure for women "a larger share in molding the laws which determine her destiny." By personal and organized effort and by co-operation with charitable and protective agencies and with local, state and federal authorities, the churches were enjoined to take upon them the concern for, and



care of, arriving and settling immigrants, as they would bear "the burden of the soul."

To former declarations of social faith important additions were made by this report, recognizing the claim of the family and the child upon the co-operation of the church with the community for their protection and advancement, and extending the application of Christian principles to the responsibility incurred by the acquisition and use of property and by employing the labors of others. These latter additions are claimed to be simply in line with the commission's "approach alike to favored and unfavored, to the employer and the employe equally, to the leaders of industry as to the leaders of labor." In line also are they with the policy of the commission to appeal to chambers of commerce, associations of business men, directors of employing industries, "to make their own our social platform and all its implications." In prefacing the new reference to the right of employes and employers to organize, and the responsibilities imposed by property, the report said:

"That we should thus make an advance is called for by the fact that the problems which face us, while probably not greater, are more plainly seen by us than they were four years ago.

"More clearly than then does society now recognize the right and the duty of our people, and especially the industrial workers, to seek proper organization for justice, conciliation and arbitration. Just as strongly does it feel that such organization itself should be under the higher law which it invokes.

"More distinctly do men discern that mere power does not confer a moral title to reward. That powerful interests have not ceased to take toll of our labor, to levy tribute on the people, to exercise a taxing power without authority,

and that they are thereby continuing to amass the wealth of the nation in dangerous aggregations, there is common consent.

"That a large part of this is in the nature of extortion, that it is, in too large measure, the cause of poverty and of many of the evils against which we cry aloud, that if we evade it, we are still trying to cure effects without touching causes, and are seeking to ensure moral evolution without taking account of resident forces, are matters of public conscience.

"We record, with deep regret, the increasing prodigality upon the part of irresponsible men and women who have come into large possessions, and we would point out the clear and intimate relation between a reckless and ostentatious display of wealth and the revolutionary and defiant demeanor of the multitudes who feel, whether rightly or wrongly, that it is made at their expense. We should deplore the defiance of sobriety and order on the part of every element of human society and should fix the blame on the one when it is clearly the cause, of which the other is the effect."

The Protestant churchman, in view of the achievements attained by this Federal Council, and far more by those which it makes possible, has better reason than for many a year to thank God and take courage. So have the communities which depend upon these churches for religious ideal, inspiration, sanction and sacrifice in the work for the common welfare of their people. Out of the darkness which has settled over the divisiveness of these churches, out of the gloom through which the glory of their hope has glimmered less and less throughout these years of divided counsel and suicidally competitive struggle, a new voice of hope is heard lifting the old cry with a new ending: "God's on his throne and all's well with the world," not only, but with the churches also.

## WHO OWNS THE CHURCH: OTHER VIEWS

The question raised by Joseph Ernest McAfee as to Who Owns the Church,<sup>1</sup> involves answers as divergent as the views entertained of the church itself. With those views it is not the prerogative of THE SURVEY to deal. But in this department, which hopes to become a clearing-house for the exchange of values by church workers and social workers, we may endeavor so fairly to present differing views of the church's social function as to shed light without generating heat.

To this end we publish, a rejoinder to Mr. McAfee's article by Gilbert M. Tucker, Jr., who lays the largest emphasis upon the church's independence of the state; and by the courtesy of Father John A. Ryan, of St. Paul's Seminary, St. Paul, Minn., we present his views of the interrelation of church and state, emphasizing the dependence of the state upon the church not only to supplement, but to fulfil its own function.

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, November 23, 1912, p. 237.

Some readers of THE SURVEY will side with each, but others, among whom the editor of this department is one, will seek a middle way between those who recognize the state to have little claim upon the church and those who claim that the state should subsidize private agencies, under religious or other control. That middle way involves just two sides of the road—the interdependence of church and state, upon each other and their free, voluntary co-operation as necessary to the fulfilment of the purpose of each in promoting the greatest good to the greatest number.

### *The Church Independent of the State*

In his recent article, Who Owns the Church Mr. McAfee, it seems to me, distorts and misstates the facts entirely. Who owns the church? Most assuredly the members and no one else. Granting for the sake of argument that the churches have been paid



for in considerable part by non-members, this is not the slightest argument that they own it. Does a mere contribution give one ownership? Is there no such thing as a free-will gift? Does Mr. McAfee acquire a partial ownership in the home of each friend to whom he makes a present? Does he have a vote in every institution to which he makes a voluntary gift? Does he expect a vote in the National Red Cross when he buys a Christmas seal?

The fact of it is that the relatively petty contributions to the work of the church by outsiders are wholly and absolutely free-will gifts, for as Mr. McAfee himself says the church is not a state institution. And surely the outside public gets a return more than liberal for their petty support, and this return is both general and individual for not only does the church serve the community but practically all of its privileges are open to all. Mr. McAfee cites the railroad situation but to my mind there is scarcely a point of comparison. In the case of the railroad all must pay for its use directly or indirectly, willingly or unwillingly, and moreover membership in the railroad's organization is not freely open to all in sympathy with its work or objects. No matter how desirous the individual may be he can not freely join the railroad and have a say in its management, as he can the church.

Mr. McAfee raises the point of the exemption of church property from taxation. Is it not fair that the community should make some return to charitable and educational institutions, including of course the churches, for the public services they freely render? Surely the state gets full value. Then too it is public policy—call it good business if you will—to secure to the community these benefits at the petty expense of the remission of taxes. To my mind it is comparable to the very wise legislation of New York state exempting from taxation under proper restriction private forest lands. This is a most economical way of preserving our woodlands; similarly, exempting the churches is a most economical way of securing to the community their manifold benefits. In some cities factories are exempt from taxation. Mr. McAfee himself says that churches are "near the head of the list by way of attracting new residents to the community."

The question of the activity of the individual church members in the management, and the question of whether its government shall be despotic, representative or democratic, are entirely aside the point and concern no one outside the church membership. If those who have a right to be heard in its control wish to ignore or to delegate their rights, it concerns no one but those individuals and the organizations of which they are a part. Does not Mr. McAfee, like the writer, belong to a dozen organizations ranging from—well, the church itself to a kennel club—where he has every privi-

lege of voting, but prefers to leave the management to his better informed, more interested or more active associates? Such action may show lack of loyalty or a shirking of obligations but does it concern outsiders?

Whether or not the churches are organized for the proper purpose and whether or not they are accomplishing the purposes of their organization is, as Kipling would say, another story, and again concerns only the church members. Perhaps a church devoted to the teaching of abstract theology and religious dogma follows more the spirit of the scribes and pharisees than the spirit of Christ, but it is hardly within the rights of the outsider to dictate what shall be the object of an organization to which he does not belong, and criticism of the church based on the common assumption that its aim is material social service is just as unfair as would be fault-finding with a hospital for ministering to the bodily needs of its inmates while neglecting the spiritual.

#### *Inter-relation of Church and State*

In the course of his address as president of the Minnesota State Conference of Charities and Correction on The State and Social Distress, Father Ryan clearly stated and strongly argued the view of the inter-relationship of state and church in the prevention and relief of social distress. Defining the individualistic theory of the state's function as confining it to the protection of life and property and the enforcement of contracts, and the Socialistic theory as increasing public action to the maximum and reducing private activity to the minimum, he challenged them both as wrong because proceeding from "a faulty analysis of concrete facts and from a lack of right fundamental principles." The true principle he conceived to be "that the civil authority should deal with no social distress which could be dealt with equally well by private action." Admitting that the cost might be greater when such work as the care of dependent children is shared by voluntary associations, he argued that "the resulting loss in charitable feeling, personal responsibility, and individual initiative, would not be offset by the lower cost of financial administration."

This statement, Father Ryan regards not only as a correct political principle, but also as one of the two or three great basic truths of democracy. "This is one of the reasons why men who think fundamentally prefer an indifferent republic to the most efficient and benevolent despotism."

"The state and only the state," he affirms, "can prevent a large part, probably the larger part, of the social distress which is due primarily to environment." He asserts it to be within the province and the ability of the state to provide suitable economic conditions by enforcing reasonable minimum standards of labor and livelihood, by provision against unsafe and unsanitary work places, forbidding child labor, interdicting the employment of women and young



persons at tasks harmful to health and morals. This Father Ryan claims will not injure individual initiative or freedom, but "will merely lift the plane of competition within reasonable and healthy limits."

But he denies the efficacy and ability of the state to deal with distress arising from the individual's limitations and delinquencies. Only where "schools fitted to educate the conscience, the hand and the eye as well as the intellect" cannot be supplied by voluntary effort, they ought to be provided for by the state. But the state's assistance to private schools "on the basis of results achieved in conformity with standards set up by the state, has advantages over an efficient system of state schools." These are some of them: It stimulates individual and local initiative and energy, encourages individuality, variety, originality and competition, and counteracts that mechanical mediocrity, that depressing uniformity, that undesirable professional bureaucracy, which are the natural consequences of a single type or single system of institutions under state monopoly. Therefore Father Ryan, at this point again, concludes that the state can "sometimes promote social welfare more effectively by indirect than by direct action, by subsidizing efficient private institutions instead of conducting institutions of its own."

The same argument is urged with regard to the relief of moral distress in correctional institutions, especially for women and young offenders. It is maintained that "the state cannot do this work as effectively as a private institution conducted under frankly religious influences. For, the correction of moral defects and the building up of character suppose moral instruction and training, and these have not yet been successfully given except in connection with religion." "As a rule, then," he concludes, "the most effective plan for the relief of moral distress in institutions is to have the greater part of the work done by private religious agencies, subsidized by the state in accordance with the number of inmates." The state's duty to supervise saloons and suppress brothels, to regulate dance halls and prosecute clandestine prostitution, is imperatively demanded.

With regard to the administration of relief, the state's province is held to be narrower than in prevention. Striking the balance between public and private relief, the necessity of having both in co-operation is admitted, but "the

ideal condition would be to provide all relief through voluntary agencies." The conclusion, hitherto reached at each point, is here still more inclusively applied: "What has been said above regarding the advantages of the state's subvention of private institutions under strict state supervision, is in a general way true with regard to the institutional care of physical suffering and dependency."

The value of the reflexive influence of charity upon the charitable is pleaded in this culminating argument: "Moreover, so long as misery exists, its capacity to arouse, keep alive and develop the feelings and principles of sympathy, brotherhood, and social solidarity, ought to be utilized to the utmost. Individuals and classes should be given this opportunity to obtain this opportunity. Especially is this true of small and local groups, as the parish, the fraternal society, the town, the rural neighborhood. . . . Neither in the field of prevention, nor in that of relief, is it wise or right for the state to do anything that can be done as well by voluntary agencies; and wherever practicable it should subsidize, co-operate with and supplement private endeavor."

#### CORRESPONDENCE

From a bishop comes the suggestion of an investigation of the administration of relief funds by corporations as one of the ways in which organized religion may do something practical in the interests of working people. In a very different direction a layman reports one result of the Men and Religion Forward Movement to be a community extension campaign by "the Industrial Evangelistic Foundation." Opening at Greensboro, N. C., it is being followed up at industrial centers in Kansas, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Missouri, Alabama and Texas.

From New York we learn that the last Sunday on which the battleships of the Atlantic fleet were in the harbor, a company of 115 young people distributed 24,600 portions of the Gospels to as many men on thirty-two ships, a handsomely engrossed copy of the Bible being given to Rear-Admiral Osterhaus. Among other sailors in the harbor, 15,000 volumes were distributed. Over 85,000 volumes were distributed among immigrants landing at Ellis Island, who carried the books into every state of the Union. Over 130 institutions were also supplied with Bibles by the New York Bible Society, which made the other grants also.

#### GOOD CHEER

Out of the soil,—  
The lily;  
Out of the ooze,—  
The pearl!  
Up from the mortal  
Soars the immortal;  
After hell's battle  
White flags unfurl!

God's here in His world,  
And the cross stands for human redeeming.  
Far o'er the sad earth  
Heaven's radiance forever is streaming.  
Therefore, my soul, be true  
And undaunted;  
Never by ghosts of old fears  
Be thou haunted!

Right is right;—and not might.  
Truth is truth;—and not sneers.  
Love is love;—dry the tears.  
God is God;—face the light!

—Waufarer





FIRST SCREENED MARKET IN NEW ORLEANS

New Orleans has been the scene of a war for cleanliness which has given Oscar Dowling, head of the Louisiana Health Board, a national reputation. Mr. Dowling as the representative of the public in the case of the *People vs. Dirt*, has conducted throughout the state by means of a special train popularly dubbed "Health on Wheels" not only a crusade of education but also a campaign of police power which has left in its wake a trail of rebuilt, renovated or cleaned schoolhouses, dairies, slaughter-houses, hotels, restaurants, drug-stores, barber-shops and markets. The Louisiana health train has toured the country and attracted the attention of other states. Both New York and Iowa have begun on the health train plan.

## HEALTH

FOR the last three or four months our medical journals have had reports concerning the bitter conflict that has been going on in Great Britain between the liberal government and the British Medical Association over the terms of the Insurance Act. It is a peculiar fact that, although this law is probably the most revolutionary, so far as medical practice is concerned, of any measure yet introduced in any English-speaking country, the controversy between the government and the physicians has been almost entirely over the question of compensation, and not over the principles on which the law is based. Little seems to have been said by the British Medical Association to indicate that this body had any concern in the matter aside from the question of fees. Indeed, the association has followed the most extreme of trade union tactics. The conduct of negotiations has been entirely in the hands of the leaders. There has been no referendum to the rank and file of the profession, the men really interested, and all attempts on the part of individual physicians to make their own agreements with the home office have met with expulsion from the ranks of the association, followed by the declaration of a rigid boycott against the offenders.

That there are physicians in the United States who see more in this new policy of the British government than a mere business arrangement with the doctors is evident from an editorial which recently appeared in the official organ of the American Medical Association. The writer says:

"If we are not mistaken, this law marks the beginning of the end of the old system of the individual practice of medicine and of the old relationship between patient and physician—the beginning of a new era, both for society and for physicians. It provides for nothing less than an assumption, on the part of the government, of the responsibility of providing proper medical care for citizens who are financially unable to secure it for themselves. Under the terms of the act, all persons whose total annual income is less than \$800 (£160) will be entitled to medical services furnished by the government and paid from a fund made up jointly by workmen, employers and the government. Persons having an income above \$800 will continue to provide their own medical services as heretofore—for the present. It is estimated that approximately 15,000,000 of the inhabitants of the United Kingdom are by the terms of this act taken out of the field of private practice.

"The effect of such a law can be nothing less than revolutionary, as far as the economic conditions of the medical profession are concerned. That the discussion has centered almost entirely around the question of compensation shows that physicians have no objection to being made state health officers or to having the present system of private practice largely reduced, if not abolished, so long as they are adequately compensated for their work. The question of a fair and adequate compensation for physicians is, of course, vital. It is, however, largely a local question. The important feature is the recognition of the



fact that it is the duty of society, as represented by the government, to furnish medical treatment for those who are unable to secure it for themselves. It also means the recognition of the modern physician as a health officer of the state, working for the general good, rather than as a private, professional or business man.

"There is room for much speculation as to the ultimate results. For one thing, it practically eliminates the necessity for medical charity, and so stops the enormous drain on physicians which has resulted therefrom. If it is true, as was reported several years ago by a committee of one of our large local organizations, that 25 per cent of the professional work done by physicians is entirely gratuitous, the abolition of this enormous non-productive class of work would be beneficial. Another important consideration is that the adoption of such a plan would do away with any possible mercenary motive which might be alleged against the individual physician or the medical profession as a whole, as a reason for any indifference or apathy toward the development of preventive medicine. A third and by no means less important result will be that those persons who, under the present private practice system, are the least able to consult physicians frequently, and who are yet most exposed to and susceptible to preventable diseases, can secure the advice and services of medical men before, rather than after, the disease has developed. That some form of periodic, systematic medical inspection will develop out of the state system of medicine thus created in the United Kingdom seems probable.

"Last is the effect which such a measure will have on medical education and the personnel of the profession. If the state assumes the responsibility of providing medical services for any large proportion of its citizens, it must necessarily pay strict attention to the quality of service which it provides, as a physician working under the Insurance Act will be necessarily a representative of the state. This will make it necessary for the government not only to exercise more rigid supervision over medical colleges and the character of medical instruction, but also to adopt some system which will prevent those already qualified to practice from becoming inefficient through laziness or indifference.

"Physicians in the United States will be interested in the development of this plan in Great Britain principally on account of the light it will throw on such a plan in this country, for the possibility that the adoption of some arrangement of this sort will sooner or later be considered on this side of the Atlantic may be acknowledged. The prevention of disease is becoming more and more recognized as a social and not a professional duty. Most preventable diseases today are due to sins of the community rather than to sins of the individual. The state in the future must protect the citizen against disease just as it now protects him from foreign invasion. In fact, the majority of our most

dreaded diseases are foreign invaders, as far as civilized nations are concerned."

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NEW questions in sociology are continually arising. Ten years ago few outside a small group of experts discussed or attempted to pass judgment on such a question as the sterilization of the feeble-minded and of certain types of criminals. Now, however, the larger public is forced to give some thought to this matter, because it has suddenly leaped into amazing prominence, and the procedure has not only found enthusiastic advocates, especially among physicians and so-called eugenicists, but it has even become a legalized part of criminal practice in certain states.

Indiana, Washington, Colorado, Connecticut, Nevada, Iowa, New Jersey, and New York have all passed laws which provide for some form of sterilization of defectives and of certain criminal types. In Pennsylvania a similar bill was vetoed by the governor, and in Kansas and Nebraska the experiment with such methods of dealing with sexual offenders has been temporarily abandoned. The New Jersey law has been very carefully planned to avoid abuse, but has not been in effect long enough to warrant conclusions as to its practical outcome. Indiana has given the sterilization plan a seven years' trial, and in the reformatory at Jeffersonville about three hundred men have been thus operated on.

The medical profession is inclined to look with favor upon such legislation, to judge by recent editorials in the medical journals. The lawyers are also studying the question. The American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, at a meeting recently held in Milwaukee, received the report of a committee which had been appointed by the Wisconsin branch of the institute to look into the question of the sterilization of defectives and certain types of criminals. The report considers three methods by which the propagation of the defective can be prevented; namely, regulation of marriage, which is approved but held to be of comparatively slight effect; sequestration, which if perfect would be absolutely effective, but the committee doubts if it is either possible or desirable to make it perfect; and, finally, sterilization, which last is not recommended or condemned, the committee simply summarizing the laws bearing on it in the different states.

To anyone reading the report carefully it would seem that the committee makes a rather sweeping classification of people who are regarded as defectives and unfit to propagate their kind. One would hesitate to class epileptics, neurotics, drunkards, and paupers together with the insane, feeble-minded, and criminal. It is only necessary to remember Max Nordau's famous book on degeneracy to recognize that some of the world's greatest geniuses have belonged to one or more of these classes. Indeed, in considering this question of the breeding of the



"unfit" one of the first things that strikes us is the lack of a standard of fitness. We would all probably agree that the insane and feeble-minded should be restrained from bearing or begetting children, but would we be willing to apply this same restriction to all who suffer from functional derangements of the nervous system?

In the writings of physicians it is usually assumed that "the fit" means the physically fit, and a careful perusal of recent literature on eugenics shows that this is true of the utterances of many followers of this new science. But the student of evolution has never held that the survival of the fittest meant the survival of the most nearly perfect physical animal, but only of the animal best adapted to his environment. In a highly civilized society the intellectual neurotic with a poor physical development may be better fitted for the struggle for existence than is the hardy peasant from a simpler civilization. It may be urged that this is deplorable and a proof of national decadence; still there was once a nation which made health and a well-rounded physical development the only test of fitness, and the Spartans have left the world no heritage of art, ethics, philosophy or literature, only a tradition of physical courage and endurance hardly superior to that of the American Indian.

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**A**MONG the many discussions concerning the forcible prevention of the breeding of the unfit we hear occasionally a voice raised in protest to warn us that by adopting such measures the state may be diverted from a sense of its responsibility in regard to those conditions which produce criminality and degeneracy. These objections were voiced movingly by Peter Kropotkin at the Eugenics Congress in London last August.

To quote part of his speech:

"I came this morning with the intention of expressing my deep regret to see the narrow point of view from which eugenics has been treated up till now, excluding from our discussions all this vast domain where eugenics comes in contact with social hygiene.<sup>1</sup> This exclusion has already produced an unfavorable impression upon a number of thinking men in this country, and I fear that this impression may be reflected upon science altogether.

"Before science is enabled to give us any advice as to the measures to be taken for the improvement of the human race, it has to cover first with its researches a very wide field. Instead of that we have been asked to discuss not the foundations of a science which has still to be worked out, but a number of practical measures, some of which are of a legislative character. Conclusions have been already drawn from a

<sup>1</sup>Kropotkin uses this term in its literal significance, a significance we in this country have almost forgotten, as with us it has come to signify the control of venereal diseases.

science before its very elements have been established.

"Thus we have been asked to sanction, after a very rapid examination, marriage certificates, Malthusianism, the notification of certain contagious diseases, and especially the sterilization of the individuals who may be considered as undesirable.

"In my opinion, Professor McDonnell was quite right when he made the remark that it was untimely to talk of such measures as these at a time when criminologists themselves are coming to the conclusion that the criminal is "a manufactured product," a product of society itself. He stood on the firm ground of modern science. I have given in my book on Prisons some striking facts, taken from my own close observation of prison life from the inside, and I might produce still more striking facts to show how sexual aberrations described by Krafft Ebing are often the results of prison nurture, and how the germs of that sort of criminality, if they were present in the prisoner, were always aggravated by imprisonment.

"But to create or aggravate this sort of perversion in our prisons, and then to punish it by the measures advocated at this congress, is surely one of the greatest crimes. It kills all faith in justice, it destroys all sense of mutual obligation between society and the individual. It attacks the race solidarity—the best arm of the human race in its struggle for life.

"Before granting to society the right of sterilization of persons affected by disease, the feeble-minded, the unsuccessful in life, the epileptics (by the way, the Russian writer you so much admire at this moment, Dostoyevsky, was an epileptic), is it not our holy duty carefully to study the social roots and causes of these diseases?

"When children sleep to the age of 12 and 15 in the same room as their parents, they will show the effects of early sexual awakenings with all its consequences. You cannot combat such widely spread effects by sterilization. Just now 100,000 children have been in need of food in consequence of a social conflict. Is it not the duty of eugenics to study the effects of a prolonged privation of food upon the generation that was submitted to such a calamity?"

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**T**HE new (seventh) edition of Dr. S. Adolphus Knopf's international prize essay, *Tuberculosis, a Disease of the Masses and How to Combat it*, has now been translated into French by Dr. Eugene Grenier of the Bruchesi Tuberculosis Institute at Montreal. Dr. Grenier's new French Canadian translation represents the twenty-eighth foreign edition which with the seven published in the United States makes thirty-five imprints of this work in twenty-four different languages.



# THE PUBLIC HEALTH MOVEMENT

IRVING FISHER

The conservation movement is a movement to prevent waste. When the Conservation Commission was appointed four years ago, emphasis was placed on the wastes of our natural resources, but by the time the commission made its report it had come to the conclusion that by far the most serious as well as the most preventable wastes are the wastes of human life.

A generation ago it was a common impression that the average human lifetime was fixed as by a decree of fate. When I was in college one of our revered instructors showed us a mortality table, and said with great impressiveness: "There is no law more hard and fast than the law of mortality." I believed it, and even yet many people are under this delusion. Pasteur did much to introduce a more optimistic view. He stated his belief in these immortal words, "It is within the power of man to rid himself of every parasitic disease." He staked this opinion on his own wonderful laboratory revelations as to germ life. Today we can confirm his words by absolute statistics. And now his successor, Metchnikoff, has surpassed even Pasteur in optimism. Metchnikoff is devoting himself to the prolongation of human life, and already gives us a vision of the time when centenarians will be regarded merely as in the prime of life, and when the normal life span of a century and a quarter will be a frequent occurrence.

The growing consciousness that human life is not a fixed allotment, which we must accept as our doom, but a variable, which is within our power to control, has recently led to extraordinary exertions all over the world to save human life. This impulse has gained strength also from the great and almost universal decline in the birth rate. Old countries like France and new countries like Australia are confronted with the specter of depopulation. Consequently, as human life becomes scarce, it becomes precious—like any other commodity! These two facts, the consciousness that much mortality is preventable, or, at any rate, postponable, and the fact that increasingly fewer babies are being born in the world, are together operating to produce a great health movement throughout the world. Nothing will stop it until the whole world is convinced of the paramount importance of this problem of human conservation.

This world-wide movement for the conservation of human life has expressed itself in many ways—in medical research; in societies for preventing tuberculosis, infant mortality, social diseases, alcoholism, and vice; in the growth of sanatoria, dispensaries, hospitals and other institutions; in an immense output of hygienic literature, not only technical books and journals, but also popular articles in the magazines and daily newspapers; in the constant agitation and legislation for purer foods, milk supply, meat supply and water supply; in the movement to limit the labor of women and children and to improve

factory sanitation; in the establishment of social insurance in Germany, England, Denmark and other countries; in the improvement of Departments of Health; in the spread of gymnastics, physical training and school hygiene; in the revival of the Olympic games and the effort to revive the old Greek ideals of physical perfection and beauty, and last and most important, in the sudden development of the science of eugenics.

In the summer of 1911 there was held in Dresden a unique world's fair, devoted exclusively to health—the International Hygiene Exhibition. In this were shown the fruits of the whole movement in all lands—except, alas, our own; for to our shame it must be said that we as yet are among the backward nations in this movement for the conservation of human life. Our Congress was asked to appropriate \$60,000 to erect a building and supply an exhibit to show what we have done for our part in this movement, but Congress thought it could not afford so large an expenditure for so small (!) an object, and the result was that from the millions of people who visited this exhibition one constantly heard the question asked: "Where is the United States?"

And those few Americans who did go to visit the exhibition found that other nations had far outstripped us in this movement for national sanitation and health. Some of the achievements already attained by other nations should be recorded among the wonders of the world. One is the striking decline of the death rate in the city of London. Within two decades London's death rate has virtually been cut in two, and is now only thirteen per thousand, or less than that of most cities one-fiftieth its size.

Probably, however, the greatest achievement of any country is that of Sweden, where the duration of life is the longest, the mortality the least, and the improvements the most general. There alone can it be said that the chances of life have been improved for all ages of life. Infancy, middle age and old age today show a lower mortality in Sweden than in times past, while in other countries, including the United States, although we can boast of some reduction in infant mortality, the mortality after middle age is growing worse, and the innate vitality of the people is, in all probability, deteriorating. The reason why Sweden of all countries has succeeded in improving the vitality of middle age and old age, while other nations have failed, is, I believe, to be found in the fact that Sweden, of all nations, has seen the problem of human hygiene as a whole instead of partially. In most other lands, and particularly in the United States, public health has been regarded almost exclusively as a matter of protection against germs; but protection against germs, while effective in defending us from plague and other epidemics of acute diseases, is almost powerless to prevent



the chronic diseases of middle and late life. These maladies—Bright's disease, heart disease, nervous breakdowns—are due primarily to unhygienic personal habits. Medical inspection and instruction in schools, as well as Swedish gymnastics, have aided greatly in the muscular development of the citizens of Sweden. Swedish hard bread has preserved their teeth. The Gothenburg system is gradually weaning them from alcohol. There has even been a strong movement against the use of tobacco. Other countries are tardily following in the path which Sweden has trod so successfully.

The significant fact is that Sweden has not hesitated to attack the problem of personal habits. I believe we must have a revolution in the habits of living in the community if we are going really to realize the promise of Metchnikoff and others as to the prolongation of human life. Health officers in this country have not regarded it as a part of their duty either to live personally a clean, hygienic life, or to teach others to do so, or even to investigate what those conditions of well being are which make for personal vitality.

I can remember, thirteen years ago, talking with a doctor in Colorado as to the habits of living of his patients. I said to him: "You tell me that tuberculosis is a house disease, and that the reason it exists is because people do not open their windows. Why, then, do you not tell your patients they must open their windows, or sleep out of doors?" He said, "I wouldn't dare to do that; I would lose my practice. They would think I was a crank, and meddling in their personal affairs." Today that battle has been largely won. Today, not only in Colorado and California, and in the places where there is perpetual sunshine, sleeping out of doors is common and not confined to invalids, but is indulged in by the community generally. Even in New England and throughout the country you will find sleeping balconies going up all over. The change has even affected in some degree the architecture of the country, and while as yet only a minority of the people sleep out of doors, yet I believe it is true that the majority of the people in the United States have far more air in their sleeping and living rooms today than ten years ago. The fact which the doctor in Colorado did not dare tell his patients thirteen years ago has in some way been told to the people of the United States.

But there are many other things that need to be told, after we are sure that they are true. When we have, through our national, state or municipal officers, made thorough investigations and have been able to discover the actual truth as regards eating and drinking, hours of work, recreation and play—all those facts that go into what may be called personal habits—then we may gradually overturn existing unhygienic habits of living. John Burns attributes a large part of the great reduction in London mortality to the improved personal habits of working men, particularly in regard to alcohol. In this country Dr. Evans, both as health officer of Chicago and later as health editor of a Chicago newspaper, has shown how public instruction in personal

habits can be made effective, and it will be largely through affecting personal habits that the life insurance companies will improve the longevity of their policy-holders.

Scientific men today have reached substantial agreement that alcohol is a poison. When everybody understands this, the days of alcohol as a beverage will be numbered. Sweden in the 30's was called drunken Sweden, but today the anti-alcohol movement there has converted Sweden into one of the soberest of countries.

But the use of tobacco, tea and coffee ought also to be investigated, so that we may know how far they are deleterious, and to spread this knowledge among the people.

Fashions are in their essence changeable, and the time will come when the world will not be built on fashion, but on reason. Japan has made more rapid progress in civilization than any other nation—because the late Mikado resolved and publicly stated that the institutions of Japan must not be tied by tradition, but must be based on reason. When we have replaced tradition by reason, we shall have gotten a solid basis for civilization, and this must apply to ancient customs and habits of every kind. I am firmly convinced that we are looking at only one-half of this public health movement as long as we confine ourselves to the acute or infectious diseases. We shall not get more than half the results obtainable until we realize that there must be a revolution in the personal habits of the people.

Yet the United States, in spite of its shortcomings, has some special triumphs to record. We have, through hygiene under Colonel Gorgas, made it possible to dig the Panama Canal. We have virtually abolished yellow fever on our shores and in Cuba. We have nearly eliminated hookworm disease in Porto Rico and are gradually doing the same in the southern states. We have found a remedy for one form of spinal meningitis. We have, in New York, made an object lesson in the last year of reducing the summer death rate of infants in a striking manner. We have, by individual milk stations in Boston and other cities and in individual sanatoria, dispensaries and other institutions, demonstrated that the death rate from specific diseases can often be cut in two.

Yet we have depended altogether too much on private initiative. In New York the summer death rate of infants was reduced chiefly through the work of the milk committee and individuals like Nathan Straus. The discovery of the wide prevalence of hookworm disease and the discovery of the serum for spinal meningitis came through the gifts of Mr. Rockefeller. It is well that individuals should apply themselves to these problems, and without such personal interest they could never be solved. Nevertheless, progress will be many times as rapid when the problems for the nation are managed in a national way. There are three great agencies to which we must look for the saving of human life in the future, and it has been the object of the Committee of One Hundred on National Health, of which I am president, to help stir these three





agencies into activity in this country. They are the public press, the insurance companies and the government.

To a limited extent, all these agencies have increased their health activities in recent years. A few years ago popular articles on public health were seldom seen, because the public and the press thought the subject of disease uninteresting and repulsive. Today, on the other hand, one can scarcely pick up a popular magazine without finding not only one, but several, articles dealing with questions of public health; and it has been found possible not only to make these articles interesting, but, by emphasizing the positive or health side, instead of the negative or disease side, to render them attractive and beautiful. And yet, as Dr. Wiley has said, the newspapers, in spite of all the good they are doing with their right hands, are, with their left hands, in their advertising columns trying to undo that good by advertising the fraudulent part of the "healing" profession who are trying to line their own pockets at the expense of the lives of the public.

The second great agency from which, I believe, we may expect wonderful results in the future is life insurance. As our committee pointed out to the association of life insurance presidents several years ago, life insurance companies can save money by preventing deaths just as fire insurance companies have saved money by preventing fires, and steam boiler insurance companies have saved money by preventing explosions. Since this suggestion was made, a number of progressive life insurance companies have tried the experiment. The Metropolitan and the Equitable have established departments of human conservation, and a number of other and smaller companies have undertaken similar enterprises. The Postal Life Insurance Company has recently published the statistical results of their experience, worked out in a most careful manner, and has demonstrated absolutely that it pays life insurance companies to save human life. This be-

ing the case, we may expect life insurance companies in the future to become active in life conservation. Already there are probably fifteen million policyholders in the United States insured in companies which are trying to do something for their health—through medical examinations, instruction in hygiene, utilization of visiting nurses, participation in civic health movements and otherwise. To save human life merely to save money is sordid enough, but it is well to harness commercial motives, when possible, in the service of humanity.

The third and most important agency is the government. State and national health offices are becoming yearly stronger and more efficient; and yet much remains to be done, particularly by the national government. We need a national department of health or a department of labor which shall include in its operations the conservation of human life. We have already passed the phosphorus match bill to prevent one of the worst industrial diseases—phossy jaw. We have passed effective legislation in regard to interstate commerce in prostitution. We have established a Children's Bureau, and a Bureau of Mines to prevent industrial accidents in mining. We have enacted suitable legislation in regard to cocaine and habit-forming drugs. We have a Pure Food Law and laws for the inspection of meats. Yet, as Dr. Wiley, Mrs. Crane and others who have watched the operation of these laws at close range well know, they need to be executed with a stronger hand.

The truth is that as yet we have only made a feeble beginning in public health work, especially in this country. We need, first of all, to do what Sweden has done for a hundred and fifty years—namely, to keep proper vital statistics. Vital statistics are the bookkeeping of health, and we cannot economize health any more successfully than we can economize money unless we keep books. At present only a little over half of the population of the United States has statistics of its deaths, while the statistics of the



births are as yet nowhere sufficiently accurate to be called real statistics.

Our national statistician, Dr. Wilbur, illustrates by a story how much better we keep our commercial books than our books of vital statistics. In a western state a girl was entitled to a fortune when she became twenty-one. Reaching, as she supposed, her twenty-first birthday, she laid claim to the fortune. Much to her surprise, her father said: "But you are only nineteen"; and then the two tried to look up the records. They had no family Bible, they had no public record office to go to, and they were at sea as to how to discover exactly the date when she was born. However, it suddenly occurred to her father, who was a farmer, that on the very day his daughter was born a calf was born on his farm, and the birth of the calf had been recorded. In that way he established the date of the birth of his daughter.

In view of the great lack of our vital statistics, therefore, we cannot measure even the death rate, much less the number of preventable deaths in the United States. All that we can do is to study carefully the registration area, and on this basis to work out certain minimum figures.

Four years ago, as a member of President Roosevelt's Conservation Commission, I endeavored to do this and to report on the condition of our "national vitality." I found, after getting together all the statistics available and taking account of the degree of preventability of different diseases as estimated by experts, that out of some 1,500,000 deaths annually in the United States at least 630,000 are preventable! Of these preventable deaths the greater number are from seven causes. These seven causes include three great diseases of infancy; then typhoid fever, which usually makes its attack in the twenties; then tuberculosis, accidents in industry, and pneumonia, which come in the thirties.

Now 630,000 unnecessary deaths per year mean over 1,700 unnecessary deaths per day, or more than the lives lost in the Titanic disaster! The nation cannot continue indifferent to hygiene as it gradually dawns on the public that for lack of hygiene we suffer a Titanic disaster every day of the year. The popular imagination was deeply stirred by the image of 1,600 helpless human beings suddenly engulfed in midocean. That was a vivid dramatic picture which the blindest of men could see and understand. It led to immediate official action on both sides of the Atlantic to safeguard human life at sea. Yet on land we lose 365 times as many lives as this every year, and never stop to add it up! They are scattered and diffused throughout the land—a Wilbur Wright lost from typhoid, a handful of miners in an explosion, some railway employes in an accident, some victims of lead poisoning, a little army of infants, here a few men and there a few. Yet these deaths are just as real and mean an infinitely more serious loss than the deaths from the Titanic disaster. Moreover, they could be as easily prevented.

And concomitant with this unnecessarily great death rate there is, of course, a colossal aggregate of needless sickness. We have no real sta-

tistics, but by analogy with English statistics we may assume that, on the average, for every death per annum there are two persons sick during the year. This makes about 3,000,000 people constantly lying on sick beds in the United States, of which, on the most conservative estimate, at least half need not have been there.

If, now, on the basis of these figures, we try to compute how much human life is needlessly shortened in the United States, we find that it is shortened at least fifteen years. Again, if we translate these preventable losses into commercial terms, we find that, even by the most conservative reckoning, this country is losing over \$1,500,000,000 worth of wealth-producing power every year.

What does this mean? To us individually it means that we are losing a large part of our rightful life not only by death itself, which cuts off many years we might have lived, but also from diseases and disabilities which are not fatal but cripple the power to work and mar the joy of living. I believe I am far within the facts when I venture the opinion that the average man or woman in the United States is not doing half of the work nor having half of the joy of work of which the human being is capable.

With all this room for improvement before our eyes, it is not surprising that the zeal of the health movement is growing fast. Each success serves as justification for further effort.

One of the most encouraging symptoms of progress is the great attention which was paid to public health in the recent political campaign. All three of the party platforms included planks in behalf of public health. The Democratic and Progressive platforms were particularly explicit and emphatic, and all the candidates have emphasized health in speeches and in their record in public life.

These and other indications augur well for better legislation, more energetic enforcement of the law and, above all, a more appreciative public sentiment as to the transcendent importance of the conservation of human life. It is now reported that Dr. Roche, secretary of state in Canada, is in strong sympathy with the proposal there for the establishment of a Federal Department of Health, and the Republic of China is reported to have already established such a department.

From all these indications of actual activity, as well as from the logic of the situation, we are justified in predicting that an age of human conservation is at hand. Men and women are waking to their responsibility to the race. Eugenics will be a watchword of the future. To squander our natural resources is ignoble indeed, but far worse is it to squander our vital resources. The most sacred obligation of each generation is to bequeath its life capital unimpaired to the generation which comes after. Scourges like typhoid and tuberculosis must be swept off the face of the earth. Habit-forming drugs, including alcohol (and even tobacco, especially for young boys), must be recognized in their true light as means of depleting the vitality of nations. Prostitution and the white slave



traffic must be condemned anew as robbers of the race. Industries which kill and maim, poison or infect their workers, which deform and stunt little children, which incapacitate women for normal motherhood, which through overlong hours of toil close each successive day's work with progressive exhaustion, must be controlled. Machinery was made for man, not man for machinery. Marriage laws and customs must be adjusted so as to discourage or forbid the procreation by the unfit. All these and other hygienic and eugenic reforms will be realized as fast as public sentiment becomes educated to the solemn responsibilities and higher valuations of human life.

The noblest task, therefore, which I can conceive for any man is to aid in erecting true ideals of perfect manhood and womanhood. Our ideals, though improving, are not yet worthy to be compared with those of Japan or Sweden, and the ideals even of these countries have not yet reached the level of those of ancient Greece still imaged for us in imperishable marble. With superior knowledge, our health ideals should excel those of any other age. These ideals should not stop with the mere negation of disease, degeneracy, delinquency and dependency. They should be positive and progressive. They should include muscular development, a sound mind in a sound body, integrity of moral fiber, a sense of the splendor of the perfect human body as a temple of the human soul, a sense of the enjoyment of all life's proper functions. As William James said, simply to breathe or move our muscles should be a delight. The thoroughly healthy person is full of joy and optimism. He rejoiceth like a strong man to run a race. Said Emerson: "Give me health and a day, and I will make the pomp of emperors ridiculous!" Our health ideals should be nothing short of an abiding sense of the sweetness and beauty, the nobility and holiness of human life.

### JOTTING

#### SOCIETY FOR INSTRUCTION OF EUGENICS

A "Society for the Instruction of Eugenics," with headquarters in New York, is announced. Its stated purpose is "for the benefit of every one who desires to give to all children moral self-protection by a simple and true knowledge of the science of life, which means eventually a higher order of morality, spirituality, intellect, and physical perfection for future generations." A pamphlet which is issued to the public makes a strong plea for a law compelling the teaching of eugenics in every school. This term, which is used in many senses nowadays, is here meant to cover sex physiology and pathology. No entrance fee is required for membership in the society, merely the signature of an enrollment slip, stating that the signer is in favor of such a law. The pamphlet is issued by Margaret Irving, founder, 12 East 38th Street, New York.

## "Do a Good Turn Daily"

(Not a slogan)



"A scout is helpful . . . He must do at least one good turn to somebody every day." Section No. 3 of the Scout Law, Boy Scouts of America.

¶ A slogan is only a slogan, but a good turn speaks for itself.

¶ Let the example of the Boy Scouts of America be your inspiration to **do a good turn to-day**. A far-reaching good turn.

¶ It is easy. The Boy Scouts of America will help you.

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\$1.00 for the other boy National Headquarters wants to help.

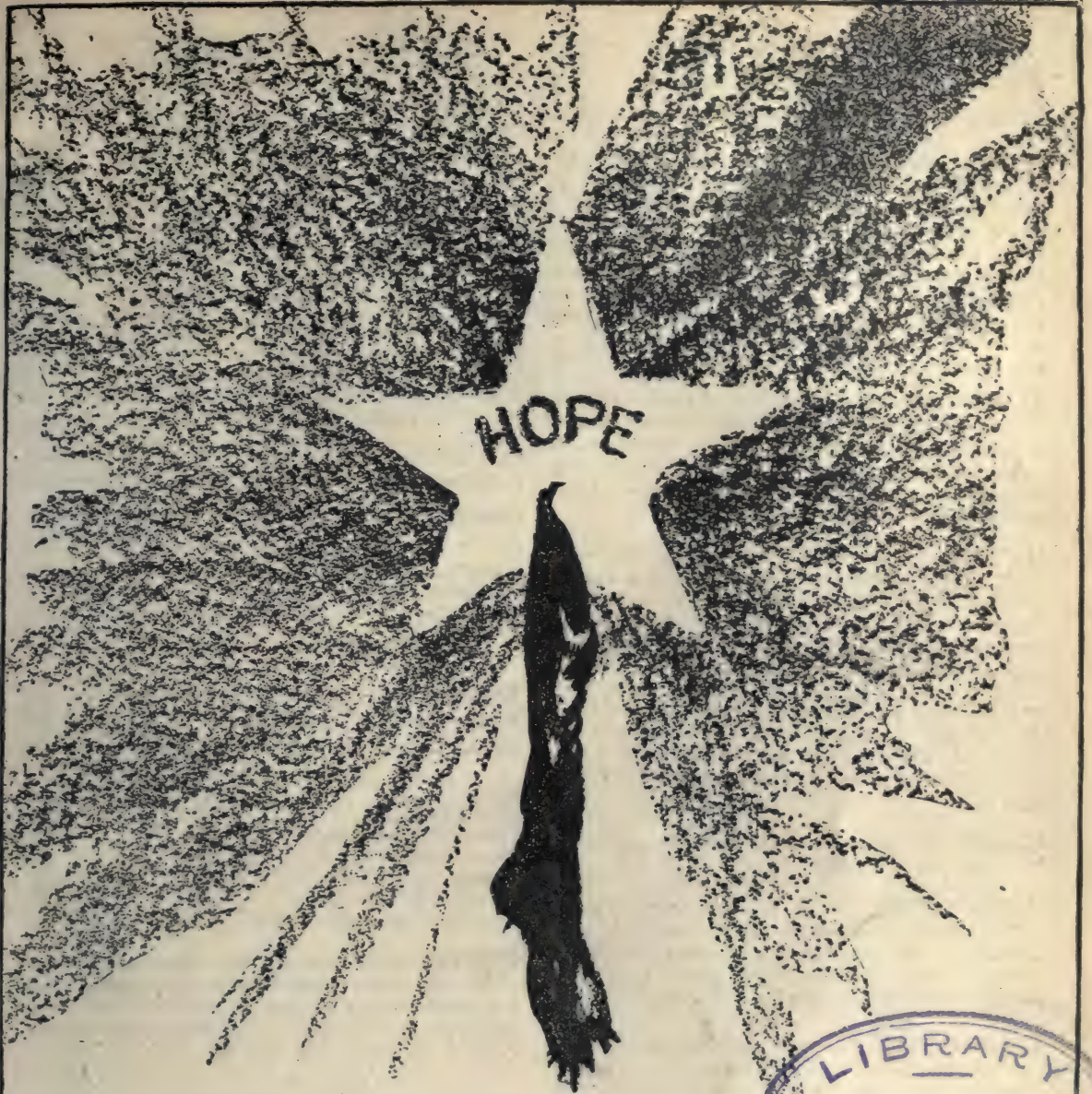
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HITCHED TO A STAR



*Minor in St. Louis  
Post-Dispatch.*



THE  
SURVEY



## THE PITH OF IT

**T**OOT, horn! Flourish, tickler! Fly, confetti! "To hell with the old year; hooray for the new." Such, if experience be a guide, will be the manner of Broadway's welcome to 1913. As a counter to it, Jacob Riis and a committee of New York citizens has planned to supplant it if possible with public gatherings in several parks and open places, where singing and band playing will be the features of New Year's celebration. P. 382.

**F**RESH from the discussion of prison reform in which he and his fellow-executives had indulged at Richmond, Governor Donaghey, of Arkansas, last week pardoned 360 state prisoners as a means of breaking down the convict lease system. P. 383.

**"X**MAS wasn't meant for bribes to those who stand above you! Sign the Spug card—then you're free to give to those who love you." So writes Josephine Daskam Bacon of a movement that aims to liberate the working girl from at least one binding custom. P. 384.

**T**HE House of Representatives has passed the Burnett Immigration bill, the object of which is to exclude from the United States aliens over sixteen who cannot read their own language. P. 406.

**S**OME live issues discussed at three state conferences. P. 403.

**"S**ERENDIPITY" is a social virtue much needed now-a-days, says Samuel McChord Crothers in his latest volume of essays, reviewed in this issue by Alexander Johnson. Other important books reviewed also. P. 394.

**P**RESIDENT TAFT last week sent to the Senate his nominations for the new Federal Commission on Industrial Relations—three representing capital, three labor and three the people. At an emergent meeting of the voluntary committee which had urged this measure upon Congress and the president there was general protest against the make-up of the slate as a whole. P. 381.

**O**N DECEMBER 21, the delegates of the British Medical Association rejected by a vote of 150 to 21 the concessions as to compensation for doctors under the social insurance act, offered by the chancellor of the exchequer. The association announces its intention to continue the fight for its original demand of \$2.04 per annum for each patient treated; the government, on its part, announces its intention of putting in a state service, provided there are enough physicians of reputable standing to enter this service. In the bill as originally passed, the doctors were to receive \$1.04 for each patient; this Lloyd-George's offer raised to \$1.75.

## THE SURVEY

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### THE COMMON WELFARE

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**"T**HE Art of Giving" was discussed both as an exact science and as something from the heart by the American Academy of Social and Political Science. The first public discussion of benefactions. P. 387.

**T**HE Public Service Corporation of New Jersey announces that beginning on January 1, it will establish a minimum wage scale for women and girls in its employ of \$9 a week. An investigation conducted by the welfare committee of the corporation disclosed that on a weekly wage of less there could be no assurance that a girl or woman could live in freedom from "the pitfalls and temptations which beset young women who are thrown in contact with the world."

**T**HE Pullman Company announced on December 23 that every one of its employes in the United States would receive an increase in salary as a Christmas gift. The increases are declared to range from 6 per cent for the highest paid clerks to 12 per cent for the lowest paid employes. The annual pay roll will thus be increased hundreds of thousands of dollars, it is declared.



# THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

VOLUME XXIX, No. 13

DECEMBER 28, 1912

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

On December 17 President Taft sent to the Senate his appointments for the Commission on Industrial Relations, authorized by act of Congress last August. The day following, in New York, an emergent meeting of the committee which had promoted the legislation was called, and a statement given to the press to the effect that as a whole the President's nominations for the board of inquiry fell short of the high hopes of those who had been most concerned in promoting it.

Under the law, no fewer than three of the commissioners must be employers of labor, no fewer than three must be representatives of employes, and no restrictions were placed upon the selection of the other three members. The President's nominations follow:

#### REPRESENTING THE PUBLIC:

George Sutherland, attorney-at-law, Republican United States Senator from Utah chairman of the Federal Employers' Liability Commission, which reported a workmen's compensation system to the present Congress, a marked advance over the old common law. This legislation, which was opposed by the railway unions, was defeated. The bill was also criticized for granting only partial benefits to the non-resident families of alien workmen.

George B. Chandler, Rocky Hill, Conn., Republican; representative of the American Book Company; member of the Connecticut Legislature since 1909, and chairman of its committee on labor, investigating and reporting on workmen's compensation in 1911; chairman of a subcommittee on the cost of living (1911); described as "a leader in the successful fight to secure a public utilities act."

Charles Simon Barrett, Union City, Georgia. Credited with being a Democrat. President of the Farmers' National Union, and former member of the Roosevelt Country Life Commission.

#### REPRESENTING EMPLOYERS:

Frederick A. Delano, Chicago. Receiver and former president of the Wabash Railroad. Identified with various civic and reform movements in Illinois. As president of the Wabash Railroad, his relations with the labor unions have been cordial.

Adolph Lewisohn, New York, Capitalist, President United Metals Selling Co. and General Development Company; director of various other corporations. President Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society. Donor of the School of Mines building in Columbia University and very recently of a stadium to the City College. He served as vice president of the Committee which has carried on the campaign for the commission of inquiry.

Ferd C. Schwediman, St. Louis, electrical engineer, vice president of the National Manufacturers' Association, General Manager of the Racine-Sattley Company, Springfield, Illinois. As chairman of the Committee for Accident Prevention and Workmen's Compensation of the National Association of Manufacturers, Mr. Schwediman made elaborate investigations in this country and abroad, and has been responsible for stimulating an interest in the reform of the old laws of employers' liability among fellow members of the association. Within the last two years he has carried on an energetic campaign for safety.

#### REPRESENTING EMPLOYEES:

Austin B. Garretson, Iowa, president of the Order of Railroad Conductors, one of the great railway brotherhoods, none of which are constituent members of the American Federation of Labor.

John B. Lennon, Bloomington, Illinois, treasurer of the American Federation of Labor. For many years an executive of the International union of journeymen tailors.

James O'Connell, District of Columbia, vice president of the American Federation of Labor, formerly general secretary of the machinists' union.

After the meeting of the Industrial Relations Committee, the following statement was given to the press bearing the signatures of the New York members of the committee. Telegrams were read at the meeting from out-of-town members, a majority of whom expressed themselves to similar effect:—

"The appointments by the President to the Commission on Industrial Relations, just announced, are a great disappointment to the large body of economists and social workers who presented to the President and to Congress the need for a searching inquiry into the causes of unrest and the relations of labor and capital. Such an inquiry would be of great value to the nation, if conducted by a group of persons well known for their special training and experience



in relation to the problems which have grown out of recent industrial changes and the widespread disaffection of labor, who would work together and present in an authoritative way to public opinion the reasons for much needed remedial legislation. Some of the nominees are men of ability and distinction in public affairs, but the commission as a whole fails especially in the following particulars:

"1. No woman has been named a member of the commission, although there are now more than 6,000,000 women wage earners in the nation.

"2. There is no well known economist or social worker, to speak for the increasingly effective work that is being done by our universities and colleges, civic and social organizations and the more authoritative element of the public press, in the analysis of the forces of industrial democracy.

"3. While the three representatives of employers in certain notable particulars are representatives of the interests of employers, and the representatives of labor were officially recommended by the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor and the Railway Brotherhoods, it will be generally recognized that the commission lacks men of such public prominence in this special field of inquiry as to give assurance that the enlightened public interest, which is the chief interest at stake in this most important task, will be adequately represented.

"President Taft himself, in his message to Congress recommending the creation of this commission, said, 'The time is ripe for a searching inquiry into the subject of industrial relations which shall be official, authoritative, balanced and well-rounded.' Whatever the excellence of the individual members, the commission as a whole, if confirmed by the Senate, will not in the eyes of the public meet this high hope."

[Signed as Individuals.]

John B. Andrews,  
American Association for Labor Legislation.  
Frank Oliver Hall,  
Church of the Divine Paternity, N. Y.  
John Haynes Holmes,  
Church of the Messiah, New York.  
J. W. Jenks,  
University of New York.  
Arthur P. Kellogg,  
Paul U. Kellogg,  
The Survey.  
Paul Kennaday,  
New York Assn. for Labor Legislation.  
John A. Kingsbury,  
New York Assn. for Improving the Condition of the Poor.  
Samuel McCune Lindsay,  
Columbia University.  
Owen R. Lovejoy,  
National Child Labor Committee.  
A. J. McKelway,  
Nat'l Child Labor Comm., Southern Branch.  
Henry Morgenthau,  
Committee on Safety.  
Henry Moskowitz,  
Ethical Society, New York.  
James P. Reynolds,  
Assistant District Attorney, New York County.  
William Jay Schleffelin,  
Citizens' Union, New York.  
Stephen S. Wise,  
Free Synagogue, New York.  
Edward T. Devine,  
New York School of Philanthropy.  
Lillian D. Wald,  
The Nurses Settlement, New York.

It is the hope of the committee, that either the president will reconsider his nominations, or that the Senate will fail to confirm them.

## GREETING 1913 ALONG BROADWAY

Believing that the coming of a new year is an event of sufficient dignity to warrant a dignified and orderly celebration of it, a committee of thirteen citizens has taken steps to stop the street rowdyism which has for several years past characterized the night of December 31 in New York. They plan to inaugurate in its place, at a number of points throughout Manhattan Island, musical celebrations including band playing and singing to which everyone is invited and at which it is expected all will take an active part in ushering in the new year. So pronounced has become the public annoyance at the blowing of horns, flourishing of ticklers, and sprinkling of confetti which has heretofore usurped New York's out-of-doors observances on New Year's Eve that money to aid the new plan was quickly forthcoming. It is hoped to repeat the celebrations year after year. Indeed, those most enthusiastic in getting them up see possibilities of tapping untouched sources of public spirit by just such means. If the common emotions of so diverse a community as New York can be successfully brought to play upon an event that touches all alike, where is the limit, it is asked, to the uses that may be made of civic co-operation in the mass meeting, the parade and the pageant?

The appeal of the committee, issued by Jacob Riis, reads in part as follows:

"New York's manner of welcoming the New Year has come to be a kind of rough-housing that found its expression last year in the slogan we heard in the streets: 'To hell with the old year, hooray for the new!' We believe that our people are tired of this, and will be glad to join in a better and saner way more worthy of their city.

"To that end a New Year's Eve Committee has come together to arrange for music and singing of the old songs in two or three of the public squares along Broadway in the midnight hour. The people will be expected to join in the singing."

In commenting on the reasons for the appeal Mr. Riis said:

"Any one who has seen the crowds of rowdies on Broadway breaking hats and insulting women knows that a saner manner of celebration is desirable. We believe that the orderly element will join with us and take part in our midnight meetings. This will simplify the work of the police in curbing the disorderly element which always takes advantage of the occasion to mix in the crowds on Broadway.

"We expect to hold meetings in City Hall Park, Herald Square and Madison Square. Union Square will be turned over to the Salvation Army, which has announced that it will discontinue its meetings on street



corners throughout the city and assemble its singers there for the purpose of ushering in the new year. We hope that the idea, which is really a revival of the old custom of Christmas and New Year's 'waits,' will appeal to the public at large and attract sufficient attendance to make it popular."

The celebration at Madison Square will be held under the illuminated branches of a sixty-foot Christmas tree. Those who are giving this tree to the people of New York—represented by Mrs. J. B. Francis Herreshoff—have offered its use for that night to the committee who have no part in erecting it. It will be lighted for the first time just as the chimes ring out at 5:30 Christmas Eve and will shine forth every night until New Years. The lower branches spread twenty-five feet. The trunk is set in a concrete base and the whole tree will be illuminated by 1,200 electric bulbs, one to each foot of branch measurement.

The appeal is signed by Lyman Abbott, Felix Adler, John H. Finley, Frank Mason North, Silas McRee, Dr. George Alexander, Charles S. Whitman, William Jay Schieffelin, Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, Borough President George McAneny, Arthur Von Brieson, Allen Robinson and Jacob A. Riis.

#### A GOVERNOR, 360 CONVICTS AND THE LEASE SYSTEM

By pardoning 360 convicts from the state penitentiary on Tuesday of last week Governor George W. Donaghey, of Arkansas, undertook to strike a vital blow at the convict lease system of prison labor which exists in his state. Governor Donaghey was one of the executives who took part in the discussion of prison reform at the Governors Conference at Richmond, Va., a week or so before.<sup>1</sup> At that time he heard Governors Shafroth, of Colorado, Eberhardt, of Minnesota, and others denounce schemes by which some states realize large profits from the labor of prisoners, while the prisoners are subjected to treatment which not only can not reform but often actually stunts and brutalizes them.

In Arkansas the state, or its political divisions, leases convicts to private contractors at so much per day, and the contractor then proceeds in most cases to make the greatest possible profit out of their labor. At Richmond Governor Donaghey listened while Gov. Cole Bleese, of South Carolina, whose sensational remarks about lynching and the constitution were only a side issue to his main discussion, told how he had paroled some 400 prisoners and intended to parole 400 more. Governor Donaghey intimated that something of the sort could be expected from him when he returned home, but he gave

no hint of the wholesale character of his plans.

By his act last week three convict camps in Arkansas were practically wiped out of existence. These contained prisoners who had been leased to contractors. They did not include those building state roads. For the most part they were men who had been sentenced for minor felonies. The state was of course a party to the agreement by which these prisoners had been leased to private individuals and Governor Donaghey could not constitutionally violate that contract. There was no limit on his power, however, which prevented the pardoning of all the men working on a given contract. It was by doing that very thing that he sought to make it impossible for the present contracts to be carried out, and so to break down the whole lease system. It was a sensational way of calling public attention to the evils of private control of state convicts and so of paving the way to remedial state legislation.

Behind the governor's act is a history of repeated attempts on his part to arouse the people of the state to a demand for needed reform. In an explanation of his action, to be presented to the legislature next month, he says:

"I have consistently fought the convict lease system since I have been in public office. In every public speech I have denounced it. As a member of the Penitentiary Board I have opposed it in every instance where it was at issue. Time after time I have pleaded with the Legislature to abolish it, but in spite of my appeals for relief and the repeated protests of the people of this state and the reports of the penitentiary and the messages transmitted by the governor to the past two General Assemblies, all in condemnation of this cruel penitentiary and county farm lease system, no adequate relief has been given.

"The subject has been grossly neglected by the General Assembly, partly due to a confusion of ideas as to what plan was best to adopt, and partly due to a disposition by some to let the matter remain as it is, with the statement that 'The penitentiary was not designed for a Sunday school.'

"In answer to such statements, let me say, 'Nor was it designed for a revengeful hell.' The abuse of power shown by a few individuals acting as justices of the peace in some towns in Arkansas, as is made plain by the records, is enough to stagger into amazement those who have given the matter attention. Ever since the adjournment of the last legislature, without taking action upon the subject, I have had in mind in some way myself, to find some measure of remedy for the evil. But because of conditions which would materially disarrange matters so that the subject would have been hidden in a fog of confusion, I have been forced to delay action until this time, when all legitimate objections may be overcome and relief had."

Governor Donaghey cites ten instances which led him to strike a blow at the convict lease system.

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY for December 21, page 347.



The first is a case in which two Negroes were sentenced to serve thirty-six and eighteen years respectively for forging orders for eighteen quarts of whiskey. Another is an instance in which a young white boy was compelled to work in the hot sun when he had a high fever, with the result that he died.

He then adds:

"My principal reason for discharging the large number at this time is for the purpose of forever breaking up the convict lease system in Arkansas. I would be untrue to my convictions, and, as I see it, untrue to the state's best interests, if I did not do everything in my power to bring about this result."

During the exhaustive studies which preceded the report of the United States Immigration Commission, two years ago, investigators for the commission visited the construction camps of Arkansas where state convicts worked under the control of private employers. Many of the things seen there were not published in the forty volumes of reports because they did not directly touch the problems of immigration, but Congressman William S. Bennett, of New York, who visited Little Rock and other points within the state for the commission, told a representative of *THE SURVEY* that his observations at that time convinced him that Governor Donaghey was entirely justified in letting 360 prisoners free at one time. Congressman Bennett added:

"I saw in one place a woman prisoner hoeing cotton under guard while pregnant. The buildings on the farm were utterly without such conveniences as one in her condition should have. Prisoners are often leased by a county judge to a contractor who pays the fine and costs of trial and then is allowed to recoup on the prisoner at the rate of twenty-five cents a day. One white man had been sentenced to \$10 fine and costs, which should not have amounted in all to more than \$13 or \$14. Yet after three months' work the man still had \$10 to work off. They had added to the legitimate costs such charges as the railroad fare of the prisoner and guards and other items."

When told of Governor Donaghey's act Governor Blease is quoted as declaring that the Arkansas executive had "laid him in the shade. Unless the coming session of the General Assembly abolishes the hosiery mill in the penitentiary, South Carolina can look out for an experience similar to that of Arkansas." He added: "The legislature better abolish that 'tuberculosis incubator,' or I will use the pardoning power to depopulate the penitentiary."

The hosiery mill is said to have been condemned by the State Board of Health.

### "SPUGS"

*To the tune of "In the Shadows."*

Remember  
This December,  
That love weighs more than gold!  
Help us spread the news to young and old;  
Friendship bought and sold  
Leaves the giver cold.  
The right gift  
Is the bright gift,  
The kind thought and cheer;  
Send your loving heart,  
That's the greatest part,  
So will Christmas crown all the year!

JOSEPHINE DASKAM BACON.

### THE CHRISTMAS SPIRIT OR THE CHRISTMAS GIFT?

The holidays are all near of kin, but it has taken the past few weeks to show that a sun-burned summer outing may be grandmother to the Christmas spirit. The genealogy runs something like this.

A thriving offspring of the "Vacation Lists" of summer boarding houses for working girls compiled by the Women's Department of the National Civic Federation is the Vacation Savings Fund. This fund was started in November, 1911, by forty-three working girls who found that a list of possible summer outings is only a Tantalus feast to a girl without a lump sum in hand to pay for board and railroad fare. Within the year the fund has had more than 6,000 contributors with deposits amounting to over \$300,000.

The savings fund holds social and business "evenings," and it was at one of these last month which was also the first birthday of the fund that a third generation of activities sprang into being—the "Spugs," which bid fair to eclipse their forebears, so rapid has been their growth and so well exploited have they been by the newspapers.

Mrs. August Belmont, a member of the executive committee, was the speaker on this anniversary night. Thousands of Americans know Mrs. Belmont best as Eleanor Robson and "Merely Mary Ann." The heroine of Zangwill's drama spoke on giving divorced from the spirit of good will. Especially before her working girl audience, she urged some sort of organized movement that would set itself against enforced contributions of working girls in the shape of gifts to employers and foremen. Mrs. Belmont argued against giving on the exchange basis or to keep up appearances and her talk ended with the suggestion that those present form a society called by some such



### MERRY XMAS

Xmas isn't costly gifts,  
But loving friendly hearts;  
Get four girls to think so,  
And a Spug Squad starts.

Xmas isn't cashing checks,  
But mistletoe and holly;  
Pick your Captain, buy your pins  
And join the Spugs so jolly.

Xmas wasn't meant for bribes  
To those who stand above you!  
Sign the Spug card—then you're free  
To give to those who love you.

Xmas makes too many cowards,  
So come on, Spugs, be sporty!  
Send your name and join the crowd  
At One-o-five West Forty.

JOSEPHINE DASKAM BACON.

name as the Society for the Prevention of Useless Giving. Then she went on, "If anyone asks you to sign a card or join in collective giving, say, 'I'm sorry I can't, I'm a Spug.'"

It was the name that got the society into the headlines and has kept its meetings in the newspapers ever since. Newspaper publicity has spread the idea so widely that cities in almost every state of the Union have started "Spugs." Those interested have not been working girls alone, for among its members the society numbers Theodore Roosevelt, Ben B. Lindsey, Kate Barnard, Josephine Dodge Daskam and Laura Jean Libbey. On the night of its inauguration 450 applied for membership.

Starting with this basis membership was rapidly increased in New York by a system of giving office (a "captainship"), carrying with it the honor of wearing green and red holly ribbon pinned on with a Spug pin to those who got four recruits. A big rally and ball on December 5 added to the membership so that at the present time in Greater New York alone the society has over 2,000 members, men and women. In January it is proposed to hold another rally and take stock of the results of the agitation in actually cutting down useless giving.

Besides Mrs. Belmont, who is president, the officers of the society are Miss Robinson Smith, vice president; Anne Morgan, treasurer and chairman of the Propaganda Committee and Miriam K. Oliver, secretary.

The Spugs have produced some spirited leaflet literature, verse and prose, some of which are reproduced here. The following is their declaration of faith:

1. Believe that it is foolish to join in giving Christmas presents to those higher up.

2. Believe that it is vulgar to give Christmas presents because they are given to you.

3. Believe that it is wicked to give Christmas presents without love and common sense.

4. Get at least four others to share this belief and be a Spug Squad.

5. Choose a captain of this squad to send in your names to the office at 105 West 40th Street.

6. Get membership cards and Spug buttons.

7. You are now full-fledged Spugs. Make as many converts as possible, and show the world that "Good-will to men" will bring "Peace on earth" without money rivalry.

## THE INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION

PAUL U. KELLOGG

"Disappointed and disgusted," wired one of the leading economists of the middle West. "It will be the Industrial Commission (with Penrose at the head) over again. I will not be a party to another capitalistic humbug." "The commission lacks weight; will fail to carry conviction; money wasted, better none," read another telegram, over a name which means as much in the field of labor as that of Dean Liberty H. Bailey in scientific farming or of the Mayo brothers in surgery. "The President faced the great constructive opportunity of his term, and he hands us, pardon me, a lemon," said an East Side social worker who has helped settle a score of strikes. None of these three men were candidates for positions on the Commission on Industrial Relations. What they said puts tersely the general reaction felt at the appointments presented by President Taft last week for confirmation by the Senate.

To understand this recoil it is necessary to go back to the inception of the movement which culminated in the passage of the Hughes-Borah bill last August. It has been from the start a movement calling for a new approach to the problem of industrial relations; not for a reiteration of what has long been said on the subject of conciliation and arbitration; but for fresh and resourceful investigation from a newer point of view, based on the changes in our industrial life within recent years. "Such a survey," as Senator Root said at the outset, "can only be made by the most capable and best-informed men in the nation."

The proposal of a commission came from neither side of the industrial cleavage, but from a non-combatant, although at the same time non-quiescent, element in the community,—from social workers, economists, professional men, who were not only on vantage ground to make such a non-partisan proposal, but who saw the constructive opportunity before a commission with as great scientific competence, staff, resources, and power to compel testimony as the Anthracite Strike Commission.



Such a piece of work could not be undertaken by a jury; the board of inquiry must include those elements in the industrial life which have a great and immediate stake in the outcome of labor adjustments; but it should also include those general elements in the community which, with respect to adjustments in any trade, have as great a stake if not so immediate a one as the bargainers themselves. Therefore the committee drafted legislation which called for equal groups of employers and employes on the commission, and for a third group which would conceivably represent the public. And it was urged that in the make up of each group the appointees should represent not a faction or section, but be as far as possible representative of the whole range of parties at interest.

How far do the President's nominations measure up to such a standard?

The group of employers draws on mining, railroading and manufacture; it includes two engineers, who are accustomed to look at the structural elements in industry. One of them, Mr. Schwedtmann, has been the forceful and progressive leader in the workmen's compensation and accident prevention campaign which has been carried on the last few years within and by the National Manufacturers' Association and which at every point has emphasized the human element in industry. Mr. Lewisohn brings the more detached point of view of the large investor and director, rather than the immediate personal equations of a manager. "The appointment of Mr. Delano," writes a civic leader in Chicago, "as the representative of capital, is fine and fair, and ought to be the type of appointment throughout." If there is inadequacy in the list of employes, it is because to a degree they duplicate one another's points of excellence, with perhaps the natural result that other points are lacking. For example, the chief spokesmen of the National Manufacturers' Association have been bitterly hostile to organized labor. While union men today regard Mr. Delano as fair-minded, they recall that as a young man in the engineering office of the Burlington railroad, he personally went out and took a striker's place in that great and bitter struggle. There is no one in the employers' group who has stood head and shoulders above his fellow employers in insisting on the preservation of the spirit of democracy in industry.

With the employers' group of this capacity and calibre, it is all the more important that the trade union group should reflect not only the firmly established labor circles, but also the nascent movements which are abroad.

Mr. Garretson represents one of the great railroad brotherhoods which on all hands it would be agreed should have place on the commission—capable, craft-unionism at its best. There also would be acquiescence that the American Fed-

eration of Labor, which is the national organization of the dominant union movement in America, should similarly hold place—but not to the exclusion of any real representative of the 6,000,000 women workers whose labor problems lie not merely in their relations with employers, but in their relations with men's unions. The commission is to investigate the causes of industrial unrest. How absurd, therefore, that there should be no one on it who has the least sympathy with, or understanding of, the new industrial unionism which is the dynamic element in the expression of that unrest.

Mr. Lennon was long an executive official of the journeymen tailors' union, but was defeated two years ago. The same thing is true of Mr. O'Connell and the machinists' union. Neither was sent to the Rochester convention as a delegate of his own international. Each represents a minority following in his own trade. To name them as the sole representatives of organized labor outside the brotherhoods would be as if President-elect Wilson should draw his cabinet exclusively from the Taggart-Sullivan-Murphy machines, and not at all from the progressive elements in the party which nominated and elected him.

With employers and employes thus represented, the make-up of the third group, if the commission is to at all fulfill the great purpose for which it was conceived, is crucial. Here we do not find the leaven which has been at work in public discussion, in industrial research, in social movements, and the faculties of political science. It is a detail that no one of the forty-one signers of the original petition to President Taft was named as a member of the commission; it is significant that the list includes no one who would instantly be considered like-minded with them, or who has made the whole range of economic problems to come before the commission the subject of fundamental study and observation. Freund, Brandeis, Commons,—there is no name that rings out like these in the list. It is not the inclination of the Industrial Relations Committee to disparage any of the men named. It is as a group that it believes the board of inquiry to be wholly inadequate. Ripe knowledge of constitutional law, long experience in the federal courts, were criteria which President Taft as a lawyer quickly recognized in making appointments during his term to the federal supreme bench, quite apart from any other qualities. He has shown no such discrimination here.

Secretary Nagel, representing the administration, has said repeatedly that the work of this commission would either be exceedingly important or else worse than wasted. If the Senate refuses to confirm the President's appointments, it will help mightily toward staving off the second outcome.





Donahay in Cleveland Plain Dealer

## "THE ART OF GIVING"

CARL KELSEY

J. P. LICHTENBERGER

University of Pennsylvania

*"Yet, cease not to give  
Without any regard;  
Though the beggars be wicked  
Thou shalt have thy reward."*

Such is the jingle coming down to us from "Merrie England" of long ago. A visitor at the session of the American Academy of Political and Social Science held on November 19 at Philadelphia would have been struck by the radically different philosophy which characterized each address. It seems odd, when one thinks of it, that in spite of the enormous giving to all sorts of agencies, this was perhaps the first public meeting to discuss the effects of public giving and its possible regulation.

The afternoon session was held at City Hall with Robert Fulton Cutting of New York as presiding officer. The subject for this session was: Should any limitations be placed on the purpose, life and amount of private benefactions? and the chief address was given by W. H. Allen, director of the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City. To quote Mr. Allen:

"Last year large gifts of nearly \$267,000,000 were heralded broadcast in our newspapers. For twelve years the total of notable gifts has exceeded \$100,000,000 a year. To this total of special gifts by a handful of princely givers should be added not less than another \$100,000,000 yearly in small amounts, given as intended benefaction—apart from other scores of millions in taxes and in unearned increment remitted on private philanthropies.

"This truly princely giving is bound to increase. Within the next ten or fifteen years from two to four billion dollars will be given

in large sums to organized private charitable, religious, social and educational agencies.

"Any expenditure on so huge a scale needs to be justified. The sum of \$267,000,000 means a year's earnings of 270,000 families, which means 270,000 families deflected from industries for one whole year or the permanent deflection from industry of 12,600 families. The presumption is against, not for, such deflection. Whether this princely giving is a national resource or a national drain, asset or liability, is of momentous concern to 100,000,000 people and their successors.

"Of no other comparable investment or resource is there so little effort to discover the laws of effectiveness. The large amounts given every year exceed more than twice the trade of the United States with China, more than the annual imports from Canada, and almost equal our sales to France. They are more than the maximum annual exports of the Standard Oil Company, whose operations kept the world agog for twenty-five years and efforts to control which set new standards for private business and public restriction of such business.

"People will up to or down to, as trustees manage up to or down to, public expectation of will makers and endowment managers. The quickest way to influence will making and endowment managing is to influence general public sentiment by giving the public facts and thus getting "into the air" high standards of expectation from those who spend their own or other people's money for benevolent purposes. Heretofore the public has supinely accepted rules of etiquette which make it seem indelicate to question the result of private giving. Conceding the social motive of givers we have hesitated to believe that their results were anti-social. So it is possible in Philadelphia, as in other cities, for a man to spend millions or hundreds of thousands in perpetuating obsolete forms of philanthropy without a voice being raised to warn other phil-



anthropists that their intended *benefactions* may prove to be *mal-factions*, actually obstructing social progress and creating social problems.

"Until the public thinks about will making and endowment managing in an impersonal way the prospective will-maker or donor will never see himself as others see him. We do not like to offend men and women who are able to give largely. If we are in the appealing class, we come to believe that we can get more money by applauding large gifts indiscriminately than by looking a gift horse in the mouth. Thus, the very people who are best able to criticise or suggest, because closest to needs not yet met, are prohibited by self interest or a sense of propriety from giving to the public the benefit of their inside knowledge.

"A lawyer one day remembered on a street car that he was about to draw a will for a man wishing to leave \$3,000,000 for public purposes. He asked the president of an organization to give him some advice whereupon a report of 200 pages descriptive of a certain society's work was sent him. Is there any other business on the face of the earth that would treat a prospective \$3,000,000 bargain so casually? On the other hand is there any other business on the face of the earth but will making in which a man wishing to invest \$3,000,000 would limit his inquiries to two or three acquaintances? Nor is there any other vocation but philanthropy where a man decides in the midst of a dinner conversation to back some other person's pet investment with \$500,000 or \$1,000,000.

"Without defending the dead hand I want to recall two facts: (1) that what is really objected to is not the deadness of the hand, but the deadening effect upon trustees, beneficiary and other donors; (2) that a deadening effect is just as deadening from a live hand as from a dead hand. There is no kind of deadening that deadens more fatally than the sympathetic live hand which from misinformation and lack of efficiency standards invites insincerity, evasion, waste, incompetence and incompleteness in the use of its gifts. Energy can be deadened by riches as well as by restrictions.

"Because I agree with Julius Rosenwald of Chicago (1) that no man can see further than twenty years ahead; (2) that posterity has a right to problems; and (3) that perpetual endowment often creates problems, I offer the following suggestions:

" 1 The amount of endowment in hand should be annually reported, with a clear statement of the purposes and restrictions of each distinct part of the total endowment.

" 2 Use made of the total endowment and each part of it should be clearly reported each year in such detail as to show efficiency of use as well as purpose.

" 3 An annual outside independent audit should be made—and results published—of all endowment receipts and endowment expenditures showing the nature of investments, the amount of interest yielded, extent and purposes for which income or capital is consumed, etc.

" 4 If it costs the income on \$20,000 a year to

maintain a hospital bed, givers should not be told that they can "endow" that bed for \$5,000.

" 5 When endowments exceed the amounts needed that fact should be advertised to prospective givers and to all others who may know of needs not met of the kind for which the endowment was intended.

" 6 Endowments should be used for special purposes, experiments and extensions of work so as to encourage not inhibit current giving for current maintenance.

" 7 'Endowment instruction' should be given through annual reports, letters, conferences, speeches and frank discussion at all times of the principles and methods of efficient endowing.

" 8 Endowments should be refused when so restricted so as to weaken the appealing power, increase the burden or paralyze initiative.

" 9 How different additions to endowment would add to service should be reported.

"10 Agencies should print forms of bequest in their annual reports which will suggest different forms for permanent funds, current expense funds and special purposes.

"11 For all institutions of a class and for all institutions of all classes a list of all endowments should be published annually by whatever public or private agency most nearly approximates a local clearing house.

"12 As a protection to society, to philanthropic and educational agencies and to donors, state boards of charities should be given power by statute to require and to publish a detailed explanation of the status of all private endowment funds, other than for colleges, etc., receipts, disbursements, extent and purposes for which income or capital is consumed, etc., state boards of education should be given similar powers and duties with respect to strictly institutional educational endowments.

"With respect to will making, I venture the following propositions:

" 1 If not subjected to systematic education in giving, the passing generation, so far as it bequeaths money to public causes, tends to bequeath it to causes dominant in its youth or early prime.

" 2 When a man sits down to make his will it is too late to accomplish much with him because then he will act, as a rule, consistently with the indifference or the intelligence with which he has been considering public questions and his own responsibility for the past ten or twenty-five years.

" 3 No legacy should be restricted as to purpose beyond ten years.

" 4 No temporary restrictions are to be imposed beyond ten or at most twenty-five years because society changes too rapidly and should not harbor incomes which welcome any form of distress as the only means of using legacies.

" 5 If temporary restrictions are to be imposed,



- money should be given to the least popular or less popular rather than to the most popular aspect of a beneficiary's work. A relief society needs its need for coal quite as much as the coal; to relieve it of the appealing power that grows out of this need may reduce its total contributions by many times the value of the coal.
- "6 Unrestricted legacies should be given upon condition that an annual accounting be made for use of income and principal.
- "7 Holding the principal intact and permitting the use of income only for a term of years will generally be more helpful to the beneficiary than an entirely unrestricted legacy.
- "8 Societies that pray for bequests may accustom will-makers to demand statements of fact rather than personal preference when asking for advice.
- "9 A list of alternatives should always be available for givers and advisors.
- "10 A consolidated statement of community needs not yet met should be advertised by perhaps such co-operation among benevolent agencies as when business men in a city unite to advertise their city's attractions.
- "11 Every city needs experts on will-making, not only to draft unbreakable wills but to submit unquestionable needs.
- "12 State laws should make it easier for trustees of funds no longer needed to transfer such funds to purposes which will promote the public wealth.
- "13 The state should provide for the automatic examination of all trust funds at the end of every eighteen years and two years' notice of discontinuance for such funds as are no longer serving a public purpose. The funds should revert to the public unless applied to public betterment purposes approved by the state authority.
- "14 Wills might profitably ask the state or municipality to reassign for periods of five or ten or twenty years what remains of restricted or unrestricted legacies after the expiration of five, ten or twenty years.
- "15 Some testator or donor should experiment with alternating endowments; that is, income to go to one agency for ten years, to be passed to a second for ten years, either to return to the first or to go to a third for the next ten years, etc. This, I believe would do better than the suggestion of Mr. Rosenwald that all endowments be limited and be compulsorily consumed within twenty or thirty years.
- "16 Another experiment is needed, namely, giving to institutions during the minority of personal heirs the income on funds held in trust for such heirs, thus reverting a frequent practice of giving to institutions after personal heirs have died.
- "17 A premium should be put upon providing for needs not met rather than merely adding to the endowments of 'established agencies' or 'going concerns.'
- "18 The most efficient will-maker will not forget that he is a citizen before he is a philanthropist and will so give his money that he will effectively supplement rather than disregard the work which his community, through government agencies, has pledged to do.
- "19 The maximum amount of endowments or legacies should not be limited except as progressive inheritance or transfer taxes will automatically limit the amount which actually may be transferred or devised. While it is conceded that some great endowments would yield appropriations which if mismanaged would menace the country's welfare it is also clear to me that the efficient use of a \$100,000,000 endowment out in the daylight will always be safer for society than the inefficient use of \$20,000,000 or \$10,000,000 or even \$1,000,000 in ways the public does not understand. The only restriction upon the use of endowments which society will ever learn to use progressively for its own advantage is the restriction as to publicity, i. e., annual accounting as is provided in the proposed charter for the Rockefeller Foundation. So important is this step that I once suggested to Mr. Rockefeller to endow an organ to discuss objectively Mr. Rockefeller's own giving.
- "20 The education of the public to higher standards of efficiency in giving and in endowment managing requires the establishment of local and national clearing houses, such as Mrs. Harriman has proposed, where appeals will be scientifically studied from society's point of view, to which givers may come for help and study their own appeals and for facts to approve of their rejection and their giving. Unless such clearing houses are established there is grave menace in America's princely giving and in its small giving. The time has come to assert the truth that the efficient use of funds in industry will help society more than the inefficient use of funds in philanthropy."
- A long discussion followed, by E. D. Solenberger of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society; W. B. Buck of the Sybert Estate; Rev. S. H. Cox of the Congregational Church; Dr. W. H. Maltbie of John Hopkins; Mr. Cushman of the East Side Settlement, New York; Charles N. Williams of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce; Isaac Gimbel, the Philadelphia merchant, Samuel S. Fels, the manufacturer and others. Various speakers brought out different aspects of interest, but there was a striking lack of any sharp difference of opinion. Among the suggestions were these: that there should be developed some way of influencing donations and bequests to philanthropic agencies to avoid the development of needless institutions, to prevent overlapping and to make sure that all the different needs are met; that attention be given the education of the giver of small amounts, as the



average organization is supported by a multitude of small givers rather than a few large benefactors; that there should be public supervision of the administration of various endowments; that some more flexible system is needed to enable the changing of the older agencies to meet newer social conditions; that as those who are able to give are troubled and perplexed by the multitude of appeals coming from all directions, it would seem as if some common service of inquiry and advice might be effected which would minimize this burden.

The speakers were evidently somewhat reluctant to say whether these ends would require public or private action or both. One got the impression that it was felt to be a bit premature to suggest methods or agencies. The first thing is to drive home the realization of the necessity for action.

The evening session was held in the Witherpoon Building and was presided over by Robert W. de Forest, vice-president of the Russell Sage Foundation.

In his opening remarks Mr. de Forest said:

"To discuss this question intelligently, there must be first eliminated from consideration any accidental circumstances which might confuse the issue, because of the personality of the giver or the purpose of the gift, and to discuss it practically in its relation to American benefactions we must discuss it under certain postulates of American organic law.

"Therefore, the question of tonight, stripped of all extrinsic elements, is this: 'Assuming no objection to the person of the giver or the object of the gift, and assuming also reservation to the state or nation of the power to alter, amend or annul the charter of any corporation which is to hold and apply the gift, should any limitation be placed on the purpose, life and amount of private benefactions?' It seems to me that the question in this form answers itself with an emphatic negative."

Mr. de Forest pointed out that present public opinion would put no limit on the purpose, life and amount of private benefactions, so long as these are safeguarded by the general right to amend and repeal charters, which right is inherent and vested in the supreme court.

"There is no country in the world where private benefactions have been so generous as in ours. There is no time in the history of our country when there have been so many and on so magnificent a scale as now. Let us give full swing to the favoring current, holding as we do, by our reserved power over all corporations we create, the opportunity to direct that current, and let us not seek to hem it in or dam it up by any obstruction which might divert the stream into other channels not beneficent, or perhaps dry up its springs at their source."

Edward T. Devine spoke at some length and elaborated the following propositions:

1. The giver and the doer are partners. It is not true that you can buy brains to do anything that you are willing to pay for, or, on the other hand, that if you have an idea, you can get money from some generous or gullible individual to carry it out, regardless of its merits. Financial support and executive efficiency are both indispensable.

2. Benefactions are needed; they are in line with sound public policy and should be encouraged.

3. The value of a benefaction does not depend entirely on its amount or on the ability with which it is administered. Its value depends also on whether the purpose to which it is to be devoted is really an important purpose. In other words, the benefactor is responsible for making a wise decision among the various things to which he might give. Public policy—to be enforced not by legislation but by educated public opinion—demands ability to seize upon the really important things and to support them.

4. A gift of money for a specific purpose does not confer upon the donor the right to decide questions in other fields than those in which he is making his contribution. For example, to furnish money to pension teachers does not involve the right and should not involve the power of deciding educational policies.

5. Endowment should not be perpetual, but should be limited roughly to the generation of the benefactor, or at least to such a period as can reasonably be forecast.

6. Exemption from taxation and other considerations justify public participation in the administration of great benefactions.

7. Income from taxation may be relied upon as a corrective of any abuses of private benefactions. That is, if benefactions are apt to be given by men of advanced years and conservative instincts and to be administered in such a way as to support traditional rather than progressive ideas, money which is raised by taxation and secured by annual appropriations may be expected to be devoted more largely to the particular things in which the people of the present and coming generation are especially interested. It may be a question whether this is or is not a sufficient corrective, and whether it really operates as I have just indicated or in the contrary direction to strengthen any tendencies in private benefactions.

8. Attention should be given to the relative advantages of federal as compared to state incorporation for foundations or institutions affecting national interests.

Edwin S. Stuart, ex-governor of Pennsylvania, discussed briefly the Stephen Girard Estate as a public benefaction administered by the city of Philadelphia until 1869, when an act of assembly was passed, placing the fund in the hands of fifteen trustees to be appointed by the Common Pleas Courts of Philadelphia County, the mayor and the president of Common Councils to be ex-officio members. He commented at some length upon the efficiency of the management of



this estate because of the careful management and the pace set by the men who organized the first board of city trusts.

As to the matter of limitations, he suggested "that we cannot look a gift horse in the mouth but more care and thought should be given by those who are going to leave a large amount to benefactions. If there is some limitation in the endowment by which this money can not be used in ten years or forty years, there ought to be some way in which it could be used for some other purpose that would be of as much value as if the donor were himself alive and might direct its use."

Robert Fulton Cutting, in speaking of the topic as an outgrowth of the great benefactions of Mr. Rockefeller, Mr. Carnegie, Mrs. Sage, Mr. Morgan and others, said:

"It seems to me that while there have been certain idiosyncrasies of giving that have greatly detracted from the potency of gifts, it is far better to go on allowing these idiosyncrasies than to disturb the confidence of the givers.

"No immediate time limitation should be placed on endowments—for one reason that has been overlooked. There are thousands of givers who feel that by creating some family institution they are projecting their own spirit of benevolence over their descendants. This leads us certainly to believe that no limitation should be placed upon benefactions of this kind. It seems to me that one of the reasons why we cannot afford just now to take any regulative action is because we owe it to the general public to set before it the grand and noble ideal of philanthropy. What we want to do is to make a larger appeal to imagination, to throw upon the screen a larger and more impressive panorama of active work that will so appeal to the imagination of the givers that they will put into the hands of organizations competent to administer them, such bequests as they wish to make.

"In Switzerland, local organizations, while autonomous, are federated into cantonal and national bodies. The Society for Promoting Public Welfare in Basel conducts or subsidizes and influences more than fifty expedients covering the whole ground of the promotion of thrift. This appeals to the patriotic as well as to the charitable sentiment. Such organizations serve to educate testators. But there is still a grander ideal. It is the dream of Democracy to make the government the greatest agency of social betterment, and as such to become the treasury for beneficence."

Julius Rosenwald of Chicago, who on his fiftieth birthday made gifts to the amount of \$687,500 took the positive ground that every age had its own needs which private benefactions should serve. He said:

"I am opposed to the permanent or what might be styled the never-ending endowment. Permanent endowment tends to lessen the amount available for immediate needs; and our imme-

diante needs are too plain and too urgent to allow us to do the work of future generations."

He favored self-distributing endowments which disburse not only the interest but also a portion of the principal annually; an endowment so ordered that it would consume the principal during fifteen to twenty years, and would yield during that period double the amount annually which it would yield if the principal were left intact and the interest therefrom only used.

"It is fair to assume that on account of the increased income more effective work would be done thereby, attracting other endowments as well as entitling the beneficiary to greater general support. If a continuation of the work appears to be advisable, it is fair to assume that a satisfactory record would be the key to treasure boxes of additional funds. Necessary and deserving philanthropic enterprises will continue to be supported in accordance with the need of their day."

J. D. Green, representing the Rockefeller Foundation, the last speaker on the program, expressed the opinion that it is to the public interest that the greatest possible variety in philanthropic giving should be encouraged. Only by such variety and the experience resulting therefrom will the wisest methods of giving to the worthiest objects be discovered. Experience has shown and will show, however, that certain limitations are desirable, however inexpedient it may be to enforce them by public authority. One lesson of such experience is likely to be that it is usually unwise to set up between the giver and the recipient institution a relation of continuing financial dependence. Nor should there be responsibility and authority for direct management. The recipient of a gift should not be asked or expected to relinquish the dispositive function in matters of policy which naturally appertains to that of trusteeship. Every permanent endowment should carry with it some provision offering to future generations protection from the baneful influences of the dead hand. There should be some way of insuring so far as it is humanly possible, that management of the trust shall always be responsible to the best wisdom of its time.

Summarizing the discussion of the evening session, three general ideas may be noted: that each generation has its own imperative needs and that giving should not be of such character as to jeopardize these immediate needs; that these needs may be best supplied by the cultivation of generous giving, and care should be exercised in any method of public direction so as not to dry up its sources; that as time passes the state should exercise its discretionary power of altering charters as future needs may require so that the real purpose of the giver may be conserved.



# THE NIGHTS BEFORE CHRISTMAS

CORDELIA WILLIAMS  
NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

**D**OLLY dear, dolly dear, where have you been?  
"I've been in a world you never have seen."  
Dolly dear, dolly dear, how came you there?  
"I was born in a tenement, up a back-stair."

Dolly, my dolly dear, what did you see?  
"I saw little children make dollies like me."  
How old were these motherkins, when did they play?  
"They don't play in that world, they work every day."

Dolly, but dolly, how long does it take?  
"They nodded, we nodded, that night half awake."  
Why didn't they feed you and take you to bed?  
"The children who made me were often unfed."

Dolly, oh dolly dear, what were they named?  
"There was Nettie with measles, and Rosalie lamed."  
These sick little children, what could they sew?  
"They stitched on my dresses, an arm, then a toe."

Dolly mine, dolly mine, who brought you here?  
"I was squeezed in a box and fainted from fear."  
Perhaps it was Santa in one of his sleighs—  
"Twas a bit of a boy who dodged past the drays."



\* \* \*

"Santa Claus, Santa Claus"—save us, he snores!  
"The children are weary at doing your chores!  
Hasten like Blitzen with all your reindeer,  
To stamp out this traffic in holiday cheer."

Lovers of Christmas, pledge you with me  
A pledge to the new year on bended knee,  
That dollies of sawdust shan't witness again  
To these stones in the hearts of the children of men.

## HOME WORK

During the past year the New York State Factory Investigating Commission has been studying the piece work sent out from certain lines of factories to be performed by tenement women and children.

Some of this work has to be carried on under special tenement house licenses; some does not. It is almost impossible to enforce factory, sanitary, or child labor laws in such home workshops and there is an aggressive movement to abolish home work altogether.

The state investigation has revealed these facts as to 204 homes:

25 per cent of the workers were under ten years old.

45 per cent were under fourteen years.

60 per cent were under sixteen years.

75 per cent of the families earned less than ten cents an hour all working together.





*Courtesy of National Child Labor Committee.*

The upper picture shows a tenement family sewing the stuffed legs on "Campbell kids." The photograph was taken last year and was printed in the New York newspapers. The manufacturer who gave them the work was angry about the matter and took it away from them. This year the same family was found working on underwear.

Carmella (aged nine), Rosie (aged eleven), both of whom testified before the New York State Factory Investigating Commission, together with little Conchetta (aged three), earn three cents a dozen by running ribbons in corset covers. Their mother earns twice that amount tacking in the ribbons and sewing on thirty-six buttons. Their father is blind.

This little Carmella told Miss Watson of the commission: "I have no time for play. When I go home from school I help my mother. Half hour I make my lessons. Every morning I get up at six o'clock. I go to bed at eleven o'clock."



*Courtesy of National Child Labor Committee.*



## BOOKS

### HUMANLY SPEAKING

By SAMUEL MCCORD CROTHERS. Houghton Mifflin Company. 216 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

A new book of essays by Mr. Crothers is one of the delightful happenings which do not come as often as we could wish. It is nearly two years since he gave us *Among Friends*. *Humanly Speaking* is in the true line of succession and will be warmly welcomed by the many who first found in *The Gentle Reader* the most charming mingling of acute observation, human kindness and wise philosophy, all overlaid and irradiated by the finest and quaintest humor which has been given to booklovers in the present century or, indeed, since the passing of the gentle Elia. A cultured Englishwoman when introduced to *The Gentle Reader* and *The Pardoner's Wallet*, said: "Mr. Crothers must be one of Charles Lamb's dream children."

In the first essay, which gives its name to the book, Mr. Crothers introduces us to a new, or forgotten, virtue and asks us to practice it. He calls it, after Sir Horace Walpole, "Serendipity," and it means a certain accidental sagacity, by which when we are seeking for one thing, or merely going on our way, we happen upon or discover something else for which we were not looking. He himself practices the virtue and gives us examples of it. "That the old order is passing is obvious enough. That a new order is arising and that it is, on the whole, beneficent is not merely a pious hope. It is more than this; it is a matter of observation to anyone with a moderate degree of serendipity."

The quotation above might be taken as the keynote of Mr. Crothers' social philosophy. We find it in the essays on *The Spoiled Children of Civilization*, on *The American Temperament* and *To a Citizen of the Old School*. Here is a passage in that vein. "This is what the 'social unrest' means in America. It is not the unrest of the weak and the unsuccessful. It is the unrest of the strong and ambitious. You cannot still it by talking about prosperity—of course, we are prosperous, after a fashion, but it is a fashion that no longer pleases us. We want something better and we propose to get it."

Again he says, "I agree with you that if we are to have any constructive work in American society, the first thing to do is to get rid of the man with a muck-rake and put in his place the man with a vision."

In the essay, *The Unaccustomed Ears of Europe*, he gives us insight into modern English conditions. "This is not the England of Sir Roger de Coverley, with its cheerful contentment with the actual and its deference for all sorts of dignitaries. It is not in its present temper a model of propriety. But in my judgment it is all the more interesting and full of hope. To say that England is in the midst of a revolution is not to say that some dreadful disaster is impending. It only means that this is a time when events move rapidly and when pre-

cedents count for little. But it is a time when common sense and courage and energy count for a great deal and there is no evidence that these qualities are lacking."

Two of the essays, that on *The Obviousness of Dickens* and the one on *Realism as an Investment*, are devoted to purely literary criticism of two different kinds of realism in fiction. The latter is a quaint comparison of reality-in-fiction with reality in business. "Your novel is a carefully prepared structure and must have cost a great deal, but it is built on ground which is not worth enough to justify the investment. It has not what we call 'site value.'"

These essays, like those in the volumes that come before, have the pleasant quality of wear-resistance. After you have read the book through a time or two and have got to know the essays well, you can pick it up in odd moments, open it on any page, and still read with interest as great as on its first perusal. You can practice "serendipity" on every page. At the tenth or twentieth reading you will notice something new, or see it in a new light.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

### THE FAMILY IN ITS SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS

By JAMES Q. DEALEY. Houghton Mifflin Company. 136 pp. Price \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.81.

### HISTORICAL SOCIOLOGY

By FRANK GRANGER. Methuen & Co., London, E. P. Dutton & Co., agents. 241 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.44.

### SOCIOLOGY IN ITS PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS

By CHARLES A. ELLWOOD. D. Appleton & Co. 417 pp. Price \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.13.

Foresight and hindsight are helpful not only to the prophet and the historian but to any profession. The social worker peculiarly needs another kind of vision which might be called "round-sight"—the power of seeing around daily work so that it appears in its perspective and larger relations to the world. Even if social work is not to be classed as a dangerous trade, as Dr. Cabot proposes more or less seriously, there is no doubt that both the health and the personality of the social worker are often in danger of being swamped in the mass of human details which are interesting, appealing, compelling, and which are likely to bind the worker within a perilously small circle of thought.

Books like those of Professor Ellwood and Professor Dealey are excellent antidotes to this tendency. Professor Dealey's study of the family in its sociological aspects should enable friendly visitors and other social workers to see, in full historical perspective, the family problems with which they are constantly dealing. The primitive family, the matronymic stage, the patriarchal stage, and the various phases of the modern family are taken up in an orderly and succinct way. One may get much out of this little book of 134 pages. Professor Dealey's discussion of present-day family problems, as influenced by American democracy and by conditions in great cities, is clearly put,



sane, and permeated by a healthy ethical sense. What he says about divorce will bear especially careful reading by social workers, and most of them are likely to agree with his conclusions, which are considerably influenced by our new, and as yet little diffused, knowledge of the shocking influence of venereal disease upon the marriage state:

"A marriage, in other words, is sanctified only when the parties to the contract are themselves fit bodily and spiritually for a holy ceremony and remain so throughout life. Nor should churches place themselves in opposition to divorce so long as they unite in what should be a holy marriage the pure and innocent with the impure and defiled. When churches refuse to marry those unfit for conjugal and parental relations, then they may with a good conscience insist on a permanent marriage tie. The state also will, as public opinion develops, assume the same attitude, and make sound physical and moral health a pre-requisite for a legal marriage."

\* \* \*

The utterances of a professorial Englishman, who is horrified by ideas to which he was not brought up, will not have a vital message for either sociologist or social worker in America. Professor Granger's *Historical Sociology* is not without its points of interest, but few readers of *THE SURVEY* are likely to give time to it.

\* \* \*

Professor Ellwood's book is probably the best elementary treatise on sociology for the social worker. It is more definitely in line with his professional needs than is Professor Giddings' "Elements," is less sketchy than Ross' works, though not so readable, and is much more up-to-date than the widely-distributed text book of Small and Vincent. There is meat in the volume, although the 400 odd pages could have been cut 20 per cent by judicious eliminations. Those who have been trained in the old psychology, with its sharply cut categories of sensation, perception, reasoning, etc., will find Professor Ellwood to present a new world in the modern psychology of James and Thorndike, which enables us to understand human minds as products of biological evolution. Of particular value will be the chapter on instinct and its rôle in social life. Most social workers are prone to think of people as under the control of reason, and to fail to interpret actions—even of their professional "cases"—in terms of feelings and of native impulses which run down to roots deep in the past history of the race.

Those who take up Professor Ellwood to find definite prescriptions for social reform deserve to be disappointed. The sociologist draws architect's plans—it is the social workers who are builders. Sociologists, materialists, idealists, and eugenists will all be irritated at Professor Ellwood because he puts their favorite "ism" into a niche in the wall, refusing to let it stand in the center of the edifice. If this is a defect, it is also a great merit in books of this kind—they fail to lead us to definite conclusions, but

they stimulate us to draw our own. The thoughtful social worker who is daily wrestling with human beings ought to find in psychological sociology, as Ellwood presents it, a theory of human nature which will lend interest and intellectual dignity to his practical service.

MICHAEL M. DAVIS, JR.

#### WOMEN IN THE BOOKBINDING TRADE

By MARY VAN KLEECK, secretary Committee on Women's Work, Russell Sage Foundation. *Survey Associates, Inc.* 300 pp. By mail of *THE SURVEY*, \$1.50 postpaid.

In this volume Miss Van Kleeck records the results of an intensive study of the employment of women in the bookbinding trade beginning in 1908. It is a careful and interesting statement of current conditions based upon visits to establishments and to the homes of workers. It sheds much light upon the chaotic conditions in the trade, the absence of standards of wages, hours and sanitary conditions. It reveals the defenseless position of the workers, so far as New York state is concerned, in the absence of a workmen's compensation law, a statutory closing hour at night, and a minimum wage law. There are enlightening instances of the results, in human suffering, of this absence of needed legislative safeguards.

Miss Van Kleeck gives an account of the bindery women's union in New York, the largest local union of women in this trade in the country, and shows the intelligent, persistent effort made by the unions, local and national, to afford to their members through trade organization that protection which the state of New York cruelly fails to give them.

The chapter on Teaching Girls the Trade is profitable reading particularly for persons actively interested in vocational guidance.

The foundation of the work is somewhat slight. The establishments visited and the girls interviewed were too few for much generalization to rest upon them. Statements as to wages appear not to rest on pay rolls, and the author is accordingly wisely cautious in her statements.

The bookbinding trade in New York is of national and international significance. This is not by reason of its invested capital or the number of its employes, but because in it arose the Williams case, in the course whereof the New York Court of Appeals promulgated a decision that placed the greatest manufacturing state in the Union outside the group of civilized peoples, when measured by our care of the health of women employed in manufacture. In the Williams case it was held that a statute establishing a closing hour at night for the work of adult women is unconstitutional.

This occurred in 1907, and in 1906 fourteen enlightened nations of Europe had already agreed through their ambassadors sent for the purpose to Berne, Switzerland, to establish by law a period of rest at night for women in manufacture of not less than eleven hours, within which should fall the time from 10 p. m. to 5 a. m. The nations acted in accordance with this agreement, and by 1910 this was the law throughout Europe. In New York state no pro-



gress in this direction can be made until the decision in the Williams case is reversed and, for this purpose, a closing hour must be established by the legislature and a case arising under it brought before the Court of Appeals.

So paralyzing has been the nation-wide influence of the Williams decision treated as a precedent that, since it was promulgated, no state has adopted a closing hour, although many states have meanwhile established a statutory limit of eight, nine or ten working hours in twenty-four. These laws are, for lack of a closing hour, virtually impossible of enforcement by prosecution.

This significance of the bookbinding trade in New York city, as the occasion of our national position at the rear of the procession of the nations, is not made clear, although the Williams decision is dealt with in Chapter VII and the international agreement of the European nations is briefly mentioned in passing. The book itself loses in weight in consequence. It needlessly appears to be merely a local study of a somewhat localized industry.

These reservations being made, it remains an initial contribution in a field in which such study is urgently needed, and will afford good ammunition for the advocates of protective legislation.

FLORENCE KELLEY.

**THE KALLIKAK FAMILY: A STUDY IN THE HEREDITY OF FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS**

By HENRY HERBERT GODDARD, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company. 121 pp. \$1.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.60.

The author of this scientific study in the heredity of feeble-mindedness is the director of the research laboratory of the Training School at Vineland (N. J.) for Feeble-minded Girls and Boys. The Kallikak Family is a genuine story of real people, the names alone being fictitious. The results presented in the book came after two years of constant work, investigating the conditions of this family.

The Kallikak family presents a natural experiment in heredity. A young man of good family living in the days of the American Revolution became, through two different women, the ancestor of two lines of descendants. The one woman, to whom he was not married, was feeble-minded; the other woman, who was his wife, was normal. The line of descendants by his lawful wife was "characterized by thoroughly good, respectable, normal citizenship, with almost no exceptions"; the other line was "equally characterized by mental defect in every generation." This defect was transmitted through the father in the first generation. In later generations more defect was brought in from other families through marriage. In the last generation it was transmitted through the mother, so that we have here all combinations of transmission, which again proves the truly hereditary character of the defect. The investigation shows on the good side of the family "prominent people in all walks of life and nearly all of the 496 descendants owners of land or proprietors. On the bad side we find paupers, criminals, prostitutes, drunkards, and examples of all forms of social pest with which modern society is burdened."

The investigation shows every earmark of the

thorough scientist. The conservatism of the author's deductions is commendable. For example, Dr. Goddard believes that the Mendelian Law applies in cases of feeble-mindedness, but admits that "we do not know that feeble-mindedness is a 'unit character,'" and promises to take up this matter in a larger and later work now in preparation. In the same careful manner, speaking of the practice of sterilizing the unfit, he says: "Probably the most serious difficulty to be overcome before the practice of sterilization in any form could come into general use would be the determining of what persons were proper subjects to be operated upon. This difficulty arises from the fact that we are still ignorant of the exact laws of inheritance. Just how mental characteristics are transmitted from parent to child is not yet definitely known." This should not be taken to mean that the conclusions of the author are negative. They are conservative, but they are positive, and, above all, of tremendous social significance. His study points to not only the hereditary nature of feeble-mindedness, which is "transmitted as surely as any other character," but to the probability of a surprisingly large percentage of feeble-mindedness existing unnoticed in every community, especially of the Moron type, the highest grade of the feeble-minded. (For obvious reasons this type is the greatest source of danger to society.) The most important result of the study to the social worker is the light that it throws on the close causal relation between feeble-mindedness and much of our present poverty, criminality, prostitution and drunkenness. In the words of the author, "feeble-mindedness is largely responsible for these social sores."

"In considering the question of care," it is the opinion of the author that "segregation through colonization seems in the present state of our knowledge to be the ideal and perfectly satisfactory method. Sterilization may be accepted as a makeshift, as a help to solve this problem, because the conditions have become so intolerable. But this must at present be regarded only as a makeshift and temporary, for before it can be extensively practiced, a great deal must be learned about the effects of the operation and about the laws of human inheritance."

FRANK D. WATSON.

**RACE IMPROVEMENT OR EUGENICS**

By LA REINE HELEN BAKER. Dodd, Mead & Company. 137 pp. \$1.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.06.

The author of this little book does not leave her reader in any doubt as to the relative value she attaches to heredity and eugenics as opposed to environment and eugenics. "I am a eugenicist because I believe that the nature we have received from heredity sources transcends in effectiveness all the nature which follows birth. . . . We have made a god of environment."

One could wish that in the short sketchy chapters that comprise the book, bearing such comprehensive titles as *Heredity and Environment*, *The Child and Its Heritage*, *Marriage*, etc., enough data were adduced to show that her belief has a basis in science. The greatest fault of the book lies in its dogmatism. The reviewer



appreciates the fact that a short study cannot go into the details of so large a subject, but why a "little book on a great subject"? The book in question not only suffers from lack of comprehensiveness, but seems half baked. We find it difficult to understand the point of view of one who writes:

"We accept the doctrine on which eugenics is based because all the facts confirm it, but we continue to spend our time and money on methods of reform which have lost their root and now only cumber the ground"; and a few pages later states, "it is impossible for any view of eugenics in relation to education to ignore the terrible danger of child labor." The abolition of child labor is part of social reform through legislation looking to "a changed environment" so much belittled by the author. One suspects that much of the muddling of the author's reasoning results from looseness in defining heredity and from a lack of a full realization of the social significance of the newer biology. This seems to be borne out in the fact that the author mentions Lamarck and Weismann in one breath as having "piled instance upon instance to illustrate the fact that 'the sins of the father are visited upon the children unto the third and fourth generations.'" If Weismann's name stands for anything in the history of biologic theory, it is as contrasted with Lamarck, in holding that "acquired characteristics" are not inherited. We regret further occasional evidences of "spread-eagleism," especially in view of the great indebtedness of America to Europe in the realm of biology. Thus, "American eugenisists will never rest until our race becomes the fittest on earth. Other nations shall teach us if they can, we will better their instruction."

FRANK D. WATSON.

#### STUDIES IN THE PSYCHOLOGY OF INTEMPERANCE

By G. E. PARTRIDGE, Ph.D. Sturgis & Walton Company. 275 pages. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.

The theme of the book is expressed in the preface when the author says that the main effort for a universal temperance movement must be educational and constructive, rather than legal and negative.

The book is divided into two parts. Part first deals with "the intoxication impulse," and gives in an interesting and sequential way the history of intemperance. The modern view of the physiological and morbid action of alcohol is concisely given, but necessarily in an abbreviated form. A strong plea is made for the systematic use of the "scientific attitude" for the study of intemperance and intoxication. The two concluding chapters of part first are devoted to the psychological theories of the impulse.

Attention is called particularly to the author's negation of the belief that there can be any specific to destroy the craving for alcohol. The writer is in accord with many co-workers when he says that the craving for alcohol is an organized habit with physical elements. He believes that the habit is social in expression, is continued only under the influence of social suggestion, and he questions whether the so-called craving

for alcohol as a physical need really exists. The author's acquiescence with the present view of the transmission of the craving from parent to offspring is psychologically interesting although not conclusive.

Particular mention should be made of the fact that the author does not underestimate the nervous or psychical weakness on which the habit is engrafted.

The second part of the book, comprising forty-seven pages, is given over to the consideration of "the practical problem." In this limited space the author discusses the saloon and the club, and the methods of approaching a solution to the problem of drunkenness. The two concluding chapters on educational measures and the care of the inebriate contain considerable food for thought. The author recognizes the futility of punitive measures, which is clearly shown in the concluding paragraph: "What for example could be more completely wrong than to try to cure the drunkard by punishment and isolation, whose greatest need is a normal social life? It is not to be wondered at that our officials who administer justice almost invariably believe the drunkard incurable."

The book is a popular scientific treatise on an important but imperfectly understood subject. The criticisms that may be made are that insufficient attention is given to the alleged biologic causes for intemperance, and that the author is somewhat dogmatic. The careful reader, however, soon detects that these apparent defects are not really faults, as the book reflects the author's opinions and follows quite closely the modern conception of drunkenness. The writer is cognizant of the need for more concerted investigation of the problems of intemperance and emphasizes the urgency for more specialized study from the different view points of the subject.

IRWIN H. NEFF, M. D.

#### AMERICAN CITY GOVERNMENT: A SURVEY OF NEWER TENDENCIES

By CHARLES A. BEARD, Associate Professor of Politics, Columbia University. The Century Company. 420 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

This volume, as the subtitle indicates, is not a systematic treatise on municipal government, but a survey of recent leading tendencies. The writer lays especial stress on the social and economic functions of city government, rather than on political and administrative matters, to which less than one-third of the space is devoted. The book is a companion to *American Government and Politics* by the same author. The first chapter, *The People of the City*, contains a summary of the survey of the Polish working people at Buffalo, which is selected as a limited American substitute for the exhaustive survey of the wages of the proletariat in London by Charles Booth. Other developments of social significance arising from the remarkable urban growth of this country which are treated in the first chapter are the decrease in home ownership, the employment of women, congestion, and the growth of crime, particularly juvenile crime.



Among the subjects to which entire chapters are devoted and in which social workers are especially interested, are: Guarding the Health of the People, Tenement House Reform, Education and Industrial Training, Municipal Recreation and City Planning. The book is not addressed to professed experts in city affairs, but presents its material in an attractive and interesting way for students and citizens who wish a general survey.

J. P. H.

#### BOOKS RECEIVED IN DECEMBER

- MODERN CHURCH BROTHERHOODS. By William B. Patterson. Fleming H. Revell Co. 256 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.
- THE PRACTICAL CARE OF THE BABY AND YOUNG CHILD. By Theron Wendell Kilmer, M.D. F. A. Davis Co. 156 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.
- STUDIES IN THE PSYCHOLOGY OF INTemperance. By G. E. Partridge, Ph.D. Sturgis and Walton Co. 275 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.
- THE NEGRO AT WORK IN NEW YORK CITY. By George Edmund Haynes, Ph.D. Columbia University, Longmans, Green & Co., Agts. 158 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.32.
- DEMOCRACY AND THE CHURCH. By Samuel George Smith. D. Appleton and Co. 356 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.
- THE OPEN SECRET. By James Thompson Bixby. American Unitarian Association. 242 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.
- THE GOSPEL OF LABOR. By Charles Stelzle. Fleming H. Revell Co. 96 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.55.
- HUMANLY SPEAKING. By Samuel McChord Crothers. Houghton Mifflin Co. 216 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.
- AMERICAN SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS CONDITIONS. By Charles Stelzle. Fleming H. Revell. 240 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.
- AMERICAN CITY GOVERNMENT. By Charles A. Beard. The Century Co. 420 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.
- PENAL PHILOSOPHY. By Gabriel Tarde. Little, Brown & Co. 581 pp. Price \$5.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$5.21.
- CHRISTIANIZING THE SOCIAL ORDER. By Walter Rauschenbusch. The Macmillan Co. 493 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.63.
- THE EVOLUTION OF THE COUNTRY COMMUNITY. By Warren H. Wilson. The Pilgrim Press. 221 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.
- A LABORATORY HAND-BOOK OF DIETETICS. By Mary Swartz Rose, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co. 127 pp. Price \$1.10; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.18.
- CATCH-MY-PAL. By Rev. R. J. Patterson, LL.B. Geo. H. Doran Co. 192 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.
- THE JOURNAL OF A COUNTRY WOMAN. By Emma Winner Rogers. Eaton and Mains 116 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.
- THE STORY OF A GOOD WOMAN. By David Starr Jordan. American Unitarian Association. 57 pp. Price \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.81.
- THE DISTRIBUTION OF INCOMES IN THE UNITED STATES. By Frank Hatch Streightoff, M.A. Columbia University. Longmans, Green & Co., Agts. 171 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.57.
- THE NEW INDUSTRIAL DAY. By William C. Redfield. The Century Co. 213 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.
- THE ELEMENTS OF CHILD PROTECTION. By Sigmund Engel. The Macmillan Co. 276 pp. Price \$3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.63.
- THE WOMAN MOVEMENT. By Ellen Key. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 224 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.
- THEORY AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING ART. By Arthur Wesley Dow. Teachers College, Columbia University. 73 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.57.
- MODERN PHILANTHROPY. By William H. Allen. Dodd, Mead & Co. 437 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.64.
- THAT BOY OF YOURS. By J. S. Kirtley. Geo. H. Doran Co. 256 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

- THE RELATIONS OF EDUCATION TO CITIZENSHIP. By Simeon E. Baldwin. Yale University Press. 177 pp. Price \$1.15; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.23.
- THE RULE OF FAITH. By Rev. W. B. Patterson, D.D. Geo. H. Doran Co. 430 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.67.
- THE WOMAN OF TACT. By Rev. W. Mackintosh Mackay. Geo. H. Doran Co. 28 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.
- THE HISTORIC JESUS. By Rev. Prof. David Smith, M.A. Geo. H. Doran Co. 128 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.12.
- THE KINGDOM OF GOD AND AMERICAN LIFE. By Chauncey B. Brewster. Thomas Whitaker, Inc. 143 pp. Price \$.80; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.87.
- THE RECONSTRUCTION OF ECONOMIC THEORY. By Simon N. Patten, Ph.D. Reprint from Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. 99 pp.
- COURTS, CRIMINALS AND THE CAMORRA. By Arthur Train. Charles Scribner's Sons. 253 pp. Price \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.87.
- ADMISSION TO AMERICAN TRADE UNIONS. By F. G. Wolfe, Ph.D. The Johns Hopkins Press. 181 pp. Price \$1.25 (cloth), \$1.00 (paper); by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33 and \$1.08.
- IMMIGRATION AND LABOR. By Isaac A. Hourwich, Ph.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 544 pp. Price \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.78.

#### THE TREND OF THINGS

WHAT It's All About is a series by Mark Sullivan in *Collier's* dealing with that "something in the atmosphere, largely spiritual and frankly emotional," which expressed itself in tangible form in the 5,000 word platform of the Progressive Party. Mr. Sullivan attempts to point out by concrete examples some of the causes of this new spirit of industrial justice. At present he is hammering away at the Ives decision which he believes to have been chiefly responsible for the workmen's compensation plank in the new party's platform. Incidentally, he retells this story which had currency in the press dispatches last summer:

When the Titanic went down one of those drowned was Robert L. Barker, a Middlesex young man who had spent fourteen years in the White Star Company's service. In due course Barker's widowed mother applied to his employers for her compensation, £250 (\$1,250), under the British Workmen's Compensation Act. The employers replied that she was not entitled to any compensation because her son had been receiving over £250 (\$1,250) a year. (The British law doesn't give compensation to the family of an employee who earns over \$1,250 a year—presumably on the theory that out of such salary the deceased ought to have saved up an independent estate. But let's not sneer at the British law; we shall see soon that it is better than our own law by exactly as much as something is better than nothing.)

Barker's mother wrote back in some indignation. Her son had not got \$1,250 a year; his pay was \$75 a month while on sea and half pay while in port, amounting to between \$800 and \$850 a year. "But," said the company—however, let us not paraphrase or condense their letter. We



might do them injustice. Let us quote their exact words:

"... The purser is privileged to take his meals in the first-class saloon, a fair cost for which we have estimated at 5 shillings (\$1.25) a day. . . ."

And by this adroit calculation the company figured that Barker's pay was just above the legal limit.

Pause now, reader, and look once more at the picture which was put on this page to call your attention more forcibly than plain type could. Doubtless, when your eye first struck it, you thought it was a somewhat sensational journalistic exaggeration. Very well, read this extract from the further correspondence between the lawyers for a widowed mother and the managers of the White Star Line—Messrs. Ismay, Imrie & Co. (Oh, yes, you have guessed right; it was the same Ismay who filled most of the newspapers after the Titanic went down last April. But read):

"... If Mrs. Barker's case is in any sense a necessitous one, we feel sure it would receive sympathetic consideration on the part of any one of the committees which have been organized for the distribution of the very large relief funds that have been raised throughout the country."

Get out and hustle for alms; we don't owe you anything. But save a little of your indignation for a moment. Ismay, Imrie & Co. are capable of depths a little more incredible yet. They wrote that Barker "had at the time of death £500 (\$2,500) on loan from the company." The company took unctuous credit to itself for having "no intention to claim for this on his estate." But yet, of course, if the widow continued to be obstreperous, they might. This £500 was merely a fund intrusted to each purser for the convenience of changing money on board, and, of course, with its custodian, went down with the ship.

\* \* \*

**H. J. SMITH'S** "Letter from the Middle West" has become an interesting feature of the *Metropolitan Magazine*. The Middle West town is Chicago this month, where the "Good Reporter" tells how he featured a pure milk campaign and how the question of credit, as between newspaper and citizens' committees came to an issue when the campaign won:

In two weeks the committee—my committee—had "swung" twenty-seven votes. They had given Chicago inspected milk, with the alternative of pasteurization, and stalled the procession of white hearses.

As I was beating it to catch the first edition a pompous member of the committee reached for my hand.

"I should like to be permitted to thank you," he said, "for what I must call valuable assistance."

"Much obliged," I grunted.

"May I ask," he went on, "to whom you

intend to ascribe the credit for this victory, —to the committee, or to the—er—the journal you represent?"

"Oh, I guess I'll take all the credit myself," I drawled, and left him staring.

I wrote the head for my story that night. It was "Babies win victory; pure milk bill passed."

Did you get that? "Babies win victory?" Very well.

\* \* \*

**T**HE New York State Charities Aid Association, started in November, the *S. C. A. A. News*, a bulletin designed primarily to keep its 10,000 co-operating membership abreast of its activities. Its problem of inter-communication and its method of solution will be of interest to similar organizations:

The problem constantly confronting us, is how best to aid these widely-scattered committee members, to keep them informed of what is going on in other parts of the state, to keep alive that sense of co-operation and joint effort which is the essence of effective committee work.

Heretofore we have depended chiefly upon two agencies—the circular letter and the personal representative. Each has been valuable, but both together have become insufficient. With so large a membership it is impossible to communicate frequently and personally, with each member. The number of occasions on which we can send a personal representative to attend a committee meeting is still more sharply limited.

We are therefore proposing to send each month to each member of the association, something which we trust will measurably take the place of a personal letter and a personal visit. The *S. C. A. A. News* will bring you each month messages as to what is going on throughout the state in the lines in which we are all deeply interested.

It will not publish treatises or extended reports, but will be, first of all, a news bulletin. It will aim to tell you in the briefest possible manner, and with the greatest economy of your time, those things which seem likely to be helpful in your work as a committeeman.

Many of our members have identified themselves with us because of some special interest—tuberculosis, children, mental hygiene, almshouse improvement, etc.

Each member will find in each number of the *S. C. A. A. News* the latest happenings in his field.

We are sure, however, that no member of the State Charities Aid Association limits his interest in good work to any one line; even if his activities are chiefly in one direction, he wishes to know of the good work going on in other lines. We believe that whatever your particular interest may be, you can not afford to miss looking through all portions of each issue of the *S. C. A. A. News*.







whisky advertisements (and a few years earlier patent medicines and palmists).

In 1902 nine-tenths of the editors and public men in the country were riding on railroad passes and assuming the obligation implied.

So let's be charitable. It's an age of quickly changing standards. What was merely a cry in the wilderness in 1902 is the criminal statute of 1912. Who knows but for what we do today in the bosoms of approving families we may yet be crucified by some austere young moralist of 1922?

\* \* \*

**P**ROGRESS, the organ of the Progressive Party, which published its first issue the month before the election, announces itself as a periodical permanently devoted to political, social and economic betterment. George Howe at 525 Fifth avenue, New York, is editor.

The Progressive cause, which is only in its infancy now, needs journals which will fearlessly voice its hopes and ambitions. It needs newspapers and magazines which will truthfully record all news of progress, and in which Progressive doctrines may be discussed. *Progress* has the distinction of being the first monthly magazine to devote itself unreservedly and entirely to the Progressive cause. It will fight along these lines with its whole heart and soul; it will lend its columns to every Progressive thinker who desires to have his voice heard, and it sincerely hopes that its efforts will meet with the approval, the co-operation, and support of all loyal Progressives.

Here's to the Cause, and the  
years that have passed,  
Here's to the Cause, it will  
triumph at last.  
The end will illumine the  
hearts that have braved  
all the years and the fears  
that the Cause might be saved.  
And though what we hoped for,  
and fondly have groped for,  
Come not in the manner we  
prayed that it should,  
We will gladly confess it  
And the Cause may God  
bless it.  
Shall find us all worthy  
who did what we could

Governor Johnson's verses, adapted from Gelett Burgess, and written the Sunday night before election, show that the Progressive movement, which injected hymning into politics is not without its "poets of high rank." They are reproduced here as they appear on the cover of the *California Outlook*.

**S**IMEON STRUNSKY in the *Atlantic* records in humorous vein a discussion on eugenics between two friends—one, a eugenicist dyed in the wool, thinks it all a problem of heredity; the other, of environment.

The upshot is a quarrel, there being no common ground, but the reformer has the last say. He gracefully admits, as his friend suggests, that perhaps he is an ass and unfitted to discuss so scientific a subject, but says he

"likes to believe that we are born into the world with no irremediable doom upon us. It seems a much more manly thing to wipe out slums, and suppress child labor, and pension widowed mothers, than to blame it all upon one's grandfather."

\* \* \*

**T**HE *Filipino People*, a monthly of which three issues have appeared, is, according to its editorial announcement,

devoted solely to the interests of the Filipino people, whose name it bears; and to the fair and truthful exposition of the relations between the Philippines and the United States, with a view to hastening the ultimate establishment of Philippine independence upon a self-governing republican basis, by the aid and with the recognition of the United States.

The editor is Manuel L. Quezon, resident commissioner from the Philippine Islands, 1342 13th Street, Washington, D. C.

\* \* \*

**T**HE most distinctive instalment of Honore Willsie's series on American Immigration running in *Collier's* is that which throws light on the common labor problem from the various angles of efficiency and quick profits under present conditions. Bad work often pays best, he claims, and for this reason slipshod unskilled labor can often be used to the best advantage. Mr. Willsie, in the person of one "Ames," interviews an assorted collection of workmen and employers. Soon after talking with a responsible American workman in the Building Trades he falls in with a foreman who complains of his foreign laborers:

"I'd like to get hold of a good bunch of American laborers. Still, I don't know. They know too much."

"How's that?" asked Ames.

"Well, you see, you've got to bid so close these days for a job that you can't afford to put but just so much in it, work or material, either one. So I often think it's just about as well to have ignorant workmen. You take an American, he'll take some pride in his job. All these fellows think about is the quitting whistle and their pay envelope."

"I wonder," said Ames, "if competition wasn't so close, if the bosses would put better work and material into their job."

"Nix," answered the boss. "While there's all this cheap labor coming over, and nobody caring how bum the work is as long as they



don't get killed themselves, nobody's going to do any better work than they have to."

"What are you?" asked Ames. "An American?"

"Sure," said the boss. "My father and mother was both Irish. I was born in New York."

"What do you think is the American standard of efficiency?" asked Ames, seriously.

"Say that again, slow," said the boss, blinking.

"What," repeated Ames, "amount of honest hard work and effort do you think a man ought to put into his job?"

The boss scratched his head. "You mean like in the old days when if a man built a house or made a shoe he made it on honor?"

"Exactly," answered Ames.

"They ain't no such thing any more," answered the boss. "Look here. They's fifty men waiting for my job. I ain't going to do anything but what the contractor tells me to. Those old days are gone. Folks won't pay for work that's done on honor. I won't and you won't."

\* \* \*

AMES next interviewed a factory manager he knows. He found this friend with a piece of paper in his hand, looking puzzled.

"What's the matter, Jim?" asked Ames.

"Well," said Jim, "I'm always howling for competent workmen, but—I don't know—most of my men are south Europeans, and I've fussed a good deal because the general run of 'em take no pride in their work, not like an American or a German does, you know. But I hired an American a few weeks ago. First thing he does is to report to me on a paper like this when any of the covers he finishes are defective."

"Good!" said Ames.

"Theoretically, yes," answered Jim. "But actually, we can't afford to make good on our defective covers and put them out at the price we do. He's a good workman. I'd like to keep him, but—"

"See here," asked Ames, "if you were in a trust and had no competitors, would you make good your defective covers?"

"Well," said Jim slowly, "I don't see that that would make any difference. There certainly would be no reason at all then, except the public demand, for perfect covers. And it's always easy to fool the public. I tell you when a manufacturer has on one side an unlimited supply of ignorant labor and on the other a public that hasn't any high standard of quality, you can't expect too much of the finished product."

"What's your idea of a standard of efficiency?" asked Ames.

Jim, whose hair was beginning to turn gray, looked for a long moment out of the factory window into the dirty street.

"Jack," he said, "I haven't got one. And I'll tell you why I haven't. I never was



taught one when I was a kid. That's the time to teach your public—when they are kids. All I can remember was being told to make a success of myself. And in America, making a success means making money. We roast these Slavs and Dagos for coming over here just to make money. How are we Americans any better. Well, I'm going down and have it out with Bill. He's the American with a standard of efficiency! I'll bet his dad licked it into him. Competition ought to give it to a man, but in business nowadays it don't. I don't know why not, though."

Light on the subject comes next from a group of Italians working on a building. He walks along with one of the workmen who carries a carpenter's kit.

"Did you learn your trade in Italy?" asked Ames.

"No, I getta it here," said the Italian. "I joina da union. I getta good mon."

"How long did it take to learn?" asked Ames.

"Oh, I getta odd job, maybe six mont'. Then I pay twenty dollar; joina da union."

"You like the work?" asked Ames. "Hard to make boards straight, make good stair-cases, good porches?"

The Italian laughed richly. He had the face and throat of the singer. "Oh, good enough! Who care? 'Merican, all they want is good show. Sticka da putty and paint in da crack, sticka da pine board where da oak oughta be. Nobody know different in 'Merica. Nobody care!"



## THE GIST OF THREE CONFERENCES

### SOME LIVE ISSUES IN NEW YORK

Just as the race has strains of scholars, of military men, of lazy sots, so too it has strains of paupers, of sex offenders, of feeble-mindedness and of epilepsy, said Charles B. Davenport, director of the Carnegie Laboratory at Cold Spring Harbor, speaking before the recent New York State Conference of Charities and Correction. There are strains with strong tendencies toward larceny, assault and lying, he added, and strains with a lack of resistance to tuberculosis, cancer and excessive nervous activity. These assertions were made on evidence gained from an intensive study of numerous families at various state institutions and by field workers of the Eugenic Record office. The inference drawn by Dr. Davenport was that the element of hereditary cause in social problems is a large one and must be reckoned with by those who seek to ameliorate conditions. He urged two general methods for the prevention of procreation of defective or weak strains: education and moral suasion for those who can be affected that way, and state or county interference for those who cannot.

Stephen B. Smith, president of the conference, declared in his opening address, that the institutions for the care of the various classes of state dependents, especially the insane, have come down to the dead level of custodial homes—the very atmosphere of which paralyzes the sense of responsibility for the cure of the inmate. This, he said, was due to two features of their management; first, the rate of discharge of the inmates is small compared to the rate of admission, and second, the inmates contribute to the support of the institution but a negligible fraction of their cost. Mr. Smith referred to two organizations which, in his judgment, will probably revolutionize the treatment of the criminal and mentally defective classes of the state.

The first is the proposed clearing house for mental defectives in the Department of Public Charities of New York. This clearing house will include all organizations having supervision of children in order to separate defectives and place them under proper care and treatment. The second scheme is that being worked out by the laboratory for social hygiene at Bedford Reformatory. This has already been described in *THE SURVEY*.<sup>1</sup>

In giving the report of the committee on children, Henry Bruère argued that the services of the institution should be so planned as to lead to its own elimination. The institution, he said, must abandon any fatalistic attitude it may have toward poverty and undertake aggressively measures for its diminution and prevention.

Frances A. Kellor, for the Committee on Immigration, recommended the extension of the state protective policy, including:

1. A division of education, which shall urge the establishment of night schools for teaching English and civics in all communities where

fifty or more persons petition for such instruction, and trade schools adapted to immigrants; establishment by law of modern sanitary requirements in all labor camps; the approval of all housing accommodations before their occupancy by laborers; the regulation of foreign law offices and collection agencies; prevention of desertion of families in foreign countries and re-marriage of the husbands and establishment of new families by the husbands in this country; establishment of free labor agencies and extension of the employment agency law to all labor agents within the state, and

2. The co-ordination and consolidation of all immigrant activities under a commission of immigration, such as was recommended by Ex-Governor Hughes' Commission on Immigration.

Robert W. Hebbard, secretary of the State Board of Charities in speaking on the development of state institutions, said that it was estimated that there are 200,000 persons in the state more or less defective. Of these about 20,000 are idiots or in the imbecile class, some 6,000 of whom being dependents in state and other institutions. There are probably 3,000 mentally defective men and 1,000 mentally defective women in the prisons and jails, he thought. For the care of such of this class as become dependent or prove delinquent, Mr. Hebbard advised a large increase in the facilities of the state institutions. He also urged the importance of preventing the feeble-minded, or those of defective germ plasm ancestry, from becoming settled in this state either through immigration or interstate migration. Furthermore, he recommended that poor law officers, and other public officials dealing with the dependent and delinquent classes, be trained to detect those having mental defects, and be instructed in the best methods of dealing with the feeble-minded classes.

The report of the Committee on the Care and Relief of the Poor in their Homes made by the chairman, Charles F. McKenna, urged that the conference favor the relieving of widows with children directly in their homes. He argued that there is a distinction between general distribution of public relief monies to the poor and the relieving of widows.

Mrs. John M. Glenn, of New York, argued that in the adequate treatment and adequate relief of dependent families, it is necessary to do four things: to face facts, to prepare for redress, to meet the cost and to unite effort. The definite result to be obtained is to help the individual really to live his life and not to depress the individual efforts of other members of his community. A spirited discussion followed led by Anna B. Fox of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society. Mr. Hebbard sharply challenged Mrs. Fox's statement that the Buffalo Society is caring adequately for its widows.

John A. Kingsbury, general agent of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, showed that the rate of income is not

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY* for December 7, 1912 and May 18, 1912.



keeping pace with the necessary rate of outgo, and that this is placing increased burdens on institutions and relief giving societies. Frederic Almy said that the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, of which he is secretary, recently found it necessary, after careful investigation, to increase its budget for food 10 per cent.

Needed changes in the state penal and reformatory system were summed up as follows by Frank E. Wade.

These included giving the State Commission of Prisons power to close all insanitary and indecent places of detention; both city and state hospitals and farms for inebriates; one custodial institution for mentally defective male criminals and another for females; assumption by the state of control of the penitentiaries; the building by cities of the first and second class of reformatories providing industrial education for wayward women, and by the state for women committed from other places; the practical reconstruction of Sing Sing, the cell blocks of which were built in 1837, or the erection of a new prison elsewhere; the development of prison schools, and supplementing them with correspondence and reading courses in the cells; and the payment to prisoners of increased wages for their labor.

#### JAILS AND DEFECTIVES IN KANSAS

"Some other states may have a worse jail system than Kansas, but I have been unable with travel and research to find any," began Warden J. K. Coddling, of the Kansas state prison, before the recent joint meeting of the State Conference of Charities and Correction, the Association of Probate Judges and the State Society of Criminal Law and Criminology. He added that so many of the prisoners had ascribed their first knowledge of crime to their association in jails with older and hardened criminals that he felt impelled to learn something about the jails of Kansas.

Six thousand two hundred and eighteen inmates he said, were reported from 99 county jails, 5,761 males and 457 females. Of this number 460 were insane, 1,113 convicted of liquor law violations, 979 misdemeanors, leaving a balance of 2,131 not guilty or cases settled without trial. The sentences served were equivalent to at least 343½ years for one person. A man who has had considerable experience in and around jails in commenting on this "time in jail" said, "That means 343½ years devoted to smoking cigarettes and playing poker with matches for stakes during the day and killing bed bugs at night." Warden Coddling added:

"It is costing the state of Kansas eighteen cents per day to feed its prisoners in the state penitentiary, but six cents of this is raised on the prison farm, so that the actual cost, to the taxpayer is twelve cents.

"Compare this with fifty-five cents per day, which it costs to feed a jail prisoner. Consider that 12,000 (counting an equal number for the 500 city jails) prisoners passed through the county and city jails last year, that at least 4,000 of them served sentences averaging forty days each.

And consider further that this entire body of jail prisoners was in utter idleness while the prisoners (about 900) in the Kansas Penitentiary, costing only twelve cents per man per day to feed, are credited with having turned into the state treasury in coal and brick and money \$240,000 and you then get a little idea of the enormous loss we suffer from our inadequate jail systems. When we realize that this cost in money is but a very little in comparison to the cost in morals and manhood and citizenship—because these same jails, maintained upon a wasteful and extravagant plan are crime breeders, are making criminals, the destroyers of young boyhood and manhood—we commence to have an idea of what we are doing by maintaining the worst jail system in the world."

Superintendent Charles of the Boys' Industrial School of Topeka, declared that by applying the Binet tests in his institution he discovered that "of the entire number examined 16 per cent were normal, in 66 per cent the mental age was two or more years below the physical, in 20 per cent the mental age was five or more years below the physical: while in 7.3 per cent it was eight years below the physical age." Some of his conclusions were that in the case of his boys, (1) the physical development and control is below the normal boy, due probably to early malnutrition and poor hygiene, (2) instincts are strong and uncontrolled, (3) there is general retardation of mental life of from one to eight years, (4) there are many special mental abnormalities, such as lack of perceptive powers, defective memory and imagination, special or no interest in certain activities, scattered attention, dissipated energies due possibly to poor parent stock, bad social and family conditions and other evil influences in early life. (5) many boys are characterized by abnormal emotional experiences, lack of social impulses, uncontrolled religious or emotional outbursts.

It was pointed out that probably the present population of the school is of a lower physical and mental type than it was before the juvenile courts sifted out those reformable without sentences to the school.

#### SOME REFORMS NEEDED IN FLORIDA

As an outgrowth of the second Florida Conference of Charities and Correction, a bill will be pressed upon the next legislature asking for an appropriation for a school for both feeble-minded adults and children. Alexander Johnson, general secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, who stirred the Florida gathering to a sense of the state's responsibility for providing for all defective and dependent classes, will be urged to go to Florida to fight for the measure.

A State Child Labor Committee was formed to co-operate with the National Child Labor Committee in securing a good child labor law at the next session of the legislature. F. M. Hudson of Tallahassee was chosen chairman, with Marcus C. Fagg as secretary and Mrs. J. W. McGriff, of Jacksonville, as membership secretary. Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the national body,



outlined the need for and nature of such a measure.

Perhaps no state in the Union has a greater problem caused by the non-resident applicant for aid than Florida, especially during the winter months. The state farm for vagrants suggested by R. T. Solensten, of Jacksonville, seemed to many the best way of solving it.

Like many southern states, Florida groans under the lease system of convict labor, at which Governor Donaghey aimed a deliberate blow in Arkansas last week.<sup>1</sup> Some of its evils were exposed by Frank E. Jennings, of Jacksonville, and an effort will be made to wipe it out at the next session of the legislature. An attempt will be made also to secure a compulsory education law.

Family homes instead of institutions for all normal children were endorsed, following a strong appeal by Marcus C. Fagg, secretary of the conference. Three of the five orphanages of the state are now placing out their children in homes through the Children's Home Society of Florida.

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## COMMUNICATIONS

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### APPEALING AWAY FROM HOME

TO THE EDITOR:

Every now and then we find that our subscribers in Paterson are receiving appeals from organizations in both New York and Brooklyn. No doubt many people respond to these appeals and then, forgetting that the call came from out of town, refuse requests from our local organizations. This is a hardship to which we should not be put. We do not, so far as I have been able to ascertain, appeal to residents of New York or Brooklyn, except in one or two instances which are justified because the person has business in our city.

Last year one of the largest New York charities sent out many appeals and recently a large Brooklyn society has followed the example. We are carrying on here the same work as these organizations and are finding it increasingly hard to secure sufficient funds.

Is it fair for the larger societies to hamper the smaller ones struggling in neighboring towns? I have not the least doubt that other large centers are equally guilty of this thoughtlessness.

W. L. KINKEAD.

[Director, Charity Organization Society.]

Paterson, N. J.

### PRISON LABOR IN NEW JERSEY

TO THE EDITOR:

In a communication in *THE SURVEY* of November 30 William Phillips dwelt at some length upon the subject of prison labor in New Jersey. It is very evident that he does not know anything about existing conditions or, if he does, has wilfully misrepresented things.

In the first place, Mr. Phillips states "that the

Prison Labor Commission has been in existence for one year and a half and has absolutely nothing to show." The truth is that this commission was appointed not, as Mr. Phillips says, by Governor Wilson, but by the New Jersey Legislature, in April, 1912. The commission organized July, 1912, and has met weekly, except the week taken in visiting institutions where the state use system is now being successfully carried on.

It is very evident that Mr. Phillips has not read the law of 1911, or he would not say that "the old system goes merrily on." If he did he would have seen that the contracts entered into by the state and the contractors could not be abrogated, and these contracts do not expire until January 1, 1914.

However, let us get down to the reason why this commission sees fit to answer Mr. Phillips, who needs some one to set him right upon a subject which he should have looked into before rushing into print. He says that "In making these appointments the governor [who did not make same] showed very little sagacity, or else, to be slangy, let his advisers 'put one over' on him. The commission is dominated by one Mr. Kirkbride, who has lobbied in Washington against legislation inimical to the contract system." Mr. Kirkbride has authorized me to state that he has not been in Washington in the last three or four years. It is true that as the supervisor of the Trenton prison he appeared at a hearing on the bill of 1911 and spoke on the matter of the cost to the state to put the state use system into operation, but from what he has learned from visiting other institutions where state use is in vogue, Mr. Kirkbride is an ardent enthusiast on the subject.

As to the rest of the make-up of this commission, I would respectfully invite Mr. Phillips to attend one of our meetings. Personally, I want to say to Mr. Phillips that I am one of the labor leaders of New Jersey, for six years treasurer of the New Jersey State Federation of Labor, and for over ten years have been endeavoring to abolish contract labor in the prisons of New Jersey and feel that Mr. Phillips has been a bit hasty in his reference to the make-up of this commission.

Quoting Mr. Phillips further: "The only thing done by this commission is to inspire occasional press items in opposition to any form of labor except the contract system." Wrong again, Mr. Phillips, as I refer you to the *Newark Evening News* of Tuesday, November 12, which published two columns of a report which we intend to make to the governor of New Jersey in favor of the state use system. It might be interesting to Mr. Phillips to learn that this commission has paid all of the bills incident to the workings of same out of their own pockets, the legislature which appointed them not having appropriated one penny toward the carrying out of the provisions of the 1911 act. However, the incoming legislature will no doubt make an appropriation sufficient to carry out the law.

In conclusion, let me assure Mr. Phillips that he is entirely wrong as to the intention of the commission not to carry out the law. Every

<sup>1</sup>See page 383.



man on this commission is against the contract system and it is our intention to follow out the wishes of Governor Wilson to drive out the contractors in the state prison when the present contracts expire on January 1, 1914.

JOSEPH P. O'LONE.

[Secretary Prison Labor Commission of New Jersey.]  
Hoboken, N. J.

#### TO THE EDITOR:

Answering the communication of Mr. Phillips in regard to the law designed to abolish contract labor by inmates of the state prison of New Jersey, would say that Governor Wilson appointed an absolutely fair commission to carry out the provisions of this law.

This commission was composed of two members of the State Federation of Labor of New Jersey and two disinterested citizens. The legislature, which was Republican, by joint action increased the commission and added to it Samuel W. Kirkbride and William H. Tonking.

The governor refused to approve this commission and vetoed the bill. The legislature, however, having the legal power, that is, the constitutional power, to do so, passed the bill over his veto. It was thus that Messrs. Kirkbride and Tonking became members of the commission. Governor Wilson did all in his power to carry out the spirit and purpose of the law. I repeat as suggested in my advertisement in THE SURVEY before the national election, that this law abolishes the odious contract labor system and prevents competition between free and prison labor.

If the legislature sees fit to circumvent its operation, then it is up to the people to deal with the legislature.

FRANK P. WALSH.

[Chairman Committee on Social Service, Wilson Presidential Campaign.]  
Kansas City, Mo.

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## JOTTINGS

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### BURNETT LITERACY TEST APPROVED

On December 18 the House passed without amendment the Burnett Immigration Bill, the object of which is to exclude from the United States alien immigrants over sixteen years of age who are unable to read their own language or dialect. In order that there might be no doubt about Hebrew and Yiddish being considered as either a language or a dialect, they are expressly included in the bill. Exemption is made of persons who come to the United States to escape religious persecution. The vote stood, yeas 179, nays 52, answered "present" 8, not voting 150. The bill then went to conference with the Senate, and it is expected that it will be reported to both Houses early in January. The text follows:

"Be it enacted, etc., That after four months from the approval of this act in addition to the aliens who are by law now excluded from admission into the United States the following persons shall also be excluded from admission

thereto, to wit: All aliens over 16 years of age, physically capable of reading, who can not read the English language, or the language or dialect of some other country, including Hebrew or Yiddish: *Provided*, That any admissible alien or any alien heretofore or hereafter legally admitted or any citizen of the United States may bring in or send for his father or grandfather over 55 years of age, his wife, his mother, his grandmother, or his unmarried or widowed daughter, if otherwise admissible, whether such relative can read or not; and such relatives shall be permitted to land.

"SEC. 2. That for the purpose of ascertaining whether aliens can read or not the immigrant inspectors shall be furnished with copies of uniform slips, prepared under the direction of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, each containing not less than 30 nor more than 40 words in ordinary use, printed in plain type in the various languages and dialects of immigrants. Each alien may designate the particular language or dialect in which he desires the examination to be made, and shall be required to read the words printed on the slip in such language or dialect. No two aliens coming in the same vessel or other vehicle of carriage or transportation shall be tested with the same slip.

"SEC. 3. That the following classes of persons shall be exempt from the operation of this act, to wit: (a) All aliens who shall prove to the satisfaction of the proper immigration officer or to the Secretary of Commerce and Labor that they are seeking admission to the United States solely for the purpose of escaping from religious persecution; (b) all aliens in transit through the United States; (c) all aliens who have been lawfully admitted to the United States and who later shall go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory.

"SEC. 4. That an alien refused admission to the United States under the provisions of this act shall be sent back to the country whence he came in the manner provided by section 19 of 'An act to regulate the immigration of aliens into the United States,' approved February 20, 1907.

### THE DEMAND FOR PURE MILK

Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson, in his last report to the President, has given some interesting information as to the activities of the federal government in respect to the pure milk question. It is not generally known that the authorities at Washington are co-operating with twenty-one cities and eleven states in investigating the conditions surrounding the milk supply. Mr. Wilson makes this statement concerning the work:

"Some of the handicaps to obtaining a milk supply of good quality are that municipalities fail to provide sufficient funds, the inspection work is sometimes made inefficient by political domination, and consumers fail to appreciate the fact that the production of clean milk involves additional expense. In campaigns for better milk the attempt is too often made to place the entire



cost of improvement on the producer. Some incentive ought to be offered the producer to supply the higher grades of milk. The fact is that most consumers are not demanding a high grade of milk, especially when this involves additional cost. It is well recognized that the health authorities of the country generally are seeking to give the public a higher grade of milk than the public is demanding or is willing to pay for."

#### NEW YORK FIGHTS POISONOUS MATCHES

Fearing that the "tremendous pressure," to use the words of General George O. Eaton of the Municipal Explosives Commission, brought to bear to secure the repeal or amendment of the new and progressive match law of New York might at the last moment succeed, social workers representing organizations and societies throughout the city met last week to protest against any change. Under authority granted by a change in the charter of the city, which was passed last year, the Municipal Explosives Commission has formulated regulations which provide that after January 1, 1913, it shall be illegal to manufacture or sell within the city matches made of poisonous phosphorus. The new rules of the commission also provide that match sticks must be impregnated to prevent the afterglow which has been responsible for many serious fires.

Match manufacturers have pleaded to have the enforcement of the ordinance against the retail sale of poisonous matches postponed until July 1, when the federal law prohibiting the use of white or poisonous phosphorus goes into effect. Representatives of the Diamond Match Company also protested against the requirement that match sticks be impregnated before that date.

The meeting was called because of rumors that an amendment was to be brought forward in the Board of Aldermen to nullify the regulations of the Municipal Explosives Commission. By a unanimous resolution Rev. John Haynes Holmes, who presided, was authorized to appoint a vigilance committee of twenty-seven members to fight any action against the regulations.

#### AN INSURANCE POLICY FOR EACH EMPLOYEE

According to an announcement made by Charles C. M. Thomas, vice president, each employee of the New York and Queens Electric Light and Power Company received last week a Christmas gift in the shape of a life insurance policy in the Equitable Life Assurance Company. The policy is for the full amount of his yearly wage, or salary, good for one year. It will be paid to the family or nearest relative of the employee should he die, or be killed by accident the coming year. The full amount of salary will be insured to all employees up to those who receive \$3,000 a year.

There are 350 employees. The company has executed a blanket insurance policy with the Equitable company for more than \$300,000, the premium on which will be paid by the company.

"We have been in the habit of giving our employees 'turkey' money at Christmas," said Charles C. M. Thomas, vice president, "but we believe this policy of insurance will be much more satisfactory to them."

#### BANK PENSIONS EMPLOYEES

The National City Bank of New York also announced last week that the pension system, death benefits and gratuities in which officers and clerical force will benefit would go into effect on Christmas Day. This is said to be the first time a financial institution has entered upon a pension scheme without asking contributions from its employees. An amount equal to two year's salary is to be paid to the family or dependents of each employee, the sum not to exceed \$10,000 in any case, however.

#### SERUM AS A TYPHOID PREVENTIVE

Feeling that the value of typhoid inoculation and immunization has been conclusively demonstrated on a great scale through the tests of the United States Army, the Department of Health of New York has decided after January 1 to administer serum as a preventive. Practically all authorities, the announcement of the department declares, now agree that the practice offers a notable immunity against typhoid infection. Inoculations will be made at the homes of applicants or at the central office of the department and the culture will be furnished free to physicians for their own use.

#### PRESENT SUFFERING IN THE BALKANS

"The war that has devastated the Balkan Peninsula has brought in its wake untold suffering," reads a statement by the American Constantinople Relief Committee. It continues: "Constantinople has become the center of dire misery unknown in our day. The battles of a million men have brought there the wounded of nine weeks of conflict. A quarter of a million refugees have been swept in from a wide territory, including a great multitude of women and children. Cholera, typhus, famine and cold have come, with tens of thousands of victims. Individuals of all faiths and of all the races of the Ottoman Empire are in the utmost need.

"The Red Cross, with international impartiality, divides its aid between five belligerents. The Red Crescent is the channel for the relief extended by all those in Constantinople able to work and to give. All classes of society from the highest to the lowest are nobly co-operating to assuage this misery to the measure of their power. But it is evident that these resources will be insufficient to cope with the demand that has so suddenly come. Even though active hostilities seem to be at an end it must be remembered that the misery and want that follow in the wake of war are often more severe and trying than they are during actual hostilities."

The statement is signed by Henry O. Dwight, Robert W. DeForest, Richard Gottheil, Lloyd C. Griscom, Adolph Lewisohn, Oscar S. Straus, Talcott Williams, and Cleveland H. Dodge. Con-



tributions are requested to be sent to Jacob H. Schiff, treasurer of the American Red Cross, 52 William St., New York.

#### LOOKING FOR FARM COLONY HEAD

The New York State Civil Service Commission announces an examination to be held on January 11 for the position of superintendent of the recently authorized State Industrial Farm Colony. The salary is \$3,500 and maintenance. The location of this institution will probably be in the southeastern part of Dutchess County. The colony is established for the detention, humane discipline, instruction and reformation of male adults who may be committed to it as tramps and vagrants. The superintendent will be the executive head of the colony, which is under the control and management of a board of seven managers appointed by the governor.

It is announced that candidates between the ages of thirty and forty-five years are preferred, and that they must have had an experience of at least five years in institutional work of a kind calculated to prepare for the position in question. The subjects of examination and their relative weights are as follows: general questions relating to institutional work and organization and management of institutions, 1; education, experience and special training, 1. This examination will be open to all citizens of the United States, residents or non-residents of New York, on an equal footing.

#### THE SCHOOL AND THE CHILD

Traditional topics gave way for a time at the Rhode Island Conference of Charities and Correction last month to a six-angled discussion of the school and the child. The necessity of vocational schools that would remedy the defects in the present curriculum was urged by Herbert W. Lull, superintendent of schools at Newport. How the school environment may be made healthful was described by Wallace Hatch, secretary of the State Tuberculosis Association. Other speakers discussed the subject from the standpoint of the parents, the girl, the boy, and Woonsocket, the place of meeting. Helen Emery, probation officer at Newport, described the situation of the girl who at fourteen leaves school only to find that no desirable position awaits one of her age. Miss Emery urged that girls be trained into intelligent home makers and mothers.

#### IN MEMORIAM: HENRY S. NASH

Memorial services in honor of Henry Sylvester Nash, professor of the literature and interpretation of the New Testament at the Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge, will be held in Grace Church, 804 Broadway, New York, on January 12. Rev. Chas. L. Slattery is rector.

## COMING CONFERENCES

#### JANUARY CONFERENCES.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Nebraska State Conference of, Lincoln, January, 1913. Sec'y, Charlotte Templeton, State House, Lincoln.

PROBATION, Illinois State Conference on, January. Further information may be secured from John W. Houston, Chief Probation Officer, 226 Court House, Chicago, Ill.

#### LATER MEETINGS.

##### INTERNATIONAL

BLIND, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the, London, England, 1914; probably July 20. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.

CHILDREN'S WELFARE, International Congress for, Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstraat 106, Amsterdam.

PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial, London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

RELIEF, Committee on Public and Private, London, Eng.

SCHOOL HYGIENE, Fourth International Congress on, Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.

UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association for Fight Against, Ghent, Belgium, 1913. American Corres. Officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

##### NATIONAL

BOYS, General Assembly of Workers with, Culver, Ind., May 17-30, 1913. Information may be secured from the Boys' Work Dept., Y. M. C. A., 124 E. 28th Street, New York.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, National Conference of, Seattle, Wash., July 5-12, 1913. Sec'y, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.

MEDICINE, AMERICAN ACADEMY OF, Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting, Minneapolis, Minn., June 13, 14, 1913.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION of the United States of America, Fourth Biennial Convention of, Richmond, Va., Apr. 9-15, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, Mabel Cratty, 600 Lexington Ave., New York.

##### STATE AND LOCAL

BAPTIST CONVENTION, NORTHERN, Detroit, Mich., May, 1913. Cor. Sec'y, Rev. W. C. Blitting, St. Louis, Mo.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New Hampshire State Conference of, Concord, February, 1913. Sec'y, Mary P. Remick, Concord.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Ohio State Conference of, Akron, O., October 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shiner, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

## FOOD IN HEALTH AND DISEASE

By N. S. Davis, Jr., M.A., M.D.  
Northwestern University, Chicago.

Octavo. Cloth - - \$3.50 Postpaid

The first part of this book reviews the underlying principles concerning the nutritive and other qualities of different kinds of foods, discusses briefly their relation to the digestive organs, and traces the changes that food must undergo before it can be appropriated to the needs of the human system. This is followed by detailed consideration of the proper diet indicated for the various conditions of health and disease, each condition being taken up seriatim with concise, plain directions, and diet lists.

*A descriptive circular, with list of contents will be sent upon request.*

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# THE SURVEY



## *A Box Factory Worker*

*Photo by Lewis W. Hine.*

### **WHAT I SAW IN AMERICA**

*Sir Thomas Oliver, the leading authority of the English-speaking world on work and health, gives his impressions of a six weeks' tour of American industries. It was his book, Trade Diseases, that was cited fourteen times before the United States Supreme Court in the case in which the constitutionality of legislation prohibiting the night work of women was upheld. Dr. Oliver says of*

#### **THE YOUNG WOMEN WORKERS OF THE UNITED STATES**

*"The American nation will have lost considerably by having utilized in the production of mere material wealth the best years of a great part of its available womanhood, when the nation itself is so much in need of sons and daughters born under the flag and reared in the traditions of all that has made the United States progressive, powerful and enduring."*



# The New York School of Philanthropy

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## LABORATORIES

The New York School of Philanthropy occupies space in the United Charities Building where social and charity workers gather. It is under the same roof, in elevator touch, with

### These National social agencies :

National Child Labor Committee, National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, Russell Sage Foundation, The Survey, National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, National Housing Association.

### And these local and state agencies :

Charity Organization Society, Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, Children's Aid Society, Association of Day Nurseries, State Charities Aid Association, State Board of Charities, Penny Provident Fund, Joint Application Bureau, New York Milk Committee.

### Within five minutes' walk are :

Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, National Consumers' League, American Association for Labor Legislation, Playground Association of America, Efficiency Society, Tenement House Department, Provident Loan Society, Women's Trade Union League, National Committee on Prison Labor, New York Prison Association, United Hebrew Charities, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, National Social Service Commissions of the Presbyterian, Methodist and Episcopal Churches, and the Federal Council of Churches in America.



### ENVIRONMENT COUNTS

The New York School of Philanthropy rubs elbows with the great preventive social agencies in the United Charities Building

## LIBRARY

(With the cooperation of the Russell Sage Foundation)

The largest special library in America of material on social work: 10,000 bound volumes, 15,000 pamphlets, 250 current periodicals, complete sets of conference proceedings and technical magazines. Students have free access also to the libraries of the Union Theological Seminary, the New York Academy of Medicine, Columbia University, Teachers College, and to the New York Public Library.

Send for Announcement for 1913-1914

**THE NEW YORK SCHOOL OF PHILANTHROPY**  
105 East 22d Street, New York



# THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

VOLUME XXIX, No. 14

JANUARY[4, 1913

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### BREAKING INTO THE NEW YEAR

With ten southern state legislatures in session this winter, with a Democratic administration in the saddle at Washington for the first time since the early '90's, with well toward thirty other state legislatures convening in other parts of the country,—1913 promises to be an exceptional year in those fields of social concern where law is a factor or where governmental action will be up for enlargement, retrenchment or rehabilitation.

More than most years the question of striking balances between public and voluntary effort, a question raised by Dr. Patten on page 421, will be discussed.

THE SURVEY starts the year with a "bumper" sheaf of articles. In the field of charity—the oldest field to which it bears responsibility, fundamental and live issues have been raised by the agitation for "widows' pensions," and here Mr. Carstens puts forth the results of the first inductive study yet made of the operation of new types of public aid in Illinois, California, Missouri and Wisconsin.

The rapidity with which changes may come about because of or in spite of our manifold halls of legislation is illustrated by the industrial accident campaign of the last five years. (P. 425). The visit to this country of Dr. Thomas Oliver, the leading British authority, may give equal impetus to the movements for the prevention and compensation of occupational diseases, and in this issue THE SURVEY presents Dr. Oliver's first formulation of the impressions gained in his remarkable tour last fall of American industrial centres.

The nib of his serious challenge to the United States, as to our reckless consumption of the health and strength of working women, is pictured on pages 426 and 427. At the left is a peasant girl at work in the out-doors of the Old World. At the right is the badly-lighted workroom in a modern loft industry—a room which is lent a mocking touch by the fact that it is part of the largest manufactory of *artificial* flowers in the New World.

The nib of his serious challenge to the United States is equally fortunate in presenting Professor Common's rounded interpretation of the work of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission. The success of the safety boards under this Wisconsin system, on which employers and employees work not at loggerheads, but in co-operation, gives point to the widening protest against the President's appointments to the Industrial Relations Commission—on the ground that as a whole the board of inquiry named fails to carry conviction that it will do more than beat time, or muff the constructive opportunity before it. At the holiday conventions in Boston last week of economists, sociologists and political scientists, over one hundred signatures were attached to a statement protesting against the nominations before the Senate—not as individuals, but as a group.

To turn from the field of industry to the complementary sphere of American livelihood, Mr. Wells presents a striking recapitulation of the forces at work in village and open country, and the need for their shaping in broader and more effective molds.





McCauley, New York World.

THE TREADMILL



Minor, St. Louis Post Dispatch.

BENEVOLENCE



Robinson, New York Tribune.

CHILDHOOD'S HAPPY HOURS

As a result of testimony given the past few weeks by expert investigators before the New York State Factory Investigating Commission, the cartoonists have been busy portraying some of the incongruities in child life. The titles above are those which appeared under the cartoons when originally published.

## DONAGHEY, THE LEASE SYSTEM AND THE PRESS

As was to be expected, the action of Gov. George W. Donaghey, of Arkansas, in pardoning 360 prisoners in one day as a means toward the abolition of the convict lease system in his state excited considerable editorial comment throughout the country.<sup>1</sup> Not so easy of foretelling, however, has been the fact that most of the comment has been favorable. The press has not given much notice to the news that on the day following the governor's action the penitentiary board made arrangements to move all convicts, as fast as received, to the state farm. This farm, situated at Cummins, has to be maintained, and no prisoners can be leased to private individuals until there are enough at Cummins to maintain it.

Those who read Miss Barnard's article on p. 459, will appreciate the strategy of Governor Donaghey's performance. He anticipated a request for renewal of the lease, which it was expected would be made on January 1, by wiping out of existence the leasable surplus of prisoners. The action of the penitentiary board is taken as meaning that it will not oppose the governor's plan of abolishing the lease system. It is also expected that when the legislature meets in a few weeks it will pass laws forbidding the hiring of the state's prisoners to contractors.

Governor Donaghey, who retires this month after four years in the governor's chair, will recommend to the legislature that a commission of three be appointed to make recommendations

to the governor in the matter of pardons that have been applied for. The affairs of the penitentiary are managed at present by a board consisting of the governor, secretary of state, attorney general, state auditor and commissioner of mines, manufactures and agriculture. These men, he says, have not the time to give penitentiary matters adequate attention.

Newspaper comment has not all been directed at Governor Donaghey personally but has used his act as a text from which to preach the evils of the lease and contract systems. The New York Sun, after declaring that Donaghey's order "can hardly be regarded as a crime against society when the horrors of the sordid business of hiring convicts in other Southern states are recalled" mentions some of the stories that came out in the Georgia investigation four or five years ago:

"In a Fulton county camp a young white woman was gagged and lashed with a heavy strap 110 times. A negro convict who refused to work was wrapped in blankets, tied into a box, and kept near a red hot stove until the sweating trick was overdone and the poor wretch died. A white boy of 15 received fifty blows from a sanded lash for spilling a cup of coffee on a hog. Negroes of both sexes were bound to their bunks at night and Sundays, with not so much slack of chain as a watchdog would have. A negro convict too sick to work was beaten to death; and the same fate befell a white boy who was serving a sentence for stealing two cases of potted ham. Larceny, often of things of little value, especially in the case of negroes, was the common offence for which men, women and boys suffered degradation, starvation, maiming and

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, of December 28, page 533





Tad, Evening Journal.



Robinson, New York Tribune.



McCauley, New York World.

FROM 4 A. M. TO 8 P. M.

A LIKELY PROFIT-MAKER

PLAY

One of the witnesses before the commission testified that children begin work in the canneries of New York at 4 o'clock in the morning and continue until 8 at night. In the center cartoon Robinson imagined the canner asking, "Why don't you put this boy to work in the factory with your other children?" To which the mother answers, "I thought I would try to raise this one."

even death in the convict camps forty-five years after Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation. And with inhuman cruelty, graft among State employees in connection with the bids made for convicts was proved. On March 31, 1909, the iniquity ceased. Georgia convicts now work on the State roads, the prison farms and on public works.

"The great seal of Arkansas bears the motto, 'Mercy, Justice. Regnant Populi.' Now it is a fact that the people have repeatedly protested against the convict camps. Evidently they do not rule at Little Rock, and Governor Donaghey to demonstrate that, if the Latin part of the motto is a flaunting lie, mercy and justice shall prevail in Arkansas, had no alternative but to pardon several hundred wretches out of peonage that is worse than plantation slavery."

Declaring that Governor Donaghey "has unquestionably his own people behind him in what he has done, and all right-thinking people in this country," the New Orleans *Times-Democrat* says in part:

"Governor Donaghey has taken every precaution to prevent the public from suffering injury from his wholesale turning loose of criminals. He has pardoned only those whose crimes are not heinous, who have already served a large part of their terms, and who are reported as having improved if not reformed, and the pardon is conditional, the convicts being treated as 'ticket-of-leave' men, for if any of them gets into trouble again with the law he is to be sent back to the penitentiary to serve out his entire term.

"Another abuse almost as great is noted by the governor, although he does not dwell on it at equal length—the gross miscarriage of justice in sending men to the county convict farms for long terms on trivial offenses. This abuse

of power Governor Donaghey declares is so great as 'to stagger into amazement' those who have not investigated it; but whether this excessive punishment is due to brutality or to a desire to provide more convicts for the lessees is not stated."

The Harrisburg (Pa.) *Patriot* thinks the governor's pardon "is bound to force action by the legislature," and the Boston *Globe* says his "drastic action seems both reasonable and necessary." The New York *Times* takes a different view. Nobody, it admits, can fail to share the hatred and loathing expressed by Governor Donaghey for the contract system of prison labor. But it goes on:

"In doing this the Governor has passed, if not beyond the letter of the law, certainly beyond its spirit, for he has misused the power of Executive clemency with which he was intrusted. That power was not given to him in order that in the exercise of his discretion he might annul laws, even bad ones, and put others of his own devising, even better ones, in their place, but that he might, in some degree and measure, remedy or mitigate hardships which the laws unintentionally inflict. He is expected to be just, or equitable, rather than clement—a fact which all Governors by implication recognize when they carefully explain any pardon in which there is anything of public interest.

The day before Christmas Governor Cole Blease, of South Carolina, who had previously complained that Governor Donaghey had "laid him in the shade," pardoned or paroled seventy-six prisoners. This brought his pardon record for the two years of his administration above the 500 mark.



## COMPENSATION AND THE STATE LAW-MAKERS

During the past four years, fifteen states have passed workmen's compensation laws of one sort or another, and many other states have appointed commissions to study the subject. A dozen have shown indifference. With such a balance sheet and such opportunities ahead the National Civic Federation has been laying plans for legislative activity during 1913. The federation has not been discouraged, but rather stimulated to greater activity by the fact that its federal bill, fathered by Senator Sutherland, and the Congressional Commission, passed only one house last winter. -At the opening meeting of its campaign held recently, to which delegates from all national and state bodies interested in compensation were invited, the Compensation Department of the federation made report along the lines both of accident prevention and of compensation. In the former field, which was designated by most of the delegates as the more important, Louis Schram, chairman of that committee of the federation which has framed a model safety law, announced that the International Association of Factory Inspectors have both endorsed and suggested valuable improvements to a model act and to a "Minimum-Essential" accident report blank prepared by Mr. Schram's committee. The International association also conferred with the federation's committee last summer, and through plans made at this conference three states, New York, New Jersey and Illinois, have arranged to compare inspections of similar types of factory and to profit by each other's experience in making safety provisions. This is one very practical result of the effort of the federation to standardize safety. Mr. Schram made the encouraging announcement that this year shows twenty states with some form of safety laws, as against thirteen last year.

Strictly speaking the sessions on compensation were "experience" meetings. Since most of the fifteen states which have passed laws have been actually working under them for several months or a year, it was possible for the delegates to compare results and point out elements of strength and weakness. As always, much discussion centered around the relative merits of state insurance and compulsory compensation of the exclusive form favored by the federation. The federation has now under consideration a new compulsory bill drafted last summer in co-operation with committee of the American Bar Association and the Legislative Drafting Association.

Chief among the specific problems outlined by August Belmont, chairman of the Compensation Department and discussed by the several delegates were the constitutional difficulties to be

met by a compulsory law, and the means of insuring the solvency of an employer.

The constitutional question has been answered decisively so far by only two states. Since 1902 Virginia has had a constitutional amendment under which a compulsory compensation law would be secure and California passed such an amendment last winter, and will this year introduce a compulsory bill to supersede its present elective bill. On account of its industrial importance, New York was felt to be the critical state, and the fate of the amendment which passed last year and must come before the legislature again this winter, was the occasion for much discussion, as was the form of bill to be introduced. Since these national meetings, the New York State branch has taken steps to secure a new alignment on state legislation.

The question of solvency is one which vitally concerns the families of dead and injured workmen. In the discussion, the importance of insurance in some form was brought out. The advocates of state insurance believed that safety lies in a state fund. Among other suggestions were mutuals, compulsory insurance in a reliable company, a guarantee fund to be held by the state, the payment of lump sums in death cases and the guaranteeing of other payments by bond.

## THE REPORT OF THE IOWA COMMISSION

An addition to available literature on liability legislation is the report brought out in November by the Iowa Compensation Commission. The report proper, aside from extensive appendices covering statistics and legal and other opinions on compensation legislation, consists of a majority bill and a bill proposed by one dissenting member.

The majority bill, which will be presented to the 1913 legislature, proposes a pseudo-elective law much like that of Wisconsin. It contains the important provision that in case of the death of a man having no dependents, killed through the employer's disregard of safety laws, the full amount of the death benefit—sixty per cent of wages for three hundred weeks—shall be paid as a forfeit to the Workmen's Indemnity Association. In this all employers coming under the act are required, to insure. Compensation for injury, which begins after two weeks, is sixty per cent of wages or of wage loss. A commission of three appointed by the governor administers the fund.

The following schedule was compiled for their own information in framing a bill on the coming legislature by the second Minnesota commission. It shows the maximum and minimum value of a man's life set by all the existing compensation laws except that of Arizona. In this list California shows the widest range:



## WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

State:	Minimum.	Maximum.
Wisconsin .....	\$1,400	\$3,000
Rhode Island .....	1,200	3,000
New York .....	.....	3,000
New Jersey .....	1,500	3,000
New Hampshire .....	.....	3,000
Kansas .....	1,200	3,600
Illinois .....	1,500	3,500
California .....	1,000	5,000
Nevada .....	2,000	3,000
Ohio .....	1,500	3,400
Michigan .....	1,200	3,000
Massachusetts .....	1,200	3,000
Maryland .....	.....	1,500
Montana .....	.....	3,000

TOWN AND GOWN IN  
THE MIDDLE WEST

Urbana, Ill., recently presented the spectacle of "Town and Gown"—two towns in fact—co-operating in a "grand rally" for co-operation in social work. When the last annual meeting of the United Charities of Champaign and Urbana was announced, the members of the University of Illinois band—one of the best college bands in the United States—expressed a unanimous desire to get into the game and play for charity. They played well, too, giving generous measure.

They were not, however, the only performers, for most of the social agencies in the two towns took part, and in all their talks brought out their need of each other as co-operators held together by the United Charities.

The judge of the county court, who is also a member of the Urbana Board of Education, Judge of the Juvenile Court, and a director of the United Charities, showed the increased efficiency due to co-operation between the court, the probation officer, the county supervisors, and truant officers. The school nurse pointed out several crying needs of school children which only the federated efforts of all philanthropic agencies could supply. The president of the Ministerial Association emphasized the fact that organized charity offers a common meeting ground for all church people regardless of denominational distinctions. The president of the Anti-Tuberculosis League in laying before the audience the urgency of his cause constantly reminded his hearers that the problem of tuberculosis could not be solved without the aid of a co-ordinating agency. The treasurer of the Dorcas Society, a successful merchant, presented the results of co-operation in the shape of a substantial 'balance on hand,' and called for an increase over last year's subscriptions to increase the effectiveness of this federated goodwill. A detailed analysis of two complicated cases treated co-operatively gave the secretary an opportunity to drive home the lesson that prevention of misery and destitution is possible and saves in money, time, and human suffering; and that such prevention can only come through the widest and heartiest co-operation.

"FUNDS TO  
PARENTS"

"Funds to parents," "governmental aid," "mothers' compensation," "home assistance," "home aliment," "widows' pensions"; a variety of terms, which are fast finding place in the newspaper headlines, all used to describe proposals which have this much in common—a plan to give regular public assistance to needy families in which there are children.

In three states, Illinois, Missouri and Colorado, such proposals have crystallized into law. In San Francisco and Milwaukee they have been put into effect in a small way without special enactment, while in at least ten states they are being discussed by social workers and others. In this latter list are Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, Nebraska, Minnesota, Michigan and Washington. Massachusetts has investigated the proposal through a special commission, and in New York City a special committee made a report on the subject last spring to the city Conference of Charities and Correction. The Colorado law was passed by popular referendum, under the championship of Judge Lindsay. The *Delineator* is making a journalistic campaign, and various organizations have sprung up to further legislation.

For the sake of ascertaining the facts as to the practical operation of such pensions, the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation has had an investigation made in San Francisco, Chicago, Kansas City and Milwaukee, by C. C. Carstens, general secretary of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. As already noted *SURVEY* readers are fortunate in securing in this issue a first summary of his report.

Both the existing laws and those that are proposed vary widely as to the families falling within their scope. In all, there must be children and in the judgment of the authorities there must be need. Illinois may pension a family of husband and wife living together. In practice, however, such families are not now being pensioned. In Kansas City the woman who is pensioned must do no work outside her home. Mr. Carstens describes these and other variations of procedure quite fully. The variations which appear in the bills which are now being proposed are even wider. In all such bills as have reached *THE SURVEY* there must be at least one child; the New York proposal is for two children. In most states the woman qualifies if this one child is under sixteen years of age, but by the more rigid rule of one of the Pennsylvania bills the child must be under fourteen years of age. In the latter bill also, the woman must do no work outside her home. An Iowa plan would limit aid to widows; the Pennsylvania bill referred



to includes also women whose husbands are in prisons or insane asylums. Pennsylvania follows Illinois in allowing the Juvenile Court to grant the pensions, but divides responsibility by leaving the detailed administration in the hands of the overseers of the poor, while the Iowa plan leaves the administration to its Board of Control of State Institutions. For New York, the conference committee's report referred to, would create a new city department, a "Department of Home Assistance." A limit of \$10 per month per child is sometimes fixed, but the New York proposal fixes no limit. The New York plan referred to would provide that the pension be given by private societies, the new city department giving for each family double the amount that the private society has already given, provided the private society's application for the family is approved. State funds are the exclusive source of the money by the Pennsylvania bill, but by the Iowa proposal, the state would pay only half and county funds half.

These variations indicate the many opinions even among those who are in favor of public mothers' pensions of some sort; there is, of course, a formidable body of opposition to the general run of such schemes as a recurrence or extension of public out-door relief; and perhaps a larger group which desires first of all, more adequate information both as to actual needs and as to actual results likely to follow the methods proposed.

#### STATE INVESTIGATION OF LITTLE FALLS STRIKE

The strike of the textile workers at Little Falls, N. Y., that has been on since the first week in October has not been without its sensational developments. These have caught the public eye and to an extent have obscured the underlying issues of a strike which has been very similar to the Lawrence strike of a year ago, although very much smaller. Now, however, the facts are to come out, for on December 26, at the beginning of the eleventh week since the trouble began, the state Department of Labor has begun an investigation into its causes. It has developed from the investigation of this board that some of the employes have been making only from \$5 to \$7 a week and have worked eleven and thirteen hours a day.

The immediate occasion which set off these low-paid workers into a revolt, in which the lead has been taken by the I. W. W., was the attempt of the employers to reduce their earnings proportionate to the cut in working time called for by the new fifty-four-hour law. The announcement has been made that, in contrast to the laundry strike investigation of a year ago, a comprehensive report will be given to the public by the Labor Department immediately upon the termination of its investigation.

#### THE DYNAMITING CASES END IN CONVICTIONS

A later issue of THE SURVEY will present a review of the three-months-long trial which culminated at Indianapolis on Saturday, December 28, when a jury in the Federal District Court brought in a verdict of guilty with respect to 38 of the 40 defendants. Nearly all of the convicted men have been officials in the Bridge and Structural Iron Workers' Union. The list includes the president, the vice-president, the former secretary and all the members of the executive board of the union except one. The others are either former members of the executive board or business agents, except two, Olaf A. Tveitmoe, a cement worker and secretary of the California Building Trades Council, and Hiram R. Kline, of Muncie, Ind., a former organizer of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners. The two men acquitted are Herman G. Seiffert of Milwaukee and Daniel Buckley of Davenport, Iowa.

The charges against the defendants, of which the jury found them guilty, may be reduced to two specific counts: the entering into a conspiracy to carry dynamite and nitro-glycerine on passenger trains from one state into another, and the carrying out of this conspiracy by aiding and abetting those who actually accomplished the deeds named. These are acts over which Congress has jurisdiction as entering into interstate commerce. With the destruction of property by dynamite or any other explosive, it has nothing to do. The government introduced in evidence, however, testimony and exhibits showing that such explosions had occurred all over the country during the last half dozen years, in order to show a motive for the conspiracy and to connect them in point of time with the transportation charged.

Just one year ago the McNamara trial in Los Angeles came to its dramatic close. It was at that time that there was turned over to the federal government the evidence collected tending to show that a wider conspiracy had existed than one directed against the Times Building and the Llewellyn Iron Works. A federal grand jury was convened in Indianapolis, the headquarters of the iron workers' union, and indictments were returned against fifty-four men, of whom forty finally went before the trial jury.

Ortie E. McManigal, who had testified at Los Angeles that he had blown up many bridges and buildings, confessed in the Indianapolis Court to having caused some twenty-three explosions, and Edward Clark admitted that he had caused one. The evidence against the other defendants consisted chiefly of statements in letters written by them which the prosecution declared could refer only to dynamitings or other deeds of violence.

On December 30 Judge Anderson sentenced President Ryan to seven years imprisonment. Eight men were sentenced to six years, two to four years, twelve to three years, four to two years, six to one year and one day and five were released under suspended sentences.

The Boston *Evening Transcript*, commenting



on the case the week before expressed the hope that every convicted man would be given the maximum sentence possible, which was thirty-nine years and a half in the penitentiary. The *New York Times* stated with apparent regret that "their lives cannot be taken," and added that "a life-time in prison cannot expiate their wickedness and their crimes." The *New York World* pointed out that "although the guilt in these cases is personal, organized labor cannot shirk its share of the moral responsibility. The lesson of this verdict strikes home to every honest union man."

## UNITED ZONES OF AMERICA

Since January 1 we have been—speaking from a parcels post point of view—not the United States of America, but rather the United Zones. Technically the new parcels post is merely an enlargement of the fourth class of mail matter; but stripped of its technicalities the law which went into effect New Year's day means that the government of the United States is making its first experiments in the field of carrying goods. Obviously the compromise measure which was enacted last summer does not satisfy either the opponents of a government transportation service or its more militant advocates. The latter maintain that the act is about as imperfect as a parcels post law can be, comparing it with the extensive service of European countries and citing its limitations as to weight, contents, etc., and the fact that, beyond certain distances it will continue to be cheaper to patronize the express companies. Obviously the provisions of the act do not allow anywhere near as easy an economical exchange of things as two-cent postage allows of ideas and messages. How far the system will be developed, now that a start has been made, is the subject of much political speculation and controversy, ranging from those who hold that we are witnessing a social revolution of the most far-reaching importance to those who see all the administrative difficulties involved, and the building up of a huge federal machine.

The social reactions of the experimental law will be watched with great interest—on table necessities and the family budget; on market-gardening and congestion; on the competition between country store and mail-order house, and the integrity of village life. In a recent interview, Postmaster General Hitchcock said:

"Every place in the country big enough to have a post office will have the advantage of this service. We have estimated, after inquiry, that no less than 20,000,000 persons who do not have the advantage of express company service will be reached by the government in its capacity as an express carrier. Take the case of Silver City,

N. M., for example. It is ninety miles from a railroad, but it has a post office, and parcel post packages will be carried there.

"Another thing that the parcel post will do will be to reduce the cost of living. It will give a better and cheaper means of transportation to places where prices are high on many articles because of the high charges for carrying them. With the government transporting parcel post packages at cost, the reduction in the carrying charges will naturally tend to reduce prices to the consumer.

"One of the best, if not the best features of the parcel post service will be the tremendous advantages it will confer on people living in rural communities. It will bring them in close touch with stores in the city whose goods they will receive at their doors at comparatively little, if any, extra expense. And the farmer will find an added advantage in the fact that he will be able to ship his farm produce in packages up to eleven pounds at the lowest possible cost.

"While the mail order houses in the big cities will benefit, the small merchant in the town will find that the system will operate to his advantage also. The zone system which we have established is to be utilized for his protection. He will operate within a smaller territory, that is, within a narrower zone than the big house doing a mail order business. Therefore the postage rates he will have to pay on parcel post packages will be less, and this will enable him to compete with the city houses.

"The benefits of the parcel post will extend throughout the country and to all the possessions of the United States. It is bound to stimulate trade and necessarily will work to the prosperity and general advantage of the people. Up to this time the Post Office Department was able to give the advantage of cheap rates on material that appealed merely to the intellect. Now, however, we shall be able to furnish dwellers in remote hamlets with creature comforts which had been denied them through high charges for transportation."

## SENTIMENTAL NEW YORK

SONYA LEVIEN

The Peoples' Institute

How near sentiment stands to sociology is almost excitingly shown by New York's first civic Christmas tree, and one might give the sentiment in a few words and then the sociology in fewer.

"Why not have a Christmas tree for the lonely ones?" This was the wild sentimental thought of an idealist, carried out by a handful of dreamers, and its message of music and light has awakened dormant feelings in thousands of practical New Yorkers, who, a week ago, would have denied with emphasis the existence of even a moth-eaten sentimentality.

The plan to have a Christmas tree in a public park for the lonely rich and poor was originated



by a woman. The idea was inspired by an incident told her by a young man.

In a reminiscent conversation she had with him of holidays and lonelineses, he was reminded to tell of his first Christmas in Germany. He was a student there, recently arrived from America. The holiday season came around, and German windows, alight with Christmas trees, radiated a spirit of self-centered happiness. The young man was very lonely and walked the streets. His stoic American training did not help, and he found himself horribly homesick and the possessor of a forgotten piety; worse still, he found himself philosophising on the relative cruelty of empty stomachs and hungry souls and of the two visitants he chose the first for the kindlier. "Next year," he said, "I shall get me a Christmas tree and invite all the lonely folk I know." And he did.

He related this incident to the woman to prove the argument that there comes a time in the lives of the hardest of men when they reckon with primal feeling and offer no apology for tears; and the way the New York people welcomed the message of the public Christmas tree shows that the young man's contention was not without wisdom.

But to go back to the history of the tree. The woman who heard this young man's confession thought,—Why not a Christmas tree in a public place, with music and light for the lonely ones of New York? With faith in the young man's philosophy, she voiced her thoughts to a few friends and the response was immediate. It was decided to have a tree in the heart of the city, and Madison Square Park, the crossway of thousands of workers and the outdoor home of the destitute, was chosen.

The plan was circulated among a few and contributions poured in from rich and poor for the "lonely ones' " Christmas tree, with earnest requests that the names of the donors should not be disclosed. The necessary funds were raised in forty-eight hours but donations continued, and the few who were in charge of arrangements found themselves embarrassed with unsolicited funds; this, although the plan was strictly guarded against all publicity so that the tree would come unexpectedly, in keeping with the mystery of the season.

An immense tree, sixty-six feet in height was brought from the Adirondacks, and the Edison Company was asked for an estimate on the electric decorations. The estimate was sent, but with it came a representative to ask that the lighting be accepted as the company's contribution to the program.

Every night from sun down to dawn the tree was kept alight with thousands of varicolored bulbs, thickly clustered in snow-capped branches and topped with the brilliant Star of Bethlehem. Prominent singers and choirs volunteered to sing

carols. The appreciative crowds the "Tree of Light" attracted—there were ten thousand people gathered around it at midnight, Christmas Eve—and the unanimous participation of the audiences in the songs, have given courage to many shy idealists, and festival plans for future holidays are rampant.

Many are trying to interest Charles B. Stover, park commissioner of New York city, in a plan to transplant fir trees in the center of city parks, which in coming years will serve as Christmas trees. Boston and Hartford heard of New York's scheme in time to follow its example, and Chicago and Pittsburgh are already planning public Christmas trees for next year.

Now for the sociology. When the Russian village community is transplanted, man by man or family by family, and tossed into the American city, there is more social tradition suddenly wasted than a hundred years of orderly transformation could effect. Social tradition is carried essentially by the community. It is only secondarily a family inheritance and scarcely at all an individual possession.

The American cities represent the *debris* of Europe's social tradition. It can never be resurrected in any literal way, but by community action as such it can be recreated in far richer and deeper kind. New York has dealt with recreation heretofore as if it were an individual matter. Where people recreate in the New York schools, parks or theaters, they recreate in a casual or individual way. They are dealt with as individuals, not as social groups.

In past years some success has been had in the attempt to create community habits founded on patriotic holidays. This is well. It will be better when we invite our people to look onward to a romantic future rather than backward to colonial and constitutional history.

But the old world peoples have given us festival days that are more than political in their meaning—that are racial, poetic in the highest sense. Christmas is one of these days, as Hallowe'en is another and Easter a third. There are no races, or native strains, who either do not have deep personal associations with these feast days, or have at least analogous feast days that can be translated into them.

Back of the sentimental Christmas tree is moving this deeper social thought. When the American city, through an effort, that must be community-wide, rediscovers the community tradition, the community sentiment and fantasy, it will rediscover the community life. There was never in all the world such a sowing of seed as has taken place in the American social soil. These community habits of gladness and friendliness, and these symbolic days of the community, are the warm South wind which may bring the seed to life.



## FINGER PRINTS

FRANZ<sup>1</sup>

GERTRUDE SEYMOUR

Franz was in a fair way to spend his fourteenth year in the penitentiary when we reached the court room. Sullen, frightened, he gave the judge no word of answer save, "I wanted to see how it worked"; and a verdict of "incorrigible" impended.

And why not? Automobile stealing was but the latest item on his long list of misdemeanors. All his life he had been in mischief. Did his mother ever try to use her sewing-machine, he was sure to "monkey" with the strap, trying to see how it made the wheels go round. Not a clock in the house was safe from his investigating fingers. Wheel by wheel, spiral by spiral, he would take it carefully apart, to be not always successful in readjustment!

"I couldn't keep anything safe from him," wept the mother. "He took to pieces one day even the fader's watch before he got away." For Mr. Smitz had departed a year ago, and had remained in parts unknown. He had tried to discipline his son—"make him do what he don't like while he is young; then when he is grown he will better know to do what he likes." Such was the code. But the process of administration proved difficult. And so Mr. Smitz departed, leaving to his wife a large problem and a small amount of money.

From his mother Franz coaxed a hundred dollars, invested it bit by bit in the parts of old automobiles, hid his accumulating treasure in an old barn, and there began the study and construction of a car. For several weeks all went well. Then he found a queer little rod with a screw on it that did not fit anywhere. What that rod did or ought to do, where it ought to go, became the puzzle of his days and the worry of his dreams. He scrutinized cars that stood by the street sides; he asked all the questions he dared; but still no light fell upon his problem. Then, one afternoon, he quietly seated himself in a vacant car, threw on the power, and rode quickly off to a secluded alley, where, removing the hood and parts familiar to him, he lost himself in a search for the twin of his perplexing rod with the screw on it.

Quite absorbed, he fell an easy prey to the pursuing owner and the detectives. They failed to sympathize with the scientific nature of his researches, and the penitentiary loomed large over Franz. He only "wanted to see how it

worked"; but "it" was private property. Then came a letter from the nearly distracted mother:

"I have heard how that in hospitals they do an operation that cuts out of the head all bad thoughts. Could you not get them to cut out of Franz's head this machine nonsense. Then Franz will be no more crazy, and the judge will not send him to jail, and I shall have no more trouble with my boy."

Trepanning for mechanical genius! Rather, the prescription that Franz needs is not the operating-table, but the work-bench; not surgeon's instruments, but workman's tools.

He has them now. In the Pontiac Reform School he is well, happy at last and doing excellent work in the machine shop. The institution is giving him that technical training which the public school failed to offer. He had to become a prisoner of the state before he had a chance to work at the things he likes best to do.

## A HOSPITAL ORPHAN<sup>1</sup>

ELIZABETH ROSS, R. N.

The bare, clean hospital ward was a poor substitute to Tony for the home he had left. It was only one room, to be sure, in a tumble-down house, where the dust from the coal yard filtered in through every crack, since it could not come in through the never-opened window that admitted a little light. He missed the bits of broken furniture and the one piece of magnificence, a great brass bed, hung with protecting lace curtains and always made up with lace-trimmed sheets and pillow-cases and a wonderful lace spread, all brought from Italy, and almost as sacred in his baby eyes as the shiny pictures of the Virgin and the Holy Family, that had also come from Italy.

He missed his older brother and sister, too, and the fun of tumbling into bed just as he came from the street—dirty, but happy. But, most of all, he missed the pretty girl mother, with her soft, brown eyes, curly, dark hair and bright cheeks, and he missed her play and petting. The white-capped nurses who never had time to play with him were a poor substitute. They did not even know, with their endless bowls of bread and milk, that bananas are the proper food for little sick boys.

Tony had been so very sick that he could not remember much about it. He had quite forgotten the attack of measles, shared by his brother and sister, with which his sickness began. He did not remember the terror of the little mother when she found that instead of romping again as the others did, he lay gasping for breath, panting and coughing. He did not even remem-

<sup>1</sup>The data as to "Franz" was all drawn from a "case record" in the files of the Juvenile Protective Association, Chicago.

<sup>1</sup>A sketch which hints at the need for hospital social service such as builds up families in their homes as well as patients in their beds.



ber the big, kindly voiced doctor who seemed to fill the tiny room—nor even how he had been carried to the hospital, wrapped in his mother's big shawl. But he did remember how his mother had cried and begged in vain to be allowed to stay with him that one night.

He was a happy boy when the day came that he could go home again. His mother came for him, but poor little Tony found that he was no longer her baby. Another little brother had taken his place in her arms. He must take his chances with the older brother and sister.

Soon he came back to the hospital again, almost as sick as before, after a few weeks of unwholesome home life. But this time the mother did not fret. He was a little hothouse blossom, and she understood only the sturdy garden flowers.

After another long fight Tony was as well as he would ever be, and fond of hospital life, doctors and nurses. When his mother was sent for she refused to take him home until forced to by a policeman. She did not want him; he was always sick.

In a short time he was again returned to the hospital, dirty and sick. By the time he was nursed back to a feeble kind of health it was found his family had left town, nor could they be found. There were too many children to feed and the father was out of work. There was no place for Tony.

The nurses tried by sweets and toys to give pleasure to their deserted pet, but, after all, he was but a patient to them; they could give him neither home nor mother. And so Tony must go to the other kind of "Home," the kind with a capital H.

Poor little fragile baby! What has life in store for him? And whose the blame? Surely not Tony's.

## EIGHTY CENTS<sup>1</sup>

KATHARINE ANTHONY

Mrs. Grubinski came as usual at eight o'clock on Thursday morning to do the washing. As she sorted the linen on the kitchen floor she remarked:

"It is a bad day for drying the clothes. It was raining already at four o'clock when I stood up. No, we do not stand up at four o'clock every morning, but at five. But last night we

<sup>1</sup>The substance of a conversation with a Slavic woman of the West Side of New York. Many of the Slavs of this district speak German. Some of them have learned this language in New York and are still unable to speak a word of English.

were weaving the chair seats that my man brought home from the factory.

"At six of the afternoon we begin, my man and me and Die Gretl. Die Gretl can already weave good, though she is but twelve. Yes, she goes in the school, but it is no good. I think she cannot learn any more. Her mind is always on the children—we have so many, eight *Stück* [pieces]. She is always like this."

Mrs. Grubinski's fingers began to fly at some imaginary task and she watched them intently, now and then snatching a hasty glance at an imaginary book lying open on the corner of the kitchen table.

"At ten o'clock Die Gretl puts the little ones to bed—Heini, Marie, Wally, and Conrad. Then she works till eleven.

"At twelve o'clock my man says to me, 'You go to bed and sleep. At four I will call you to work and then I will sleep.' So I went to bed and left him still working in the kitchen by himself. At four he woke me up and said, 'Now you can finish while I sleep. It is raining.'

"Then he laid himself down on the bed with his clothes on and I stood up and finished the weaving. At six o'clock he must get ready to go to the factory at seven. That was two hours that he slept. In so much time I finished the weaving, and it was all ready for him to carry to the factory when he went to work."

"But why did your husband take a job like that to do over night?"

"The superintendent says when he gives it to him, 'I need it to-morrow.'"

"But he must have known that your husband would have to sit up all night to complete it."

"*Das geht ihn nix an!*" (That doesn't concern him!)

"How much do you get for the night's work?"

"One dollar. But then the cane—that costs twenty cents. We come out with only eighty cents. The customer, he pays two dollars, and the factory keeps one dollar."

"And so your husband worked all night for eighty cents. You will kill yourselves at that."

Mrs. Grubinski shrugged her thin shoulders and gathered together the great heap of clothes she was taking down to the laundry.

"I say that to *him*. But he is like a man crazy to buy a farm. I want the farm, too, as bad as he does. In Hungary we lived on a farm. The fruit and vegetables would just fall on the ground, and lie there sometimes! One would take a bite out of an apple and throw it away. Fancy! But I say to my man we will be dead before we get that farm in this country."



## EDITORIAL GRIST



### PEN AND BOOK AS TESTS OF CHARACTER



JANE ADDAMS

The House of Representatives by its recent affirmative vote upon the Burnett Bill reported from the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization, registered itself in favor of the literacy test for immigrants arriving in the United States. Much of the discussion in the House and in the press was particularly objectionable because of the emphasis placed upon racial differences. The old and new immigration were frequently contrasted with the traditional odiousness resulting from comparisons. The epithet of "inferior races" was constantly applied to certain peasant groups who, as the result of isolation and lack of opportunity are doubtless backward, but who do not therefore belong to an inferior stock, and who exhibit no greater differences to other groups of their own race than those which often obtain between branches of the same family. Striking differences are certainly found between certain family groups in America, one of which has remained for five generations stranded in the mountains of Virginia or Tennessee, in contrast to their cousins whose forefathers crossed over the mountains into fertile valleys. Many mountain whites of America are illiterate and totally unacquainted with the advances of civilization, but they do not thereby change their race nor their capacity for development.

After all, literacy is neither a test of character nor of ability; it is merely an index of the educational system of the community in which a man has been reared. The literacy test will always work in favor of the man from the city and discriminate against the man from the country. On the face of it, it would seem safer to admit a sturdy peasant from the mountains of Calabria than a sophisticated Neapolitan, familiar with the refined methods of police graft which have made the Camorra famous. In addition to that, the peasant finds work waiting for him, the educated man "above manual labor" often has a pitiful struggle to keep himself from starvation. Our experience at Hull House is similar to that of the friends of the immigrant everywhere. We recall an Italian editor, a Greek professor, a Russian medical student, an Armenian Master of Arts, for whom it was impossible to obtain anything but manual work which they finally undertook in bitterness of spirit and with insufficiency of muscle. A settle-

ment constantly sees the deterioration of highly educated foreigners under the strain of maladjustment, in marked contrast to the often rapid rise of the families of illiterate immigrants.

One of the most gifted boys ever connected with Hull House, who is now a rising man in his profession and in the civic life of Chicago, is the son of immigrant parents who can neither read nor write, while one of our most baffling cases is the refined and educated son of a Greek clergyman who can find no work which he does not consider beneath his educational qualifications.

The only service America is universally eager to render to the immigrant and his children, and moreover the only one it is thoroughly equipped to offer, is free education. By the same token, so eager are the immigrants to avail themselves of America's educational opportunities for their children, that the census figures show greater illiteracy among native whites of native parentage than among native white of foreign parentage. The average illiteracy of native white of native parentage is 5.7 per cent and of native white of foreign parents 1.6 per cent. In the light of these figures it would seem clear that illiteracy is the one defect most easily remedied and that American experience does not justify the use of literacy as a fair test for entrance.

Throughout the discussion concerning the literacy test the "oversupply of unskilled labor" was constantly referred to although no comprehensive inquiry has ever been undertaken which could demonstrate this. We have no national system of labor exchanges which might show how much of the apparent unemployment is maladjustment of the supply to the demand and how much is oversupply. Certainly underemployment, casual work, long hours, poor wages, unsanitary shops, are found in industries in which the "unskilled immigrant man" is not employed. Limiting the supply by restricting immigration will cure none of these, and it merely confuses the issue to claim that it will. Until industrial conditions in America are faced, the immigrant will continue to be blamed for conditions for which the community is responsible. There is no doubt that America has failed to make legislative provisions against those evils as other countries have done, partly because the average citizen holds a contemptuous attitude toward the "foreigner" and is not stirred to action on his behalf.

In line with this lack of clear thinking and even of definite information on the subject, is the constant assertion commonly made that one million immigrants a year are coming into this country; yet Secretary Nagel's annual report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1912, shows that in the year 838,172 immigrants and 178,983 non-immigrant aliens entered. The total of these is



1,017,155. But during the year there departed from the country 615,292 aliens, of whom 333,262 were of the emigrant and 282,030 of the non-emigrant class. The net or actual increase in the alien population for the fiscal year 1912, therefore, was 401,863; the corresponding increase in 1911 was 512,085, averaging less than half a million a year. Before Congress legislates further upon this subject of immigration should it not provide that copies of the valuable report issued by the Immigration Commission be given to the country that we may at least be supplied with accurate information.

## THE NON-EXCEPTIONAL CITIES

ROBERT A. WOODS

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The spread of business-like organization among the agencies of charity through the whole class of progressive smaller cities is having the effect of stimulating new effort in such centers in the direction of positive community reconstruction. The initiative is coming in large degree from two of the most powerful forms of association, the church and the chambers of commerce. The method is a two-fold one: that of covering the city as a whole with certain specialized services, such as the regulation of sanitary evils, with particular reference to housing; and that of specializing upon given local communities with a comprehensive range of service, after the settlement plan.

The latter motive is bringing the settlement, in one shape or another, into a new field of great significance. The need and the opportunity for the rehabilitation of neighborhood life is quite as apparent in most cities of the second magnitude as in any sectional metropolis in the country. And so far from the necessity of a transfusion of citizenship being less with the possibility of the new resources of charity and education—such as specialized child saving or playgrounds and school centers—the initiative, the administration, the complementing, the supplementing of all such effort by a systematic and penetrating contagion of responsible neighborliness is indicated more urgently than ever.

In the same way, the broader human reach and touch extending from neighborhood to neighborhood, and traversing the grilling lines made by distinctions of race and creed, are decisively called for in those cities which have not yet wholly lost their village sense. In many a growing urban center, almost unconsciously to themselves, the original nucleus of families have lost their hold upon a quality of social life which largely made them what they are, and insured to their city what has been best in its progress. There are encouraging signs that this loss will

be substantially recouped by approved methods for creating a network of neighborhood loyalty in each local section of the city, with a substantial working acquaintance from neighborhood to neighborhood among all people of good will.

It is doubtful whether any phase of the advance in social work has in it the germ of larger promise than is found in the rising spirit of realistic democracy in the non-exceptional cities. As they go, so goes the manhood and womanhood and childhood of the nation.

## BOYS—"RECORD WEEKS"—AND THE 12-HOUR DAY

WILLIAM H. MATTHEWS

*[There is a contribution to THE SURVEY which tells its own story. It comes from the former head worker of Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, who was secretary of the Stockholders' Committee of the United States Steel Corporation which reported on labor conditions last spring. As a result of that report the Steel Corporation appointed a committee to consider practical plans for cutting down the twelve-hour day. In this spontaneous letter Mr. Matthews gives some human experience that backs up the progressive plant managers at Granite City who have gone on to the eight-hour shift.—Ed.]*

I have just read Mr. Fitch's article in THE SURVEY on the experiment<sup>1</sup> going forward with the eight-hour day in the steel mills. As to the point as to whether a shorter working day would mean an increased efficiency and increased output, I am reminded of an interview I had last winter with the general manager of one of the biggest steel mills in the Pittsburgh district. He had, some four months previous, ordered the seven-day week cut out absolutely in all blast furnace work, which means, as you know, the adding to the blast furnace crews one extra man for every six at work. The bosses and foremen came to him when he ordered the change, deploring the fact that such a change would mean the end of making new records. He replied by telling them that it would mean bigger records than ever.

"And," said he to me, "it has worked out as I knew it would. Last week was our record making week. And we hung up new figures. What is more, I noted none of the stress and strain among the men last week that was always so noticeable among them when we were working for new records on the old seven-day week schedule."

I remember another general manager in the Chicago district, an open champion of the eight-hour shift, in continuous process work at least, who asserted with confidence that he could, with such a schedule in operation for two years, "beat all production records in the country."

One of the objections made to the adoption of the eight-hour shift is the impossibility of securing sufficient skilled and semi-skilled men. That, I believe, would gradually right itself.

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, November 16, 1912, p. 108.



During my years of settlement work in Pittsburgh I knew many old steel workers who had left the mills *because* of the brutally long hours that they had to work. Again, I almost invariably found that the Americans who were at work in the mills refused to have their boys follow them in their trades because of the long hours involved in the work. They wanted their boys to "go at something where they wouldn't have to work twelve hours out of every twenty-four." I have always believed that with a decent working day many of the boys of the steel workers would turn to the mills. One first helper on open-hearth furnace work I remember. He was making big wages—felt sure of a foreman's job a little later on. Three boys he had—one of them working in a store, the other two in school. I asked him if he would not later take them in the mills, where they could probably make more money than elsewhere. The question itself angered him. "I'd work the flesh off every finger before I'd risk my boys in this business," was his answer. And the risk was, I found, in his mind, the one involved in the schedule of hours he had to work.

## THE RELATION OF VOLUNTARY TO POLITICAL ACTION

SIMON N. PATTEN

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One of the first articles I read after returning this fall was by Jane Addams. My attention was held not so much by its argument as by the light it threw on her epoch-making personal development. She says her interest has gradually changed from social to political action. To start in philanthropy and end in politics seems to her the normal trend of progress. I state her position not to refute it but to contrast it with my own.

I started a rank coercionist. At twenty I had on my program a dozen prohibitions which I meant to spend my life in imposing on the American people. Like Miss Addams I cannot say when I began to alter my views, but changes in them have gradually come until to-day there is not a coercive measure in which I have faith. Public action, I still see, is a stage of progress, but it is a stage that comes after the victory has been won. We can only coerce a remnant, a degenerate remnant, hiding in caverns after the sun is sending its rays over the open hills and valleys. It is a futile task killing microbes one by one in the dark. If all of us went at it the failure would be only the more conspicuous. Progress does not come by dozens of little coercions, but by doses of freedom. It alone evokes forces dormant in maladjusted individuals. The real problem is to start the internal budding which better conditions bring. If the seed is

sound, the plants will grow in the open air better than in hot houses.

This is not a new philosophy. Miss Addams has it as well as I and probably saw it earlier than I did. The difference between us is in the emphasis we give to its various elements. Shall we move from freedom to coercion or from coercion to freedom? How much of any social movement lies in each of these fields? It is here where programs vary and friends part. As I see it the initial stages in progress are first, to see accurately; second, to describe clearly what is seen; and third, to find a group of persons who see the same things and who use the same words to describe them. This seems formal but no one makes an effective start until he realizes its difficulties. Tradition and emotion blind us to the events going on about us. And if at last we see, the English language fails when we attempt to describe them. There are thousands of words we don't want and none we need. We see as individuals; we socialize as we use a common language.

The uniting force in any group is the words they use. No voluntary group is held together in any other way, and with each new group comes new words and new expressions of feeling. The great advance in the past decade has been the growth of social expression. Reform is at last able to talk the English language. We could not have had political conventions to advance the cause of social justice if social workers had not coined words that reshaped the sentiments these conventions evoke. The victory is not won when a majority of the American people cast their ballots in favor of reform; it was won when the first group of social workers saw the real facts and found words to convey to each other what they saw. The movement then became socialized and from this to victory is but a step, a formal step that would come almost as quickly without agitation as with it. Social movements like plants grow of themselves if put in the sunshine. The right seed gives an abundant harvest even if the sower sleeps while it grows. These seeds are words conveying to others what we see and feel. And words are such filthy things, each of them carrying more microbes than are to be found in a pail of drinking water. We wash our food, but who thinks of sterilizing his words? Everyone also feels free to steal words or to alter their meaning. Think of a coercionist calling himself a *Socialist* and of an emotional revivalist calling himself a *Methodist*. Of far greater importance than the power to see ourselves as others see us is the power to express ourselves so that others understand our thought.

I shall apply this in a field where Miss Addams and I are interested. What are the hindrances to the uplift of woman? I would reply that the cause is advanced not by advocating suffrage



but by creating in men's minds a clear idea of women. The trouble is primarily one of language and description. All the virtues have been observed and emphasized as they appear in men's action. There are no female virtues: the so-called female virtues are negative qualities due to restraint. When a man thinks of a virtue he thinks of a man doing something in a masculine way. Since we have no words to describe a womanly way of doing the same act he ascribes sex to the virtue and thus makes the act unwomanly for a woman. In all languages the word feminine is used to describe the weak and defective. This oldest and crudest contrast of the good and the bad has become a fundamental characteristic of masculine thought. With ideas and words that classify the feminine as defective a man cannot help attributing to women the qualities or the lack of them that his language imposes. Give a man a better way of contrasting the good and the bad, the perfect and the imperfect, the strong and the weak and he will begin to judge women in these new terms and find that they have the same qualities men have. To call bad qualities feminine prejudices the case. Men dimly see the difference and sometimes use a better language, but in ordinary life they still think in the old, crude terms and thus misjudge women.

If in regard to two opposing views one is held by 51 per cent of the women and 49 per cent of the men, while the other is accepted by 51 per cent of the men and 49 per cent of the women; the first is dubbed feminine and the second is lauded as masculine. This sex consciousness is the most difficult of prejudices to disregard. Women are swayed by it as much as men. They view as feminine those finer sentiments more often held by them and instinctively call that masculine which appeals to our coarser nature. Such views and terminology can be removed only by an improvement in language giving to each contrasted character an appropriate name. Then we can say what we mean without depreciating the opposite sex.

In such a situation, what is worth while, a suffragette agitation or a clearer vision? I feel that the cause will be won when men think of women not as defective men, but as beings with the same qualities they have mixed in a somewhat different proportion. This means much elementary work in morals, economics and art so that contrasts can be made and personality pictured in terms not involving sex. Voting is but an incident in the rising appreciating of women. In this, as in other causes, the first steps are the hard ones. When a tenth of the men see and measure the qualities of women accurately, converts to the new faith will come in droves.

All this is equally true of social propaganda. Words, contrasts, art and song are the elements out of which movements come. All these are

formed by individuals long before they are socialized. If they are clear nothing can resist the on-coming of the new epoch. If they are hazy, vague and ineffective no amount of coercion can carry the movement to its goal. How is the first third to be converted. Certainly it is not by coercion. And if clear ideas, good art and deep emotion will convert one-third of the people why can not the same agencies convert the second third? The natural expansion of clear ideas and social emotions are checked only when the degenerate, defective or dependent classes are reached. In such cases coercion has a definite but limited field to which it should be strictly confined. Voluntary effort must, however, precede this coercion, and is the force back of every social uplift.

I have written the foregoing to ask a question of social workers. What coercive measures have you on your program? Are they increasing or decreasing in number and are they to be applied earlier or later in the upbuilding of new standards? I fear we are dividing into two schools. Is not the present a good time to clear up our ideas and see if the next steps cannot be taken along paths we all can go?

## THE CASE FOR THE VOLUNTEER

MARY E. RICHMOND

In these days of expert investigations, social surveys, training schools for social workers, and all the rest of our elaborate machinery, where do the volunteers come in? Not all of the case in their favor can be stated here—editorial grist cannot be ground too fine—but they have a case and a very good one.

There are violent rushes from one side of the ship to the other; we cry "Lo here!" and "Lo there!" but still the ship does not sink; it was built to float and, in fact, it does. We have seen the professional worker put forward as a complete and satisfactory substitute for the volunteer, and we have seen the careless and wasteful use of volunteers do whatever it could do to discredit their service altogether. But the issue will not down; the deeper it is buried the more alive it becomes, and so we have also seen, during the last few years, in cities large and small, strong renewal of interest in the right utilization of this great social asset.

The relation between the trained worker newly arrived and the volunteer in possession of the field had to be settled, there had to be a period of readjustment, and out of this now has come the clear conviction that there is no continuity of purpose in the social program that leaves the non-professional group of social servants out of account. The volunteers, as one of the younger professionals puts it, "are the real sons and



daughters of the community, while the paid worker, though she may be a loving daughter, is often an adopted one." And changes, moreover, in the paid staff are all too frequent. It is the responsible volunteer alone who assures continuity.

But how is he or she to be made responsible? By avoiding the exploitation of the new recruit. He should be given training, should be provided with tasks of graded difficulty and of sufficient variety to develop his native gifts, should have very definite demands made upon him, and should be treated as seriously, in fact, as one would treat a paid assistant. Will the volunteers rebel? Decidedly not; those agencies have the largest number of them that give them the most to do and see that they do it well.

"There are trained workers who have a genius for the use of volunteers; there are others who have not, so that there will always be great unevenness in the work, but there is a technique that can be mastered."

Some social agencies are now organizing classes for their volunteer staff, and are adding beginners' classes for the young people soon to be fitted for active service. But classes are the minor half of this training; the major half comes chiefly through daily contact with the trained workers of the staff (volunteer and paid) who believe that time, skill and patience invested in the new recruit is thoroughly worth while.

A trustee of an associated charities in one of the smaller cities finds many eager to undertake the field service of the society, but "mere willingness to help is not in itself a qualification. Intelligence, discretion, and general dependableness are as indispensable here as elsewhere. Therefore it is better to have it understood at first that, paradoxical as it may sound, volunteers are not expected to volunteer, but that they will be asked to work as they are needed. To be asked to volunteer, then, becomes something of a distinction, and any possible sentiment of doing the society a favor by serving it is eliminated." As to the value of the service she adds:

"Volunteers working in the associated charities come to know their town as they have never known it before; they see sides of it they have never seen, and come face to face with problems they never knew existed. And because their town is like a large family their interest and their social enthusiasm are caught by other members of the large family, and so on and on."

There is danger that recruits may be drawn too exclusively from the college, the profession, or the social set already well represented in the society's volunteer group. The wholesomeness of the other policy, of drawing in from the community, that is, representatives of as many different community groups as possibly is self-evident.

Let a veteran testify for her part to greater and greater dependence upon the volunteer's point of view for that elasticity and insight without which our tasks become as lead. Dr. Osler advises his professional brethren who are over forty to keep their faces turned resolutely toward the rising instead of the setting sun; our faces are so turned not resolutely but instinctively when our work is done in a company of devoted volunteer workers, many of whom are of the younger generation. They know the community in ways that we are too busy and too old to know it; they interpret it to us and, through their many points of contact, pass our message on to all sorts and conditions of men. If, at any time in the past, the volunteer has been a Lady Bountiful who ruffled our democratic temper, she is this no longer, but an earnest seeker, rather, after relations of human helpfulness that, through all the imperfect social adjustments of our time, shall still be without condescension or self-righteousness.

Against a certain opinionated and self-righteous attitude in some of the trained social workers themselves we have to be especially on our guard. This world is not a stage upon which we professional workers are to exercise our talents, while the volunteers do nothing but furnish the gate-receipts and an open-mouthed admiration of our performances. Social work is a larger thing than that. When Balaustion recited the moving drama of the aged Athenian upon the steps of the temple at Syracuse, she recited it to an audience to whom the story of Alcestis was far more than a legend, and to whom some of the tragedies of Euripides were known by heart. It is such an audience—a *participating* audience—that is needed for all the finer developments of social work. When we look back over the line of pioneers in social work who held this faith and made it a living thing, who never were content just to do the work themselves but patiently kept step with the beginner, we can say of them, as Balaustion said of her own great countrymen,

"Ah, that brave

Bounty of poets, the one royal race  
That ever was, or will be, in this world!  
They give no gift that bounds itself and ends  
I' the giving and the taking: theirs so breeds  
I' the heart and soul o' the taker, so transmutes  
The man who only was a man before,  
That he grows godlike in his turn, can give—  
He also: share the poets' privilege,  
Bring forth new good, new beauty, from the old."

We too can share the privilege of our masters, if we share their secret; we too can "bring forth new good, new beauty, from the old."





SIR THOMAS OLIVER



# WHAT I SAW IN AMERICA

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**A**FTER the close of the Congress of Hygiene in Washington in September last

I had the opportunity of visiting some of the cities of the eastern states and of seeing therein something of the labor conditions and industrial life of the people. Although I visited a considerable variety of factories the number seen was too small to enable me to make a comparison and draw conclusions between American and British manufacturing plants. Besides being a foreigner perhaps it was my privilege, or misfortune, to have seen many of the best and few of the worst factories.

Despite the larger number of labor-saving devices in use in America than in England there are in both countries still some industries, e. g., the iron and steel, in which the work is too hard and the hours are too long. Working a twelve-hour shift week after week and month after month frequently is beyond the limits of human strength. In some of the rail-making shops in England where the men work on two shifts, the work being continuous during the week days, the men rest for ten minutes at the end of every two hours and they are allowed twenty minutes for breakfast and the same for dinner. As the meal times coincide with ordinary rest periods there is thus given to the men seventy minutes' rest during a twelve-hour day. With the exception of these short intervals of rest the men are kept hard at work all the time.

Equally long hours are found in some of the processes in iron works in the United States. At several of the blast furnaces in the north of England the hours have been reduced from twelve to eight with the result that the amount of iron produced is greater than in Staffordshire where the twelve hours still prevail. Not only in the North of England is production greater but the men receive higher wages, although working fewer hours. The time has come when in the United States, England and elsewhere Sunday labor in iron works should be abolished. So far as blast furnaces are concerned experience and experiment have demonstrated that Sunday labor is not the economic and technical necessity it has hitherto been believed to be. The day has dawned when there should be a respite from all Sunday toil. It has no direct bearing upon the point that the Poles and Slovaks in the States are only too glad to

work on Sunday in order to secure the extra day's wages.

It is a well known fact that in the United States few American-born workmen undertake hard, disagreeable and dangerous work. This is left largely to the foreigners from eastern Europe for whom, and I refer here especially to the Poles and Slovaks, it seems to me too little personal consideration is shown. Many of these men are literally beasts of burden in American factories today. Without these foreigners it would be extremely difficult for much of the factory work in the United States to be carried on.

From what I have seen and heard of foreign laborers in the States I feel that I must advance a plea on their behalf. They are frequently given extremely dangerous work without being instructed as to the risks they run. These men are ignorant and they have not reached the stage of civilization of the American, but notwithstanding they are men capable of aspiring to higher things while many of their children will become citizens of the republic.

A little more humane treatment of these foreigners and more sympathy extended to them would do much to lighten the burden of their toil and make life more agreeable. Employers are willing to pay and even to pay well for unskilled labor, but they do not, so far as the ordinary laborer is concerned take sufficient cognizance of the physical limitations of the human machine.

The large number of foreigners employed in factories adds to the difficulty of management and is one of the causes of accidents. Regulations have to be printed in several languages. With such employees factory owners find it easier to do all they can by all sorts of devices to prevent accidents rather than take the trouble to instruct the work people how to protect themselves. The importance of education cannot altogether be overlooked, for by it the workman is taken into the employer's confidence, his intelligence is awakened and he is given the opportunity of co-operating with the owners so as to make regulations effective.

Apart from accidents in no industry is instruction more called for than in the manufacture of white lead.<sup>1</sup> In factories where white lead is made

<sup>1</sup>See The Lead Workers, *THE SURVEY*, November 23, 1912, p. 229.





*Photo by Graham Romeyn Taylor.*

WORK IN THE OUT-OF-DOORS (ITALY)





TYPES OF THE FACTORY GIRL IN AMERICA



or lead compounds used factory regulations, such as those in Great Britain, do not appear generally to be in force. There is no *compulsory* periodical medical examination of the workers nor of the workmen when first taken on, and yet in some of the white lead factories which I visited employers have of their own accord drawn up regulations and they require their work people to be medically examined just as in England. Where health can become so readily impaired and life endangered as in the manufacture of lead it should not be left altogether to employers to draw up regulations for the work people. There should be a minimum state requirement which employers might improve upon if they chose. So long as there are no periodical medical examinations of the workmen with power of suspension given to the doctor the health of the men will be menaced.

From my visits to white lead factories in the States and to town hospitals, also from my conversations with medical practitioners appointed to particular factories I did not find plumbism more prevalent in the lead works of America than in England, but I am disposed to think, judging from Bulletins of Labor and the careful and searching inquiry into this subject by Dr. Alice Hamilton that, owing to the comparatively brief time at my disposal in the States and the limited ground I covered, probably the white lead works I visited were among the best in the country. From statistics it would appear, however, that all is not right in American lead works. Fires may be smouldering which I had no opportunity of seeing.

It is an extremely creditable feature of the white lead industry of the United States that the manufacturers have never employed women as was formerly and is still partially the case in Great Britain. This circumstance has prevented the outbreak of those more severe forms of plumbism—the cerebral type known as saturnine encephalopathy, so rapidly fatal and destructive to young life. In Great Britain lead poisoned patients ultimately find their way to infirmaries and workhouse hospitals or they remain under the care of the works' medical officer, but the number of persons suffering from plumbism in any district can always be readily ascertained since all cases of lead poisoning must be notified to the chief inspector of factories. Until America has in all the states adopted compulsory notification, no accurate estimate of occupational plumbism is possible. In some respects it might be advisable for compulsory notification to precede a Workmen's Compensation Act, since it would reveal the extent to which plumbism is more prevalent in some trades compared with others, and would then be of some assistance to insurance companies in arranging terms with employers.

### *Unrealized Dangers*

Possibly there may be in the United States a larger percentage of concealed and unrecognized cases of plumbism than in Great Britain. With us the incidence of lead poisoning runs parallel with the amount of casual labor employed. In the United States with its enormous foreign immigration many of the men who become white lead workers do not follow the occupation long enough to become really ill. Once they have had an attack of colic they, instead of returning to the lead work on their recovery as the men do in England, become frightened and seek other employment. Change of occupation at the earliest opportunity thus creates a condition of things which is misleading. This summer while visiting a white lead factory in France I found such wretched conditions prevailing that I was certain there must be much sickness among the workmen. On carefully inspecting the register of the workmen employed, however, there appeared to be, practically speaking, no sickness among the men as testified to by the visiting medical officer. Where sickness did occur it was of an extremely mild nature. On pointing out these facts to the manager of the works and discussing them with him he drew my attention to the equally interesting fact that the men did not follow the occupation long enough to become ill, that there was a constant stream of men passing through the factory, a circumstance which added considerably to the cost of production but which gave the works a clearer bill of health than it otherwise deserved.

In European as in American lead works casual laborers are replacing the more constant workmen, but in England the men on the average, stay longer with their employers so that when plumbism occurs the type of the malady tends to be more serious. There must, therefore, be in the United States the dispersion into other trades of a considerable number of unskilled workmen, many of whom may just have become the subjects of the minor forms of lead poisoning so that the nature of their complaint on becoming ill, when following other occupations, may not at first be readily recognized.

Some of the white lead and color factories which I saw in the United States are of more modern construction than those in England and Scotland. It is our experience that in old factories with wooden floors and where heavy machinery is running as in the grinding department of white lead works the joints of the floors become loosened, they harbor dust, allow it to fall through to underlying workrooms and by thus distributing the dust add to the dangers. Wherever possible cement floors ought to replace those made of wood. The mechanical stoving or automatic methods adopted for drying white lead, also electrical haulage, which I



saw in at least one of the white lead works in the States, are steps in the right direction.

This is not the occasion on which to discuss what are the legislations which should be in force in a white lead works. Although it is not always easy for a medical man to anticipate the development of plumbism in a lead worker, yet there can be no question as to the benefit of medical inspection and the advisability of suspending workmen who look as if they were sickening from lead poisoning. Owing to the amount of labor which it would entail upon state paid officials, medical inspection might, at any rate for the present, be just as well discharged by doctors appointed by employers so long as these give the medical officers full power to suspend suspected workmen. Employers must recognize that it pays them better to keep their work people well, better too for the trade generally.

I need hardly remind American readers that wherever possible in the manufacture of pottery, leadless glazes should replace those made with lead, that the use of raw lead or white lead should be discarded and its place taken by a fritted lead compound.

#### *Brass Poisoning*

How to get rid of the harmful influences of the fumes which arise during brass-pouring is as difficult a problem in the United States as it is in the old country. Brass pouring is the cause of considerable bodily discomfort to, and of severe abdominal pains in, those who follow the employment. The men suffer from what is called "brass founder's ague." The malady has no connection with malaria, it only resembles the classic disease in so far as it also has three stages—the shivering, hot and perspiring. Fortunately the illness does not last long. It is over in the course of two or three days but, although of short duration, the headache and the fever tell upon the men since they are left weakened and nervous for a day or two afterwards, and besides the malady may recur twice or thrice in the course of a summer. Colic and constipation are also complained of.

There is an enormous loss of brass in the fumes which escape into the shop and the open atmosphere. Tons of metal must thus be lost annually in large brass works so that it would well repay the owners of such establishments to devise means for the collection of the fumes and the recovery of the metal.

#### *Fire Hazards*

As regards protection of life by fire escapes and fire drills the United States is undoubtedly in advance of Great Britain. It is to be hoped that the adoption of the measures at present in force in New Jersey and some of the other states will become more general.

I had the opportunity of seeing the employees—men, women and girls—leave two large factories in Trenton on the fire alarm inside the factories being sounded. Within two minutes the work people, about 1,000 in each instance, were out of the buildings. I was particularly impressed by the discipline and good order which prevailed at both of the demonstrations attended by Colonel Bryant and myself. Under all such circumstances panic is the one thing to be dreaded. The best way to prevent panic is by discipline to be prepared for it.

#### *Constitutions: Legal vs. Human*

One sees in the limitations of the written constitutions of the United States, some of the difficulties which lie in the way of industrial legislation, and yet it cannot but be admitted that the health of the working classes and through it the physique of future generations transcend in importance all freedom of contract between employer and employed. There are many large questions in regard to which state rights should be sunk. Upon such problems as Sunday labor, kinds of trades permissible to women and young persons, hours of work not only for women and children but for men as well, protection of machinery, regulations for dangerous trades and bright illumination of dark places in factories, there should be little or no difference of opinion in one state or another. Mutual confidence and co-operation between state and state would make the path of industrial legislation easier.

Generally speaking, work is rushed too much and life is lived at too high pressure in the United States. There is no reason for either. Work and the love of work for the monetary gains it brings are more characteristic of American than of most other people and yet what is the gain if life is shortened by the strain imposed upon it in trying to obtain these? A nation whose working men are old at forty is certainly not only not rich in men but is not doing its best for them. American prosperity runs too much on one line and it seems likely to go on doing so. Alertness caught on years ago and is still a striking feature of the people. Nations like individuals cannot give themselves up exclusively to the pursuit of wealth without the amenities of life suffering. To be intense in one direction is to lose by the exclusiveness. In this utilitarian age not only in America but in Great Britain and the nations of western Europe literature and the arts find little encouragement. It is the day of the application of science to human needs and the development of society. Time alone can tell whether out of what we boastfully call the improved conditions of modern life human society will rise to a higher level than it has as yet attained, whether philosophy will reach a loftier realm, and poetry soar



to greater altitudes as the result of the influence of the so-called better environment. Without disparaging all that a comfortable environment may give it yet remains that the greatest events of life have never been the outcome of leisured care but of strife.

### *The Young Women of the Factories.*

Two things particularly struck me in my visits to American factories—one is the fewer old workmen seen therein compared with England, a state of things not to be wondered at since the principal aim of factory enterprise is to get the utmost out of the human machine, and the other is the enormous employment of female labor. It is, I admit, extremely pleasing in going through a factory to see hundreds of young women, aged from seventeen to twenty-five and upwards, clean and neatly dressed when the nature of the work permits of it, and one cannot but in a sense join in the pride which a manager feels in showing to a casual visitor to his factory such an army of young womanhood; but apart from the circumstance that the women are earning their livelihood and in some instances lightening the call upon the family exchequer, is there no other side to the question which calls for thoughtful consideration?

Factory life does not tend to the development of those traits which make home attractive. It does not encourage marriage and by it maternity is discouraged. What is to become of the women when they reach the age of fifty? Replaced by

younger hands and with no longer a place for them in the factory or office, with memories only of good wages spent neither wisely nor with a view to the future for such women as remain unmarried will the discontentment be greater or less than is the experience of middle age generally? For those who have saved and been thrifty the years after fifty may well become the enjoyable evening of a well spent and active life, but for those who have not saved, occupation gone, family ties broken and no home life available, the prospects are anything but attractive and reassuring.

The American nation too will have lost considerably by having utilized in the production of mere material wealth the best years of a great part of its available womanhood when the nation itself is so much in need of sons and daughters born under the flag and reared in the traditions of all that has made the United States powerful, progressive and enduring.

There is more than need therefore for a reconsideration of many of the social and industrial problems which exist in the United States today.

So far as industrial hygiene is concerned there is room for a National Institution of Labor which would deal with the prevention of accidents, welfare of the employees, occupational diseases, reforms generally including better working conditions, better and cheaper housing, definition of men and women's work, the employment of young persons and all such kindred subjects as belong to labor, health and welfare.

## CASE WORK<sup>1</sup>

MARY WILLCOX GLENN

THE relation between shopper and salesman tends to become so impersonal that it is with relief one turns at times from the big department store to enter the small specialty shop. In one such shop, that of a watch-maker, I got recently the refreshing sense of easy relationship. The watch I had taken to have repaired called for such slight adjustment that I explained my own inability to set it straight by professing that I was no mechanic. "Not everyone can be a mechanic," said the clock-maker with grave courtesy, "but I am sure that you have a line." In face of his definite skill attested to by the varying tones of the clocks and watches that stood about the narrow room, I felt free at the moment only to answer "I am much occupied." Nevertheless, I do represent a line of effort as positive in its way as is the making and repairing of clocks; a line, more-

over, that lends itself to definition and offers analogies which my Swiss watch-maker, with his philosophic bent of mind, could grasp with surety.

To those of us who believe that case work is a distinctive and fundamental part of social work its definite purpose is such treatment of the case of need as will help the individual to live his life fully, and help him in such a way as not to depress the independent efforts being made by other members of his community. It involves, furthermore, such use of the experience gained in the service of the few as will help not only to determine the needs of the many, but will ascertain the probable reaction of the greater number to general preventive and curative efforts. To man these four service outposts means to face facts, to prepare for redress, to meet the cost, and to unite effort.

1. *Face facts.* Let me put the matter in terms of the family; not a generalized or typical family, but an individual family with idiosyn-

<sup>1</sup>Based on a paper delivered before the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction at Syracuse.



cracies that make it distinct from any other family that one has met or can meet; a family, however, that, in spite of its individuality, is dependent on the conditions of living that surround it. Its conceptions of work, definite or elusive, are held in common with others of its own neighborhood, as are in the main its religious and educational convictions and its attitude to the uses of leisure and to desirable forms of recreation. It, as well as its neighbors, is being played on by forces good and evil; it becomes the subject of legislative restrictions and safeguards; it is suffering with others a changing conception of what home implies and family relationships mean.

Mrs. Flynn, when left a widow with a family of young children, acted on her conviction of what was right when she looked for work and took what was easiest to get. The work in a large office building meant long hours under poor conditions, and was of a kind that she, with her "bad leg," was especially unfitted for. The charitable society which learned to know her later, when she was striving to make good financially at such heavy odds, withdrew her from work and urged her to accept medical care so that she might become sound physically. Mrs. Flynn co-operated by making good use of the money help, but she could not be brought to admit the importance of radical treatment for her swollen leg.

The neighborhood in which she lived is a poor one in which to rear children, but in it she was reared and lived her married life, and in it she found the friends who believed that in their neighborhood she had the best chance to live her widowed life to advantage. When her oldest daughter, just under sixteen years of age, got beyond her control and, though made the subject of patient and considerate effort on the part of settlement, probation, church and charity workers to change the tendency of her young life, became the mother of an illegitimate child, the staunch neighborhood friends still felt that it was not the wretched environment, but Carrie's natural recklessness, that made her go wrong. To have insisted on a change of residence for the widow would, in their judgment, have been to put an unwarranted pressure on a mother who was doing her best by her children and, with the exception of the one black sheep, was meeting with success.

These few facts of Mrs. Flynn's life are not set down here in order to lead up to a decision as to whether relief in money should have been made conditional on change of residence or on Mrs. Flynn's submitting to proper medical treatment, or as to whether she was fitted in any event to cope with Carrie. The meagerness of detail gives no fair basis for decision. But they are given to illustrate the point that in order to

make any headway with the particular case, one is forced to gather all the facts which have a bearing on it and to give each due and comparative weight. Also, that in considering the particular case one must bear in mind that the facts revealed by its study have a distinct relation to the lives of other men, women and children. To withdraw Mrs. Flynn from her job is not sufficient of itself, but should lead to the protection of other such women from the long hours and poor conditions to which she submitted unquestioningly. Whether Mrs. Flynn should have been forced to leave her neighborhood or not does not lessen the importance of making the conditions on the street and in the tenement less threatening to the morals of impressionable, pleasure-loving boys and girls. Whether Mrs. Flynn should have been given relief conditional on her accepting the medical aid advised does not affect the importance of the work that lies ahead in educating the people of her neighborhood to make use of the opportunities offered by hospital and nursing forces, or of the task laid on the medical fraternity of making its work for the individual so thorough that suspicion is disarmed.

Gorham, a longshoreman, is in a hospital ill as a result of exposure and of physical overstrain. McGibbon is suffering from the effects of lead poisoning. Neither he nor Gorham, though each is the husband of a young wife and father of small children, can ever again become the full provider for his family. Why are these men, young in years, forced to see their wives become wage-earners, or to lean on the help of relatives or of outside agencies? To get an answer, which may include points relating on the one hand to the industry and on the other to the industrial efficiency of the man, to his physical inheritance and environment and to his previous manner of life, calls for a facing of many facts and for a recognition of their complexity.

The suffering and the indignities borne by those who are being worsted by the hard conditions of the industrial world should burn the hearts of those who assume responsibility for righting wrongs. They should burn the heart, but at the same time fire the brain to activity. To face the facts revealed by case study should move one to act not emotionally, but with painstaking deliberation. So little knowledge is held as to the reaction of the individual or of a body of individuals to preventive and remedial efforts that the time should be counted as gained which deliberately is given to the study of cases before generalizing and definitive action is taken. Cases must be reviewed, however, not only to learn what they can reveal as to the probable reaction of individuals to the rehabilitating efforts made in their behalf, but, also, to gauge the actual



value that the work done on them has for the families treated.

2. *Prepare for redress.* There will be no real redress until those of us who believe in case work really consider the size and the equipment of the force called for to man our second outpost effectively. There must be established a force capable of working for a standard of investigation and treatment of general family disabilities comparable at least to the force that the medical profession at its best would be willing to offer for the diagnosis and treatment of general physical disabilities. To build up an effective force of investigators means preparation for a form of service which is as distinctive in character as is any other service in the whole range of social experimentation. The student must on the one hand give such loyalty as assures balance and persistency in effort, and must on the other be reasonably sure that in the exercise of his profession he will not be so laden with a bulk of cases as to have no time to make good with any one. To protect the competent case worker from having to lower his standard because he is swamped by numbers is a task to which the executives of our charitable societies and their boards of management should set themselves.

Could any one measure the real needs of Mrs. Flynn's family who was not trained to take as seriously the economic and moral problems evoked by her widowhood as would a conscientious physician the physical condition resulting from her bearing of children? Could any one be in any genuine way a help to Mrs. Flynn who had not learned to think of her as a mother of potential citizens? To see the service of the immediate hour in relation to the long succession of days which may be marked by partial dependence on charitable aid, or aid qualified by any other name, is a steadying vision.

Gorham and McGibbon, victims of bad industrial conditions and of poverty of opportunity, though worsted early in the struggle for existence, are not out of the game. The case worker who cannot conceive of these men as still ready to make partial support for their families is doing them and their neighbors a serious injury. They are not done for; their lives are not lived. The task is to adjust the labor of their future to their physical endurance and to keep clearly in view that if their wages must be supplemented they must be supplemented in such a way as not to depress the will of the family to be economically independent. The family, moreover, should not be considered as made up only of the members commonly in sight, but also of those relatives who do help to determine the point of view of the family group as a whole.

Dennis was twenty-one when he married, his wife was eighteen, and never was there a couple less prepared to make a stable home. When at

each crisis in their married life he returned to his mother for food and shelter, his deserted wife, with their babies, made a sure appeal to the sympathies of the charitable giver. The worker whose task it is to try to construct a home from what seem to be mere fragments of human relationship needs to read some of those long standing records of couples now old in years, who when young also made their first appeal for aid. I have in mind one such family, the Gordons, which more than twenty years ago began its long history of desertion, intermittent arrests and workhouse sentences on the part of the man; work, intermittent because of child bearing, on the part of the woman; charitable aid, also intermittent, from various charitable agencies. The sorry fact which stands as the patent result of these years of wasted effort is that the sons of the ne'er-do-well are ne'er-do-wells themselves, and that the woman is at work for the younger men, her sons, as in her early days she worked for the older man, their father. They will marry women who in their turn will scrape along with insufficient means won at heavy cost and supplemented by charitable aid. It is the record of such a family which makes it imperative that the worker who is in a measure responsible for the Dennises should be prepared at least to make a clear-sighted attempt to bring the young couple, whose relatives are decent people, through to some other point than that now held by the Gordons.

The Clarks are newly arrived in the United States. They have used what money they got from the sale of the small homestead in the old country and have naturally not learned how to make the \$50 monthly wage of the man meet, in New York, the needs of a family of five, three of whom are small children. They came to the big city against the advice of relatives, and should go back to the nearby smaller city where some of their own people are, and where living is cheaper and prospective wages no smaller than in New York. It takes no little time and no small amount of case experience, however, to unravel the tangled skein of their life and then work with them so as to be reasonably sure that, in spite of Mrs. Clark's temporary ill health and Mr. Clark's tendency to drink, they will come through economically independent.

So many problems of individual lives come to mind, problems with which a case worker is called on to grapple. Each is stamped with individuality, each presents complexities to be faced when any trial is made to rehabilitate or to modify conditions of life. If redress is to take root, can any degree of preparation on the part of the social worker be too great?

To meet the demand of the field, case work must draw to itself college men and women who have native abilities which make them capable



of taking foremost places in the professions of the ministry, law, medicine and education. Men and women of such calibre are needed to help determine the technique of a profession in process of finding itself. Does not the case of Carrie Flynn call for the nicest treatment that can be devised by an ardent student of applied psychology? Can any task be more worth while than to learn how the craving for the joy of life may be made to lend itself to developing a woman rather than to wrecking a girl? Can any humanitarian study be more worth while than to find out how to make foolish young Dennis carry the responsibilities he has assumed, any effort be more remunerative than that directed to shaping opportunities for his children so that they can have a preparation for living which will give reasonable assurance of their being in their turn able to make stable homes?

I wish to emphasize, however, the need of a growing body, not only of equipped regulars, but of volunteers. There is not time to define the place and purpose of the volunteer, but if case work is to include treatment which sees a family through a period of acute depression, safely on the road to permanent recovery, there can be no fulfilling of its aim unless there be drawn into service a steadily growing body of persons, men and women, who meet a share of the cost of effective case work by giving a portion of their time to considered and persistent service in behalf of individuals in need. It was comparatively easy to meet the immediate necessities of the Carters, necessities that grew out of the fact that father and mother were dying of tuberculosis after lives in which drink had played a devastating part. It was far from easy to make provision for Jim and Frank which would carry promise that they, injured young to a low standard of living, would become manly men. The grip of a friendly visitor has loosened the hold that the mean city neighborhood had on them, and under new and favorable conditions they are getting a real chance to make good.

3. *Meet the cost.* If the first two outposts are adequately manned, we shall be able to hold our other two. To face the facts growing out of case experience so as to be unwilling to submit to partial redress, and to develop a force trained to grasp inherent needs, is to be ready to win equipment. It needs no saying that to carry through any adequate program of treatment for families, means sufficient are needed to provide a staff of trained workers who, to repeat in different form, measure their work by a qualitative not a quantitative rule. Emphasis is laid advisedly first on the need of money to provide a sufficient force of persons equipped to aid in the rehabilitation of families, because without the right force the providing of money alone can-

not get the results in view. Money may be adequately provided and relief be after all inadequate, because useful disposition of the means is not furthered by adequate case treatment. When knowledge of the family is held, not its present status alone, but its past history and its potential power, the money cost of making provision, not for material relief alone, but for forms of relief not commonly termed material, such as varied institutional care, will be met as never before. Money relief will be seen to be valuable only as it has vital relation to family life, with its spiritual, mental physical and temperamental sides. The holding of knowledge of the family will be recognized as futile if knowledge is not translated into a rehabilitating effort, ready to face the price of its program. Mrs. Schneider, the widow of a builder, had not only what might be called a bourgeois attitude towards labor, but a wrong conception of business obligation. When she came broken in health and fortune to the attention of a charitable society, she and her four intelligent children needed more than mere money—they needed to be trained to have a new outlook on life. As a first step, they had to submit to temporary separation so that the harassed woman might be nervously braced to start with her children on the difficult road to future independence. That they finally reached that destination is due to Mrs. Schneider's gradually increased co-operation with a carefully conceived plan.

Clarity in perceiving the need of the widow, the fatherless, the aged, the maimed, the defective, will make patent the fact that in no generalizing way can the measure of a family's need be taken; that by following no mere arithmetical rule can it be determined what should be the minimum or maximum of relief in money allowed to a specified class of persons. Do not misunderstand me. I do not wish to make the impression that money is not hard to get for the rehabilitation of family life; only, that it is much easier to get when the appeal carries conviction that real benefit will accrue from the giving. Also, that to use the money genuinely to help is, in the last analysis, a more serious task than it is to get the money. To work hard to get money for classes of cases before making careful preparation for the expenditure of the money is, in my judgment, to put the cart before the horse, to the lasting crippling of the horse.

And may I add, that to change the name of a thing does not change the essence of a thing, and that to shift a responsibility from one set of shoulders because they have carried their burden with questionable adroitness on to another set does not necessarily give promise of more adroit portage or of the ability to carry a bigger load.



4. *United effort.* When case work is searching, effort is in process of being united. Co-operation need not be sought as an end, when the spirit of service has found it as a means.

Meakin is at last a self-respecting foreman of a gang, after twenty years of casual work and neglect of his family, because a charity worker and a Catholic priest determined to make a united effort to pull him through. Stone has got the better of the inebriety that was wrecking him, because charity worker, employer, physician and pastor united to effect cure. Jansen is back in New York supporting the family he deserted because the charity worker and the court official together brought him to see that there was nothing else for him to do. Without some deliberative effort to measure what each

stands ready to give, and to learn where each is getting results, the case worker will be carried along a futile trail.

"Straw for his tale of bricks he tried to get, but straw or no straw, he faithfully made his bricks" closes in a current magazine a brief description of a social worker. We see the process. The workman knows that his brick calls for straw to ensure tenacity, but time presses and the demand is for immediate delivery. His bricks without straw can make a wall; whether the wall stand or not, he has delivered his tale. If we case workers leave unmanned any one of our four outposts, we may build barriers to keep out devastating foes, but our walls, lacking tenacity, will fall before the enemies we have tried to hold at bay.

## ELLEN COLLINS

LOUISA LEE SCHUYLER

*[Readers of THE SURVEY, many of whom are especially interested at this time in Red Cross work, will be glad to read the following account of what was done in war-times fifty years ago for emergency relief, before there was any Red Cross in this or any other country.]*

*It is of interest to know that the State Charities Aid Association, founded by Miss Schuyler in 1872, and which has recently celebrated its fortieth anniversary, was in a sense a direct successor of the Woman's Central Association of Relief. Miss Schuyler brought into its original membership a large number of women in New York City and throughout the state, who had been fellow workers with her during the war.*

—Ed.]



AT COOPER UNION, 1861-1865.

Miss Ellen Collins writing. From left to right: Miss Gertrude Stevens; Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler; Mrs. William Preston Griffin; Mrs. d'Oremleux.

**I**N a modest house in West Eleventh Street in this city there lived, for over sixty years, and there died, last July, in her eighty-fifth year, a lady whose name should not be allowed to pass without further notice.

For Miss Ellen Collins played no inconspicuous part in New York City during the Civil War, from 1861 until 1865, and for many years afterwards. Her father, Joseph B. Collins, of the So-

ciety of Friends, was a well known and much respected citizen. Abhorrent as war was to their creed, the moral issues at stake, the antislavery element involved, the preservation of the nation, so appealed to them that Lincoln had no more staunch supporters than were to be found among the Friends. Ellen Collins fully shared in this sentiment. It was a pure spirit of patriotic devotion which led her steps, day by day,



during the four years of the war, from the little house in Eleventh Street to the office of the Sanitary Commission, in Cooper Union. The slight, active little figure, the bright, sweet face were well known to the many who came and went, while her cheerfulness, her force of character and self-restraint, and her sustaining faith through the dark days of the terrible conflict were unfailing. Once only does the writer of these lines remember a time of deep depression. The news had come of Lincoln's assassination, and the iron seemed to have entered her soul. Silently she went about her work, but the look in her face told the story.

As chairman of the Committee on Supplies of the Woman's Central Association of Relief, the New York branch of the United States Sanitary Commission, Miss Collins was, all through the war, in charge of the incoming and outgoing of the large quantities of supplies given to the sick and wounded soldiers, through the Sanitary Commission, by the loyal women of this and adjoining states. These came, almost entirely,

from New York, Connecticut, Vermont, Rhode Island and northern New Jersey. Every day old Roberts, the faithful porter of No. 11 Cooper Union, would place the boxes in a long row and raise the lids; every day would come a corps of young lady "Volunteer Aids" to unpack the miscellaneous articles, sort and place them in designated bins, stamp them with the stamp of the Sanitary Commission, and repack the same boxes (one kind of article only in each box now), after which they were nailed up by Roberts, appropriately marked, and wheeled off to the store house, ready to be shipped at shortest notice.

A system was adopted whereby each box could be identified and traced. Miss Collins saw to it that each was acknowledged; conducted a large correspondence; made out and sent weekly lists of supplies in hand to the headquarters of the Sanitary Commission in Washington, from which orders for shipment were received. On week days, and often on Sundays on the eve of a battle, would come an urgent telegram from



**HEADQUARTERS WOMAN'S CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF RELIEF**

New York Branch United States Sanitary Commission. The association was organized April 20, 1861; dissolved July 7, 1865.



Washington to forward specified hospital supplies without delay. Then teamsters were summoned and, under the supervision of Mr. Bridgham, in an incredibly short time, the heavily laden drays could be seen wending their way to railway station or steamship pier.

Large shipments went by sea to southern ports, as these were successively occupied by the Union forces; among others to City Point, Va.; Newbern, N. C.; Beaufort and Port Royal, S. C.; and to New Orleans; but the largest consignments went to Washington, for the Army of the Potomac. Floating-hospitals and hospital-cars were also supplied.

In a very complete statistical table, giving itemized receipts and distributions of hospital supplies, compiled by Miss Collins as her final report at the close of the war, and covering the four years (the association was dissolved July 7, 1865) we find the names of forty different places to which supplies were sent, and 1,920 different towns and villages (these including centers of collection) from which supplies were received. To give some idea of the magnitude of the supply department of this one branch of the Sanitary Commission, we quote a few items only, from Miss Collins' figures. Of woolen and cotton shirts, there were received and distributed, 291,475; drawers, 166,000 pairs; of socks (knit by the women at home), 125,818 pairs; wrappers, 16,808. Of sheets and pillow cases, 130,581; blankets and quilts, 33,766; pillows and cushions, 66,815. Of towels, over 120,000; handkerchiefs, 169,811. Barrels of lint, bandages, old linen and cotton numbered 1,695. Of home-made delicacies from the farms are jellies, jams, dried fruits, pickles, raspberry vinegar, syrup and the like. And those who have unpacked those boxes well remember the many little things put in by loving hands, "comfort bags" filled with buttons, thread and needles, with which the awkward fingers of the soldier boy might mend his clothes, or a book of poetry, or an amusing story, an illustrated paper, or a Bible or Prayer Book. Surely the Sanitary Commission has been justly described as "the bearer of the people's love to the people's army."

Systematic and methodical, and enjoying the business side of the work which appealed to her, and which she did so well, Miss Collins had also a tender heart for the women at home, for those who kept on sending their hospital boxes through the long years, often at great personal sacrifice. In one of her reports, she writes (May, 1862): "Throughout the heat of summer and storms of winter, seed time and harvest, the little sewing circles of twelve or fifteen members have kept up their weekly meetings. One

letter says: 'Ours is a little village and we are poor, but if anything more is wanted, do not hesitate to call upon us again.' Only those who have seen these letters, all breathing the same spirit of love and patriotism, from the little villages and towns hundreds of miles away, can appreciate the sacrifices and the noble spirit of those true-hearted, loyal women."

Miss Collins had a strong, abiding affection for her fellow-workers—for the friends made during the war. On her own Committee on Supplies she was most ably sustained by Miss Gertrude Stevens (now Mrs. William B. Rice), Mrs. d'Orémieux and Mr. Samuel W. Bridgham, all of whom worked with her through the four years, Mr. Bridgham coming daily to the office to direct the work of porters and teamsters. Other members, among her friends, who were actively engaged at the same time on other committees (for providing hospital nurses, special relief, raising money, correspondence, organizing soldiers' aid societies, etc.) were Mrs. William Preston Griffin, Dr. Emily Blackwell, Mrs. John A. Swett, Mrs. Hamilton Fish, Miss Angelina Post (now Mrs. C. Wister Hodge), Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler, Mr. Howard Potter and Dr. William H. Draper. Miss Josephine Shaw, until her marriage to Colonel Charles Russell Lowell, in 1863, was a member of Miss Collins' committee; while, among the Volunteer Aids, one recalls Miss Agnes Irwin, later dean of Radcliffe, Miss J. L. Field (now Lady Musgrave) and Miss Ellen Shaw (now Mrs. Francis C. Barlow).

Miss Collins had great admiration and regard for the president and founder of the United States Sanitary Commission, the Rev. Henry W. Bellows, D.D., who was also the organizer of the Woman's Central Association of Relief and always deeply interested in its work. For many years it was her great pleasure to meet with her fellow-workers on the anniversary of the founding of the association, April 29, 1861. Of the original managers and their successors—twelve men and twelve women—the first mixed board so constituted, it is believed, in New York city, only four are now living.

The war being over, Miss Collins turned her activities to the improvement of tenement house conditions—an account of which has already been given by another pen; to the visiting of insane asylums, and to working for the Freedmen. But the cause nearest her heart, and to which she gave her best efforts, was that of serving her country in the ranks of the United States Sanitary Commission during the days of the great War of the Rebellion.



# PRE-NATAL CARE OF THE NEXT GENERATION

MRS. WILLIAM LOWELL PUTNAM

**T**HE first step is the most important for everyone of us whether it be the first step into life or into any undertaking of our maturer years. For if this be a misstep, the lameness caused by it will make our progress halting; and if it be in the wrong direction each subsequent step will increase the evil.

The pre-natal period cannot literally be called for any man the first step in his career, because antedating that is the initial act of his creation. Yet until we are ready for drastic measures in preventing unfit reproduction we may reasonably characterize as our first step that period in which, although we have begun to be ourselves, we have not yet crossed the threshold of conscious existence.

It was to demonstrate what gain would result from taking this first step rightly that the committee on infant social service of the Women's Municipal League of Boston began in April, 1909, an experiment in pre-natal care. The results have proved so satisfactory that last year the Boston Lying-In Hospital established a pre-natal clinic with a visiting nurse to carry on the work previously done for their house patients by the Women's Municipal League. The Boston Board of Health also began in 1911 to send two nurses throughout the city to care for mothers and babies before as well as after birth. They have now increased the number to ten. A permanent committee consisting of obstetricians, social workers and trained nurses has also been formed in Boston to standardize and co-ordinate all pre-natal work being done in the city, to the end that it shall become as customary for all women as care is now at the moment of a child's birth. As the methods worked out by the Women's Municipal League are those adopted by this permanent committee it seems desirable to give them in some detail.

The principle of the league has been that pregnancy is a normal function and should not only be entered upon but carried through under as normal conditions as possible, not in a rest house, but in the woman's home, and that if the home conditions are wrong the remedy lies not in removing the woman but in improving the home. A woman is peculiarly susceptible when she is carrying a child and there-



NINETEEN MONTHS OLD

This baby boy was under the care of the committee on infant social service of the Women's Municipal League of Boston during the full term of pregnancy. He was the only one of his mother's three children to live. The first child was under the committee's care only a short time and died of cerebral hemorrhage in the first week of life, delivery being by high forceps. The child in the picture was delivered by the Caesarian operation. The third child had no pre-natal care by the committee and the mother suffered miscarriage at five months.

fore at this time she can be led more readily than later, to make all the influences—both physical and spiritual—surrounding her baby, as nearly perfect as it is possible for her to make them. This works for the good of the whole family, though naturally most of all for the two lives immediately concerned. The character of the nurses doing this work is therefore even more important than that of other nurses.

The number of patients cared for thus far has been between 1,200 and 1,300 and they have been ordinary women living under ordinary conditions. Most of them are of the working class, which has but little or no margin in money matters, dependent wholly on daily work for daily bread. They have come under the care of the Women's Municipal League in various ways, reported by maternity hospitals, dispensaries, charitable agencies and individuals, and a few by private physicians.

We insist that all shall be under medical care for neither nurse nor layman should assume medical responsibility, and the committee consists entirely of one or the other.

The routine of the committee calls for a visit at least every ten days, however well the patient may be, and if anything untoward arises visits are made as much oftener as may be necessary. The nurse advises the patient with regard to diet, clothing, fresh air, the free use of water both for drinking and bathing, rest, recreation, and work, but she never goes beyond these natural safeguards or trespasses on medical preserves further than to prescribe cascara internally or to strap an aching back for external relief. At every visit she takes the blood pressure and tests the urine, in the hope of thus discovering and warding off cases of possible eclampsia. These tests have been made regularly only since February, 1912, and the statistics of the blood pressure are kept on carefully prepared charts as a piece of research work which was exhibited recently in Washington at the International Congress on Hygiene and Demography.

The result of the care in reducing the number of cases which show symptoms of threatened eclampsia, or Bright's Disease as the layman calls it, has been most gratifying. During the first year of the work the percentage of cases



which showed symptoms of this dreaded disease was 10.2 of the total number cared for, which is about the general average; the second year this was reduced to 4.8 per cent; and last year it was only 1.7 per cent. This with a constantly increasing number of patients.

With one nurse this number has amounted to 1,297 carried to confinement, besides a large number who, for one reason or another, it has not been possible to watch to the end of the term. There is a certain class of family which seems to have a predilection for moving away and leaving no address—it is a painful but universal experience. By methodical arrangement of visits from eighty to one hundred patients can be carried on the books of one nurse without allowing more than ten days to pass between the visits.

No patient has died during pregnancy, and only three at confinement in the whole period. Of the four cases where eclampsia developed, all of the babies and three of the mothers were saved by the promptness of the measures taken. The fourth died a month after the birth of her child of puerperal septicemia.

In the first year there were two miscarriages, only one in the second, and none in the past two years. The percentage of still births has been 2.7 per cent as against a usual average of 3.8 per cent where no pre-natal care has been given. The babies born prematurely are also relatively few—2.1 per cent of the total number. Counting even these premature infants, the average birth weight of the babies for the full time of the work has been seven pounds eight and one-half ounces, and for the last year seven pounds fifteen ounces, the general average weight of a baby at birth being seven pounds two and one-half ounces. It seems as if this additional weight must be of help to the child in giving it more capital to draw on while getting adjusted to the difficult conditions met at birth, yet it is not sufficient to make childbirth more difficult for the mother.

The cost of this help to mother and child has been only \$2.61 per patient, a sum so small that many of the women can easily pay it. The effort is made to have them do so when it is possible, for the committee feels that it promotes the self-respect of the patients to pay the expenses of their care, and also that a self-supporting work is much more valuable to the community than one supported by charity. This is true whether the charity be made possible through public or private philanthropy, for work which is self-supporting has an unlimited power of growth. It is well to try experiments with money given for the purpose but this help should be withdrawn as soon as the work has proved itself of sufficient value to stand alone.

The patients are under the care of the committee on an average between two and three

months, but many have been cared for six and seven months, and in one case for the full known term of pregnancy. This length of care is what is most desired, for it enables the patients, both mother and baby, to avoid many pitfalls. This is shown graphically by the case just referred to. The mother had lost her first baby from a contracted pelvis which necessitated the use of instruments and caused the death of the baby from cerebral hemorrhage during its first week of life. With the second child she put herself under the care of the committee as soon as she thought that her longing for another baby was about to be realized. For eight months she was watched most closely and at the end of the time by Caesarian section she was delivered of a boy, weighing seven pounds six ounces, in perfect condition in every way. She had not wholly understood the importance of care in the early months, however, and so when she became pregnant for the third time she failed to apply to the committee for the nurse's help because "every one said to wait till the sixth or seventh month." At five months she miscarried.

The patients are almost without exception grateful for the help and comfort given them by the nurse's visits, and many of them are thoroughly appreciative. One woman after her confinement begged the nurse to come and see her baby because she said she felt that the nurse had a share in him (with her first baby she had had much trouble, whereas with this one all had gone well). "Nurse, after your visit I feel so much better," she often hears, or "Nurse, I keep my questions to ask you." "My husband thinks it fine having a nurse call, and he wants me to ask you"—and then follows a string of questions about the mother or the coming baby that all young couples would like to have answered. Often she has a chance to correct old wives' tales poured into the ears of her patients by neighbors whose qualifications for the position of advisor are like those of the old woman found by a settlement nurse feeding her grandchild by hanging a fountain syringe full of milk from the mantelpiece and putting the end of the tube in the baby's mouth as it lay in its basket on the floor. This process had the result that should have been expected, and to the nurse's objections the grandmother replied, "Shouldn't I know how to feed a baby, haven't I buried fourteen?"

The effect the nurse's visits may have on the entire household is (rather amazingly) illustrated by the case of a young husband who changed his diet to that advised for his wife and thought his health distinctly improved by the change. The absurdity of this tickles the fancy yet it indicates what influence the nurse can have.

The results are usually most satisfactory in cases of women about to bear their first child



because they realize their ignorance and are apt to be eager for advice. Yet one patient who was cared for in her sixth pregnancy wrote afterward that she had done everything the nurse had told her and had never before had such an easy time. One very valuable result of the work has been that a good many women who were planning to board out their babies have been persuaded to keep them.

The spiritual possibilities of the work are great and to develop them the nurse must become a real friend to the women. A member of the committee is herself a nurse in a settlement house and gives to her neighbors the best kind of pre-natal care because it fills their spiritual as well as their physical need. She gathers them together by the firelight for weekly talks. She has stamp savings books for their pennies, and pastes them over with pretty little lambs and flowers and babies' heads, because these stand for the sweetness of life. On Easter morning at seven o'clock she had a party for these neighbors. The breakfast table was set for Easter and for babies. Little white chickens and bunnies gamboled over the table-cloth under a bunch of tiny white and yellow blossoms. In a tall vase close by horse chestnuts uncurled their furry buds like opening baby hands, and beside each plate was set one white crocus growing in a little pot, and a tiny white candle, which to these women is the symbol of the light of the little life to come forth. Everything was perfect except that Mrs. McSweeney had had something stronger than her early cup of tea. This filled Mrs. McSweeney with that spirit with which we are all sadly familiar, and she uttered it forth, declaring that she wasn't going to "get caught that way again," etc. The spirit of the little party flickered, it was going out, but Miss Strong had an inspiration. As they sat down at table she asked Mrs. McSweeney to say grace. Such a thing had never been done before and Mrs. McSweeney's tongue clave to the roof of her mouth, but though her tongue refused, her soul rose up above the strong drink. With bowed heads each said her silent grace and the spirit of Easter returned to the twelve women there gathered together. Miss Strong had succeeded and the babies had their Easter.

One of the great benefits to be derived from

pre-natal care is the education of the prospective mother not only in the proper way to care for her coming baby after it arrives, but also at the time of its arrival. It should do much to reduce the number of women employing ignorant practitioners and midwives, and to substitute for them proper medical obstetrical care, which would be of untold advantage to the present and to future generations.

If pre-natal care is to become, as we trust it will, a regular accompaniment of pregnancy, it could most cheaply be given by a trained nurse working under a physician, rather than by the physician himself. Such care given to private patients would of necessity cost more than when the patients are hospital cases, because more of the nurse's time would be taken up in reporting cases to different doctors than where she can report them all at one place. It should not cost, however, more than \$5 or \$6 per patient. For this price the best possible care should be assured to those women who cannot afford to call in the doctor except in case of illness. Even among the rich the method would be desirable, for it is unnecessary and wasteful for a doctor to spend his time in visiting a patient who is perfectly well merely to see that she continues so when this object can be accomplished satisfactorily and at greatly reduced cost by employing a trained nurse who shall report to the doctor the slightest sign of trouble. For the rich it is desirable, for the poor it is essential, because among those of moderate means this is the only way in which they can receive pre-natal care.

This system has three advantages over anything except equally frequent doctor's visits. First, the patient would be assured good care, for through the nurse's visits a doctor would often be called in in cases where the patient herself is usually too ignorant of the danger of her condition to summon him. Second, it would increase the physician's practice for the same reason. Third, the nurse would be supported. Its advantages over such frequent visits by the physician himself lies in its greater cheapness. The plan of having a nurse keep the doctor in touch with all of his patients, yet calling him in only when he is really needed is the efficient and business-like way of caring for them.

## EUGENICS

MARY VIDA CLARK

*We got a queer disease, my sister 'n I,  
That makes folks allers give us the go-by,  
'Tain't nothin' like the measles nor the mumps;  
It don't come out in spots, nor yet in bumps.  
It's cuz o' somethin' 't happened long ago,  
When we was home with Ma an' Pa, yer know,  
An' Pa was out o' work fer most a year,*

*An' Ma was sick. O my, you'd oughter hear  
Her cough! 'Twas fierce! An' Pa, he useter say:  
"The kids 'd do well if we was out the way."  
So then he up an' shot hisself an' Ma.  
Folks said 'at he was kinder crazed—poor Pa!  
An' somehow 'n other that give Meg an' me  
This queer disease they call "heredity."*



# CONSTRUCTIVE INVESTIGATION AND THE INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION OF WISCONSIN

JOHN R. COMMONS

MEMBER WISCONSIN INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION

[*The Wisconsin Industrial Commission represents a new and promising stage in the development of public supervision of industrial conditions. The commissioners are in constant receipt of inquiries as to its plan and workings. Professor Commons' article may be called the first rounded statement as to its scope and work. In THE SURVEY for December 21, the general movement toward rehabilitating the work of factory and labor departments throughout the United States was set forth by Mrs. Andrews. Together, these two articles make an exceedingly noteworthy contribution to the industrial literature of the year.—Ed.*]

EMPLOYERS of Wisconsin paid \$1,025,000 to liability insurance companies in 1911; scarcely \$300,000 of it reached the pockets of the employees or their dependents. Ten thousand industrial accidents occur in Wisconsin each year; 100 of these are fatal; the others cause disability of seven days or more. But scarcely 10 per cent of the injured received any share of the \$300,000.

This is the big problem of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin—to reduce the \$1,025,000 paid by employers, to raise the \$300,000 received by employees, and to distribute it among 10,000 instead of 1,000 employees. The commission has a margin of \$725,000 to work upon, and a great margin of public welfare to promote. It can reduce the \$1,025,000 by reducing accidents and improving the health of employees. It can increase the \$300,000 and distribute it better by fixing definitely the compensation for all employees.

Instead of creating a commission to administer the compensation law, and then leaving the factory inspector to enforce the safety laws, as other states have done, the Wisconsin legislature of 1911 consolidated the two departments in a single commission. And instead of specifying the many details of factory inspection, the legislature boiled them down into one paragraph, requiring the employer to protect the life, safety, health and welfare of employees, and authorizing the commission to draw up rules and orders specifying the details as to how it should be done.

## *What the Commission Is*

The commission is a fourth branch of government combining, but not usurping, the work of the three other branches. It is a legislature continually in session; yet the power of legislation is not delegated. It is an executive sharing with the governor the enforcement of laws, but

also enforcing its own orders. It is a court, deciding cases that the judiciary formerly decided, but not assuming the authority of the courts.

This fourth function of government is sometimes designated as the administrative function. But administration, as usually understood, is merely the details of execution. Administration and execution are synonymous. The real distinction which entitles the commission to its position as a fourth branch of government, is not administration, but investigation and research. But its investigations are not the academic research of the laboratory and study, nor the journalistic investigation of the agitator, but the constructive investigation of the administrator. It is this constructive investigation that gives to the commission its lawful position in government and its effective position in the enforcement of law.

## *Function of Constructive Investigation*

Constructive investigation should tell us whether the damage to the employee is public in its nature, requiring legislation, or only private, requiring exhortation. It should reveal the nature and cause of the injury, its cure and the practicability of its prevention. It should lead to such administration of the law that those enjoined to obey it would respect and support it.

We concede that in legislation and administration for the protection of health and safety of employees, we are behind the nations of Europe. This is due partly to ignorance through lack of investigation, partly to piecemeal legislation that hits one evil at a time when it gets sufficiently exposed, partly to the veto of our courts. To those who, perhaps, look upon Americans as materialistic, we might protest that we have put into practice Plato's ideal of government by philosophers, for we have set apart a faculty of sociological philosophers in each state and the nation, who have the last word on our laws and



their administration. Their vetoes often expound the philosophy that preceded the French Revolution, numbering such sages as Grotius, Rousseau and Montesquieu, and such doctrines as the law of nature, natural rights and the general will. In harmony with the latter, and in conformity with constitutions framed during the vogue of that philosophy, they separate the body politic into three departments—the legislative, representing the general will, the executive, physically enforcing it, and the judiciary, the intellect over all.

Recently some dissatisfaction has arisen over this division of functions. It has shown itself in threats to "recall" the judges or to "recall their decisions." For some time, too, the executive departments, from president down to policeman, have not been content blindly to follow the legislature as the sole custodian of the general will, and have taken to themselves considerable discretion in enforcing the laws. Citizens, also, take liberties with the general will, trusting to slip through somewhere between the three branches of government.

But the courts have begun to recognize another branch of government. This branch has come forth especially to provide for that extension of the police power required to meet the rapidly changing and widely varying conditions of modern life and business. It, therefore, combines to a certain degree, the activities of legislation, execution and judgment; but its peculiar activity, which gives it a separate place as the custodian of the police power in the body politic, is that of investigation. It is upon the validity of its investigations that it is allowed to execute the general will and to survive the scrutiny of the courts.

### *The "Reasonableness" of Investigation*

The doctrine which the court applies to this function of investigation is both the noblest and the most practical of legal doctrines—"reasonableness." By this doctrine the court applies its philosophy to the particular facts, but requires that all of the facts be taken into account. The drastic program of disciplining the courts by the recall, on the ground that they are removed from acquaintance with the common life and are living in an eighteenth century philosophy, might be somewhat modified if advantage were taken of this exalted doctrine. It may be that the critics of the judiciary have not performed their part in bringing before the court all of the facts of the modern development of industry and society which the doctrine of reasonableness requires. Counsel often leaves the court in the predicament of falling back on its own knowledge of what is "common knowledge." Often this kind of knowledge is several years behind the times, because a serious injury to the com-

mon good usually arises and spreads extensively before the scientific experts and the journalistic agitators are able to make it a matter of common knowledge. The investigative branch of government should be the one that furnishes the court with judicial knowledge of injury to the public in advance of common knowledge. Being also an administrative branch, it should carry over promptly the results of scientific investigation into their practical application. Its function of the police power is the power of reasonable regulation through constructive investigation.

The legal doctrine of reasonableness provides ample opportunity for protective legislation if once its principles and procedure are complied with. It requires that all of the facts must be considered and weighed "as may be just and right in each case." It prohibits class legislation but permits classification. The one is based on merely private or class benefit, the other on public benefit ascertained by investigation. While permitting reasonable classification it requires equal treatment of all in the same class. Its conclusions must be practicable under existing conditions.

The procedure for securing these standards are well known to the law. They center on the main requirement that all parties affected shall have opportunity to be heard, and when this is complied with, the findings of the properly constituted board or commission become *prima facie* the facts of the case and the reasonable regulation to be enforced. Its findings are the conclusive results of constructive investigation.

Thus, in addition to the legislature expressing the general will, the judiciary testing it by its political philosophy of the constitution, and the executive enforcing it, we have the administrative branch of government investigating its application to existing conditions in the light of existing science and practice, for the information of all branches of government.

The several states and the federal Congress have recently sought in various fields to elevate this work of investigation to the high position in our frame of government that the courts had assigned to it in the procedure of government. The legislatures had previously from time to time broken up the executive department by creating separate departments to execute specific commands of the legislature. Usually a single officer was placed at the head of each of these departments, until a great variety of minor executives had arisen, such as the health officer, the factory inspector, the railroad commissioner, and so on.

At the same time the legislature attempted to enumerate in detail the things that each officer should do and each citizen obey. Two difficulties appeared. The courts often declared the



elaborate laws unconstitutional, as being unreasonable, and the executives were restrained from dealing with any specific evil that the legislature had failed to enumerate. These difficulties first appeared in the health department, and the legislatures proceeded to change the character of that department by creating a board of physicians, with power to issue orders based on their expert knowledge, and having the force of law, though not enumerated in the law. Next, in the regulation of railroads, instead of the detailed schedules of rates that characterized the early granger laws, the legislatures advanced to the position which culminated in the railroad and public utility laws of Wisconsin,—of merely declaring (what the courts had already declared) that rates and services should be "reasonable," but creating a commission with powers of investigation equal to those of the courts, to discover and announce in each case as it arose what was the reasonable rate or service. Where the investigations of the courts are limited by the technical rules of testimony, the commission can investigate, on its own initiative and in its own way, all the circumstances that it considers relevant. In fact, the commission is made a kind of standing referee of the court, directed by the legislature to report all of the facts that go to determine what is reasonable. Instead of a referee appointed by the court, usually a lawyer with the lawyer's limitations as to the relative value of different facts, the commission is a body of men compelled by their duties to give weight to social and economic facts that otherwise do not get before the court.

### *Extension of This Principle*

Wisconsin now has ventured to adopt this same principle in matters of labor legislation. The occasion grew out of the adoption of a workmen's compensation law, wherein it was deemed necessary to create a state Industrial Accident Board with power to decide all disputed claims for compensation. These claims, in the Wisconsin law, are not specific amounts for enumerated injuries, but are a certain proportion of the loss in wages. The accident board was made the investigating body to ascertain the actual loss in each case where appeal was made, and to make an award on that basis.

At the same time it was realized that compensation should not be merely a new kind of employer's liability, but should be an additional means of preventing accidents. Consequently, the legislature proceeded to abolish the old bureau of factory inspection, as well as the industrial accident board, which it had just created, and to merge the two into a new administrative and investigating board, to be known as the Industrial Commission. Instead of the long list of wily dangerous points, such as set screws, belts, fire

escapes, dust, etc., which successive legislatures had accumulated during the past thirty years, the new law expresses the general will in the most general way, as the duty of the employer to safeguard the life, health, safety and welfare of employes and frequenters, and the duty of employes to co-operate with their employers.

The law applies as broadly as possible, not to enumerated factories, shops, etc., but to all "places of employment," except agricultural and domestic employments not using mechanical power. In effect, all physical property used to furnish employment to labor is declared to be "affected by a public use," and must be so managed as to promote the public welfare in the persons of those who come within its zone of danger.

The definition of safety is not that of the "ordinary" safety of the common law, but "such freedom from danger to the life, health or safety of employes or frequenters, as the nature of the employment will reasonably permit." The definition of welfare is "comfort, decency and moral well being."

### *Field of the Commission*

Here, then, is the field of investigation assigned to the commission. It must call to its aid scientific experts in engineering and hygiene. It must ascertain where danger lies and where life, health, safety and welfare are menaced. It must discover the devices, processes and management that will avoid these dangers, and must ascertain whether they are practicable. This is the constructive investigation that conforms to reasonableness. Once ascertained and published as an "order" of the commission, the conclusions of its investigations have the force of law, the will of the legislature is executed, the philosophy of the court is observed.

As a matter of economy to the state and convenience to employers, as well as recognition of the wide scope of administrative investigation, all of the departments dealing with employes and employment were consolidated under the same commission. These include the state employment offices, the board of arbitration, child labor, street trades, truancy, women's hours of labor, apprenticeship, etc. In the matter of employment the commission is authorized to use all of its power to eliminate unemployment, by the establishment of free offices, supervision of private agencies, co-operation with agencies for vocational and industrial education, etc. In the matter of arbitration it is limited to voluntary conciliation, with powers of compulsory investigation. The legislature did not go so far as to authorize the commission to investigate and determine reasonable hours of labor for women and children, apart from the rigid limits laid



down in the law, so that the procedure described in this article applies mainly to life, health, safety, welfare and compensation, with limited application to unemployment, conciliation and street trades.

In the matter of organization, such a combination of duties as deliberation, investigation, hearings, findings of fact, and execution of laws, suggests a board or commission of more than one member, acting jointly, instead of the single head of an executive department. Although each matter is determined jointly, yet each requires to be handled from the three standpoints of legality, investigation and execution. The members cannot be experts in all the technical fields of engineering, hygiene, sanitation and so on, but they certainly must be capable of conducting investigations and determining their scope and the legality of their action, as well as organizing and handling a field force of inspectors and deputies. The industrial commission law leaves to the governor and senate a wide range of selection, in that the specific qualifications of commissioners are not prescribed, but the selections actually made at the inauguration of the present commission have been made with this threefold division of law, investigation and execution in mind.

#### *Decisive Factors in Administration*

It goes without saying that the selection of commissioners and the selection of subordinates are the two decisive factors that determine the success or failure of administration. Wisconsin has had for seven years a Civil Service Commission, and nearly all of the employes of the Industrial Commission were placed under the provisions of the civil service law. This has worked to advantage, although the industrial commission law has required a reversal of the original theory of civil service examinations. Instead of classified positions and salaries fixed by the legislature, the Industrial Commission fixes the compensation of its employes, makes its own classification and transfers employes from one class to another. The legislature creates but two positions, that of "deputies" and that of clerks. The intention is to substitute for the competition of candidates for a job fixed by the legislature, the opposite process of competing against other employers for the services of employes fitted for positions which the commission creates. The civil service law is indispensable, in that it offers a permanent tenure similar to that of private employment. It obstructs, if conducted in such a way that those who are doing the best work for private employers are unwilling to become candidates in a formal examination for a public office. The Civil Service Commission of Wisconsin adapts its examinations to these conditions, so that through co-

operation of the two commissions, the deputies of the Industrial Commission are coming to have the full confidence of employers and employes as practical men.

This, it will be seen, is essential in the conduct of investigations and the administration of orders that shall comply with the doctrine of reasonableness. When the commission began its work of selecting its staff it had entertained the idea that it should place at the head of its safety and sanitation work engineering and medical experts. But after interviewing a number of these experts, it was discovered that they considered their problem to be that of drawing up ideal or standard specifications, which the commission should then go out with a "big stick" and compel employers to adopt.

For two reasons, this was decided to be impossible. A monarchical country, like Germany, with its executive independent of political changes, might call in its experts and be governed by them, but a democratic country would not consent to be ruled by those whose ideal standards might be removed from the every-day conditions of business. This decision of the commission also conforms to the doctrine of reasonableness, which requires practicability adapted to existing conditions. It was found that most of the successful work in safety and sanitation during the past ten years had not been in charge of technical engineers, but had been in charge of shop men or even claim agents of the corporation; and their success had come about, not mainly through their knowledge as mechanical experts, but through their ability to get the services of engineers and medical men when needed, and especially their ability to get the co-operation of superintendents, foremen and workmen in a united effort to stop accidents and preserve health. In other words, they were experts in arousing the spirit of "safety first" and in organizing the shop so as to keep that spirit on top. For, scarcely a third of the accidents can be prevented merely by mechanical safeguards—at least two-thirds must be prevented by attention, instruction and discipline.

#### *The Technical Expert*

It is also this spirit of safety among the shopmen that brings out the most effective safeguards—effective in the sense of full protection without interfering with output. The engineer can devise safeguards—he needs the shop man to safeguard the output. The "safety expert" is the one who can bring these two elements together and thus work out the practical rules for the commission to adopt. He guides the investigators who determine what is "reasonable" both in the shop and in court. It is for this reason that the Wisconsin Commission has not been



able to follow the remarkable and extensive safeguards devised and enforced in Germany. They seem to lack that element of practicability, which the shopman, as distinguished from the technical expert, insists upon.

But in the arrangement finally decided upon, the scientist, the engineer, the physician, the sanitarian, who are the technical experts, are called in and utilized, just as they are in private employment, when their services are needed and when the practical men have problems beyond their technical knowledge. If, however, the scientists dominated the investigations, their results, however brilliant and conclusive, might not be reasonable. Their investigations are indispensable and fundamental, and must be taken into account, and should be liberally provided for. But, unless they lead to practicability, which only can be supplied by the practical man, they run the risk of unconstitutionality. It is for this reason that the representative of the Wisconsin Commission, at the meeting of the section on hygiene of occupations of the recent International Congress on Hygiene and Demography, resisted the proposed resolution of turning over all investigations of industrial hygiene to medical men. A similar resolution had been adopted, naturally enough, at a previous session held in Europe. The American delegates were willing to accept the substitute that investigations in physiology and pathology should be entrusted to medical men, but this substitute was not approved by the permanent commission. Constructive investigation differs from scientific investigation in that it must be guided towards practical ends under existing conditions. The distinction is vital in America, if not in Europe, for that which is scientific may be unconstitutional, because not reasonably practical.

### *The Use of Advisors*

But the selection of a proper staff is not enough to insure practicability. The Wisconsin law authorizes the commission to appoint "advisors" without compensation, to assist the commission in any of its duties. Acting on this authority the commission invited the Wisconsin Manufacturers' Association and the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association of Milwaukee as well as other associations of special trades, such as the master bakers, the woodworkers, etc., to name representatives; also the State Federation of Labor, the employers' liability insurance companies and the Mutual Employers' Liability Association organized in Wisconsin after the German model under the compensation law; and in addition the commission invited certain corporations which had done the best safety work in the state to permit their safety experts to meet with the committees. The commission also secured the assistance of physicians on special subjects, of the chief sanitary officers of

the cities of Milwaukee and Chicago, of the State Board of Health and the State Hygienic Laboratory, and representatives of the Consumers' League and the State Federation of Women's Clubs. These various representatives were grouped into a main Committee on Safety and Sanitation, with sub-committees on boilers, elevators, bakeries, sanitation, and so on, and deputies of the commission were assigned to work with them. In this way the commission has had the assistance of scientific experts, of representatives of the interests affected by the orders to be issued, representatives of the public as consumers, representatives of overlapping agencies such as insurance companies and boards of health, and its own experts.

This has brought to the commission the assistance of some of the leading men of the state in their several lines of work. These men have given an astonishing amount of time, at their own expense, which, if paid for at commercial rates, would have required an expenditure far beyond the appropriation which the legislature allowed to the commission. Such men have looked upon their work not merely as a public service, but mainly as a vital matter in the future conduct of manufacturing in the state. The following partial list of these advisory committees indicates the wide range of representative expert and practical men to whom the commission and the state are indebted for this fundamental part of its work:

Committee on Safety and Sanitation: representing Wisconsin State Federation of Labor: Joseph Gressler, machinist, Milwaukee; George Krogstad, patternmaker, Milwaukee.

Representing Milwaukee Merchants & Manufacturers' Association: Charles P. Bossert, Pfister & Vogel Leather Company; Edward J. Kearney, Kearney & Trecker Company (machinery), chairman of committee.

Representing Milwaukee Health Department: Joseph Dertfus, chief sanitary inspector.

Representing Wisconsin Manufacturers Association: Thomas McNeill, Sheboygan Chair Company, Sheboygan; H. W. Bolens, Gilson Manufacturing Company (engines), Port Washington.

Representing Employers' Mutual Liability Company, Wausau: W. C. Landon (lumber), Wausau.

Representing Industrial Commission of Wisconsin: John W. Mapel, Pfister & Vogel Leather Company; Fred W. McKee, Fairbanks-Morse Company (engines), Beloit; Ira L. Lockney, deputy to the Industrial Commission; C. W. Price, assistant to the Industrial Commission and secretary of the committee.

Sub-committee on Elevators: C. F. Ringer, inspector of buildings, City of Milwaukee; Otto Fischer, inspector of elevators, City of Milwaukee; P. Jermala, Otis Elevator Company; F. A. Barker, inspector of safety, Aetna Life Insurance Company; G. N. Chapman, inspector of safety, Travelers' Insurance Company; John Humphrey, deputy to Industrial Commission; C. W. Price, assistant to Industrial Commission.

Sub-committee on Boilers: Theodore Vilter, superintendent Vilter Manufacturing Company (boilers); W. D. Johnson, secretary, Milwaukee Boiler Company; H. F. Bowie, boiler inspector, Hartford Steam Boiler Insurance & Inspection Company; J. Humphrey, deputy to Industrial Commission; R. Kunz, chief examiner and inspector of stationary engines, Board of Examiners of Milwaukee.

Sub-committee on Electricity: Walter Nield, chief electrician Illinois Steel Company, Milwaukee; Charles Dietz, chief electrician, Commonwealth Power Company, Milwaukee; Thomas E. Barnum, chief electrician of a company making controlling apparatus, and chairman of the Electric Engineers' Society of Milwaukee; P. A. Schroeder and W. S. Gute, State Federation of Labor.



Sub-committee on Sanitation: Fred Swartz, Pfister & Vogel Leather Company, Milwaukee; H. W. Page, Sturtevant Company; A. W. Ruttan, Metal Polishers' Union, Milwaukee; C. B. Ball, chief sanitary inspector, Board of Health, Chicago.

Committee on Safety Exhibit: Walter Goll, factory manager, Fort Wayne Electric Works, Madison; Hobart S. Johnson, vice-president, Gisholt Machine Company, Madison; Frank C. Niebuhr, Carpenters' Union, Madison.

Committee on Bakeries: Frank Schlifer, Association of Master Bakers, Milwaukee; August Schmitt, Association of Master Bakers, Milwaukee; M. H. Carpenter, Wisconsin Association of Master Bakers, Milwaukee; R. Colvin, Wisconsin Wholesale Bakers' Association, Janesville; C. B. Ball, chief sanitary inspector, Board of Health, Chicago; C. J. Kremer, bakery inspector, Industrial Commission.

These committees proceed to make their investigations, to draw up tentative rules and to submit them to the commission for public hearings. After the hearings, the rules are referred back to the committee for further investigation, and finally, as rapidly as completed, are issued by the commission as "General Orders" applying to the entire state, and are published in the official paper and in the bulletins of the commission.

The commission has also been greatly aided by the federal Bureau of Labor, which made investigations of laundries and pea canning establishments in the state, availing itself of contemporaneous investigations made by the commission. The bureau's investigation, of course, had reference to the adoption of rules that would be applicable to all the states. These investigations suggest an invaluable arrangement that might be made by which the federal bureau could furnish scientific experts and investigators whose work would be at the disposal of the states. The latter are not always in position to carry on systematically this line of investigation, and if they should do so the great object of uniformity throughout all the states would not be sufficiently cared for. Besides, the federal bureau, not being encumbered with administrative duties, is in a position to carry on scientific investigations, which would be all the more valuable when directed towards the constructive needs of the state departments.

#### *Educating the Bad Employers*

The fact that both the law and the commission contemplated the co-operation of employers and employees, has resulted in a code of rules which are not only reasonable in law but reasonable in the minds of employers. It is an application of the well-recognized principle of political economy that the competition of the worst employers tends to drag down the best employers to their level. In this case, however, the corollary law is brought into play. The most progressive employers in the line of safety and sanitation draw up the law, and the business of the commission is to go out and bring the backward ones up to their level. As a matter of fact, it has been found that the employers on the committees have been more exacting in their search for the high-

est practicable standards than the representatives of labor on the committees. As a consequence, the work of the commission in bringing other employers up to their level has been almost entirely transformed from what they consider an irritating and arbitrary interference in their business, into a work of instruction and education. The employer who resists the adoption of safeguards and processes approved by his fellow employers is not only unreasonable in the opinion of his peers, but *prima facie* unreasonable in court.

The work of education which the commission has naturally resorted to has been that of bringing to the attention of employers not only the rules but the devices and methods which will comply with them. A safety exhibit, or rather a triplicate exhibit, after being passed upon by an advisory committee, has been inaugurated. It consists of photographs and blue prints, and is transported with the inspectors on their rounds over the state. This exhibit is installed in a public place during the period of local inspection, and one of the exhibits is kept permanently in the rooms of the Merchants and Manufacturers Association of Milwaukee. It is found that these photographic exhibits have a certain advantage over the "museums of safety" of European countries, where the actual machines with safeguards are installed permanently in a building, because, not only is the expense reduced, but the exhibit can be carried almost to the doors of the employer and his superintendents, foremen and mechanics. The commissioners and their deputies usually arrange for an evening of lectures in connection with the exhibit, when the various laws are explained and questions answered. These are attended by representatives of practically all the employing establishments in the town and surrounding country. The exhibit itself is built up and improved by photographs which the deputies take on their rounds, and the main object is to arouse the "safety spirit" and to show how practicable it is for establishments to devise and install their own safeguards without depending too much on patented articles.

The way in which this conversion of an executive department into a department of investigation and education appeals to the employers of the state, may be judged by the following extract from a speech recently made by George W. Bruce, secretary of the Merchants and Manufacturers Association of Milwaukee, before the National Congress on Safety and Sanitation, October 1, 1912:

"The success which has been attained in Wisconsin on the subject of safety and sanitation is due not only to a good law, but also to a wise administration of the same. The authorities approached their difficult task in a spirit of abso-



lute fairness. But, they did more. They drew the manufacturers into their confidence and secured their loyal co-operation in the administration of the law.

"They assumed that the manufacturer is a law-abiding citizen and that if he were asked to give meaning and force to the new law he would respond. The attitude which the Industrial Commission maintained through the introductory period of their exacting and herculean task was bound to be followed by success.

"But, the commission practiced wisdom also in bringing to its work experts of character and efficiency. Favoritism was cast to the winds. The men best fitted for the task were selected.

"Men like Mr. Crownhart and Mr. Beck of the commission realized that an antagonistic or arbitrary spirit would be resented and cause difficulty. They were tactful and discreet, but made it absolutely plain that both the spirit and the letter of the law must be carried out. Would the manufacturer lend his co-operation? And he did.

"Men like Price, capable and judicious, formerly at the head of similar work with the International Harvester Company, were chosen to perform the delicate and difficult task of working out, together with the manufacturer, a reasonable and workable program.

"They not only succeeded in creating a co-operative attitude on the part of the manufacturer, but they also secured much valuable time and effort at the hands of some of the most important manufacturers in the state.

"Thus, I am safe in saying the work of industrial safety and sanitation in Wisconsin which is progressing in a most successful manner, has the good will and support of the manufacturing interests of the state."

#### *Legal Effect of Commission's Orders*

The legal effect of the commission's orders turns upon the constitutional position which belongs to constructive investigation. These orders are not a delegation of legislative power, but an investigation and publication of facts. The courts have long held that the legislature may determine that a given law shall go into effect at a future date on the occurrence of a specified event. The law in this case is the obligation placed on employers to protect the life, health, safety and welfare of employees. The future occurrence when it takes effect is thirty days after official publication of the findings of the commission.

Neither are the commission's investigations and findings a usurpation of the authority of the courts. This is cared for by the procedure. Formerly a factory inspector issued orders on the spot, and prosecuted for disobedience in the trial courts. The court was at liberty to raise the question whether the order was necessary, or whether too expensive or confiscatory, or whether the manufacturer was not as competent as the inspector to determine the effectiveness

of his safeguards. Now these questions of reasonableness cannot be raised in the trial court. Only the fact of compliance or non-compliance can be raised. If the question of reasonableness is raised it must come up in an action against the commission in the county court at the state capital, and thence in the Supreme Court of the state. Furthermore, if the petitioner introduces evidence which was not before the commission, the case must be remanded back to the commission with the new evidence, and the commission must be given opportunity to change its order if it so determines. The case can then go back to the court.

In this way, the commission's complete power of investigation is protected, its orders are made *prima facie* reasonable, and the burden is on the petitioner to break them down in court. The court retains all of its powers of investigation and philosophy, as far as it chooses to use them. But the commission's investigations are not limited by the strict rules of evidence prevailing in court. It can consider all of the facts without objection. It can initiate investigations. It is, in fact, a body of social and economic investigators, rather than a tribunal restricted to technical rules of evidence. The Supreme Court of the state has sustained the commission, so far as it affects procedure under the compensation law. The procedure respecting safety and health is similar, but has not as yet been passed upon, although in the case of the Railroad Commission, with similar procedure respecting reasonable rates and services, its findings of fact have been held to be conclusive.

#### *Commission an Administrative Court*

The Industrial Commission is also made an appellate administrative court in all cases of local boards of health, common councils or other local bodies that issue orders on places of employment. Their authority to issue such orders has not been infringed upon, but they are protected against court injunctions by the requirement that appeal shall first be made to the Industrial Commission. The latter, on investigation, may affirm the local order, or may substitute a "reasonable one," and the petitioner must then proceed against the commission as above explained, in place of the local authority. The commission has endeavored to bring about agreement with local boards by securing their representatives on the advisory committees and it is expected in this way that state and local inspectors will not issue conflicting orders on employers.

Advisory committees of employers and employees have also been enlisted in the administration of the free employment offices. The Milwaukee committee consists of representatives of the manufacturers' association and repre-



representatives of the trade unions. They assist the Civil Service Commission in the examination of applicants, and have thus overcome the two greatest obstacles in the way of successful operation of such offices by the state—politics and trade unions. The superintendents and assistants of these offices are not only removed from political influence but are removed from all suspicion of using their position for or against employer or employe in the case of strikes. The growth of business transacted by the Milwaukee office has been phenomenal during the first year of this method of management, and its transformation from a mere charitable agency to find work for unemployables, into a labor exchange bringing employer and employe together, is evidenced by the following statement made by the chairman of the committee and representative of the employers, A. T. VanScoy of the International Harvester Company:

"I was not particularly enthusiastic at first over this movement, but have changed my views in regard to it, and believe it has been of great benefit to the working people in that it has, through what might be called a clearing house, enabled them to obtain employment quickly and without expense, and it has also been equally valuable to the employer, in that it has enabled him through this employment bureau or clearing house to obtain, usually without effort on his part other than telephoning his wants, the help desired. Its work is broadening all the time, employers learning that an effort is made, and generally successfully, to furnish them with the kind of help desired, instead of sending men promiscuously, and employes learning that the quickest and most expeditious way for them to obtain employment is through the bureau."

The opinion of the trade unions is represented by the following statement of the representative of the Federated Trades Council:

"Without blare of trumpets the free state employment office in Milwaukee is doing one of the best works at present going on in the city. It is supplying a head center where men needing work may go and where work seeking men may also apply. Its offices on Fourth Street, just north of Grand Avenue, always present a busy scene. . . . While the work of such offices seems local, the unemployed problem is a state-wide problem and even more, and can best be met and handled as it is now being handled under the Industrial Commission with co-operating offices in the principal cities of the state. One praiseworthy thing that the free employment office has done must not be overlooked. It has cut down the crowds of hundreds of work-hungry men at the factory gates mornings. This sort of a scramble, often by men almost despairing, with families waiting to learn of the success or failure of the quest, is not only a pathetic sight, but often downright tragedy. The free employment office provides the better way, and the manufacturers themselves have come

to realize it. It is certainly more humane for the men, saves them a lot of tramping, and is a great convenience in the securing of workmen. Nay, more, it saves his feelings, for it is found that the rebuffs that he gets at factory gates has a souring effect on a man in spite of himself."

A peculiar use of advisory committees has been undertaken in the administration of the street trades law in Milwaukee. The law is supplementary to the child labor law in that the children concerned are mainly not employes but are merchants, and therefore without employers who can be held liable for violation of the child labor and truancy laws. The newsboys, numbering about 4,000, have been organized in the "Newsboys' Republic" for the purpose of enforcing the law. The Republic itself, including certain adults chosen jointly by the boys and the commission, constitute a lively advisory committee to the commission. The plan is only now in process of installation, after careful investigation had been made of the administration of similar laws, and especially of the similar organization in Boston.

In the administration of the new apprenticeship law, supplementing the industrial education law, the commission is aided by a committee of the Manufacturers' Association.

#### *Service of Advisory Committees*

Wherever practicable, the commission has found that these advisory committees are invaluable in the enforcement of laws under its charge. They are being extended wherever it is found that the commission needs the co-operation of the classes affected by the administration of the law or their judgment upon the reasonableness of its orders. It will be seen, too, that this practice meets the political objection against the multiplication of commissions and "government by commissions." The Industrial Commission consolidates what otherwise might be three or four commissions and executives, thus reducing the expense. It does not remove government "from the people" and place it in the hands of "experts," for it necessarily and actually, both in full compliance with the doctrine of reasonableness and in securing full co-operation of the public in understanding and enforcing the laws, brings the government directly into the hands of the people. It is certain that the state must have executives in order to enforce the labor laws, as well as other laws. To object to them is like urging your son to learn to swim but forbidding him to go near the water. The real question is not how to avoid commissions, but how to organize them, how to do away with overlapping commissions, how to make them efficient and economical, how to keep them near to the actual life of the people, in short, how to



make them the branch that fills the gap of constructive investigation in our scheme of government.

It has been suggested by inquirers from other states, and it might be inferred from the emphasis here laid on investigation, that the executive part of the commission's work should be kept separate with a single head, as it has been in the past, in order to center responsibility for the enforcement of laws. In that case a board of experts might be created for the purpose of investigating and drafting the rules, which the independent executive would be required to enforce. For several reasons, this separation of departments would probably be impracticable. The most valuable agents for the kind of investigation required are the inspectors, whose duty it is to enforce the rules. By associating them with the advisory committees, they enter into the spirit of co-operation, they learn the principle of reasonableness, and they acquire the virtue of tact. If they have no knowledge of the reasons for the rules, and therefore no particular interest in bringing about their enforcement through patient instruction of employers and superintendents, their attitude is likely to be that of the typical factory inspector who says to the employer, "Well, I didn't make the law—there it is, and you've got to obey it." Instead of inspiring the "safety spirit" throughout the state, they stir up needless opposition and friction between the factory inspector and the board of experts.

Furthermore, no system of general rules laid down in advance can anticipate all of the special conditions or obstacles in the way of enforcement. The Wisconsin law cares for this by means of "special orders" in addition to "general orders." But these special orders can only be issued on investigation and public hearing, precisely the same as the general orders. The inspector, therefore, instead of insisting upon something impracticable, can join with the employer in asking for a special order before proceeding to prosecution. If the inspector is subject to an independent executive, desirous of making a reputation for the enforcement of law, not only is he tempted to discredit the work of the expert commission, but he is under no obligation to join with the commission in perfecting its orders so as to conform to the rule of reasonableness. The deputies of the Industrial Commission are continually reporting omitted points or impracticable applications, and the execution of the law becomes a continuous investigation and progress towards reasonableness. With separate departments for investigation and execution, the investigations

would doubtless fall into the hands of experts not familiar with the great variety of conditions to be met, and the execution would be that perfunctory and blind enforcement which has already brought discredit on much of the American factory inspection.

Finally, the commissioners themselves cannot divide their work into the separate fields of law, investigation and execution, especially where, as with the Wisconsin commission, such a wide range as fourteen departments are brought together under one head. Each commissioner must take his share in the executive work of different departments, and each must carry on continually the constructive investigation that the law implies. It is only by this means of administration and investigation combined in a single commission that friction and antagonism between overlapping officials can be avoided, co-operation with employers and employees secured, and obedience to the authority of the judiciary observed.

#### *Distinction between Industrial and Railroad Commissions*

While the Industrial Commission is modeled after the law creating the Railroad Commission, its field is widely different. The Railroad Commission regulates monopoly—the Industrial Commission regulates competition. It endeavors to enforce "reasonable" competition in so far as dealings with employers are concerned, by raising the level of labor competition. The distinction offers a practicable suggestion for the creation of a commission by the federal government for the regulation of "trusts." Such a commission need not have the power to regulate prices, as the Railroad Commission does, on the theory that monopoly is inevitable, nor to give special privileges to so-called "good" trusts that accept federal incorporation or federal license, and agree to abide by the commission's orders. Rather should a federal commission be a "free trade" commission, controlling all interstate trade so far as necessary, for the purpose of investigating and prohibiting all kinds of "unfair competition." It would take the place which the federal courts now assume, of dissolving and regulating corporations. But instead of committing this power to lawyers it would be committed to a body of men representing the every-day life of all the people, equipped to conduct constructive investigations, to prosecute for violations of the anti-trust laws, to prescribe and enforce rules of reasonable competition and so to raise the level of business competition.



# IS AN ORGANIZED COUNTRY LIFE MOVEMENT POSSIBLE?

GEORGE FREDERICK WELLS

CHAIRMAN COUNTRY CHURCH COMMISSION,  
METHODIST FEDERATION FOR SOCIAL SERVICE



LIBERTY HYDE BAILEY

Dean State Agricultural College of Cornell University—the statesman of the country life movement in America. Dean Bailey is editor of encyclopedias of agriculture and horticulture, but it is in personal leadership that he is making his greatest impression on American conditions.



SIR HORACE PLUNKETT

The Irish statesman who has organized co-operative rural movements throughout Ireland and brought in a new era of prosperity and communal life. He is now on a visit to this country, and may be called the prophet of the reconstruction of the American rural movement.

**I**T seems to me that the underlying problem relating to country life at this moment is economic. The extraordinary growth of our factory system and consequent disproportionate development of city life will have to be counterbalanced by a development of agriculture and its allied activities if there is to be a sound basis

in the future for life in the country. The educational, social and religious problems of country life are ultimately all related to this fact."

Such is the judgment of one of the leading editors in the United States in response to one of two thousand inquiry bulletins sent out by THE SURVEY in co-operation with the Federal



Council of the Churches of Christ in America. The purpose has been to get correct knowledge of the rural problem and of a comprehensive means of solving it.

No person in this country today who is in any sense alive to the nation's welfare fails to recognize that we have a rural problem. If one can not see the whole range of it and its sources, he at least sees some phases of the need. Most of us know precisely what is to be done in order to cure the disease. If we do not know, all that is necessary is to read the report of Theodore Roosevelt's Country Life Commission which makes recommendations that will not be outworn for a quarter of a century. If that is not sufficient two other books by practical statesmen are available. One of these is *The Rural Life Problem of the United States* by Sir Horace Plunkett. The other is *The Country Life Movement in the United States* by Prof. L. H. Bailey. Each of these books has the rural problem solved—on paper.

Possibly we yet have need for more visions and theories. We have had some specialization and much short-sighted generalization. But these have hardly touched the problem practically. It is imperative that we have at once more study and work. We must have a practical campaign, directed by a comprehensive leadership, which shall work from without inward and from within outward, so as to stimulate and conserve every force of the entire rural movement.

So two of the forces which are afield to secure a better rural United States have turned their telescopes to the numerous agencies at work among the rural folk to see if an effective organized country life movement in America is not within the range of possibility.

What of the search?

The directory used, while far from complete, was representative especially of the religious agencies for rural work. By co-operation with the Farmer's National Congress, the Grange, and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Learning which is just completing an investigation of farm and rural schools in the United States, it has been unnecessary to question the distinctly agricultural and educational agencies and leaders as thoroughly as the religious. So the directory included the recognized leaders among country pastors of all denominations. An equally large list of individual leaders in rural social service was compiled. The theological seminaries and social service periodicals, national home mission boards and reform associations were given place. All the state missionary secretaries and superintendents of the Baptist, Congregational and Disciples churches; the presiding elders and district superintendents of the Methodist, United Brethren and the Evangelical churches; and the stated clerks in the Presbyterian churches were addressed. Emphasis has

also been placed upon two other classes of organizations. The first of these was the American Bible Society, the Young Men's Christian Association, the American Sunday School Union, the International Sunday School Association, the Religious Education Association, the Missionary Education Movement, the Church Brotherhoods, the Christian Endeavor Society, the sabbath observance leagues and many others. Then several special committees, departments and associations which have arisen to meet the rural situation have also had close attention.

Such a study as this has not been without its



KENYON L. BUTTERFIELD

President of Massachusetts Agricultural College, who has built up in his staff at Amherst a work which is revitalizing New England.

romance. The first of these was the task of forming the set of questions which should elicit the desired information from so many and diverse sources. Questionnaires are terrible things. The correspondence questionnaire, in fact, is a public nuisance. The dean of an agricultural college remarked: "One comes to my desk every few minutes. They drive me to drink."

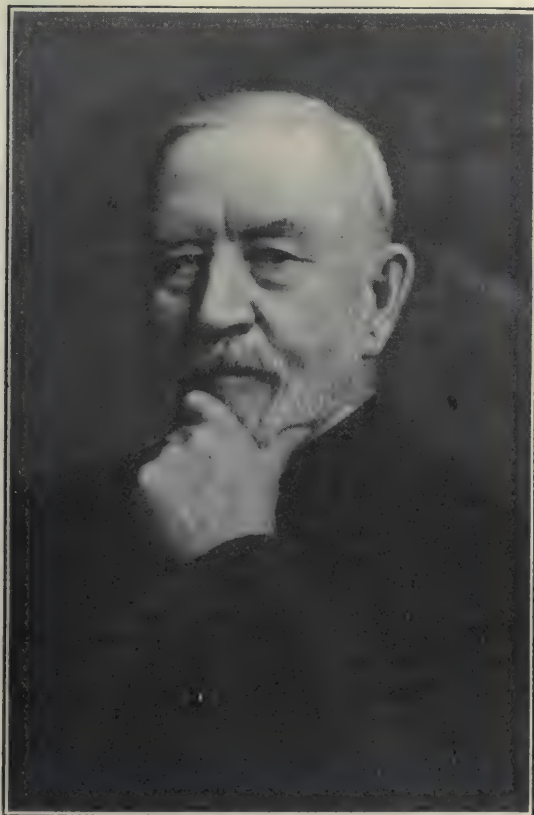
Our country life questionnaire was not less terrible than the average. It covered the following points: nature and object of work, problems of the field, problems of administration, informational help needed, things accomplished,



products available for public service, possible assistance volunteered, and leaders developed.

If the search had its points of interest, the findings many times more so.

Of course, we recognize that there is already a country life movement in America. I do not mean the process which has been in motion for the last fifty years—the movement of populations and interests cityward—for that is just the trend we deplore. That is the nation's funeral procession. But there is a movement to counteract this mad rush to the cities—in spirit, in vision and on paper. The question is, can it be organ-



HENRY WALLACE

Editor of *Wallace's Farmer*; chairman of the Roosevelt Country Life Commission. He is sometimes called "the grand old man" of the country life movement. His writings and publications are a social force.

ized? The solidarity of rural America is in the air. We feel it, but can we make the nation see it and recognize its force?

Let us look first at the literary side of the situation. Our fourth question was: "On what subjects have you published literature which you would like given extended notice and usefulness?" In spite of the fact that our directory did not include publishing houses some answers were of interest. One standard book was mentioned—Wilbert L. Anderson's *The Country Town*. Prof. William A. McKeever of

Kansas Agricultural College enclosed an announcement of his eight home-training bulletins. The county department of the Young Men's Christian Association mentions *Rural Manhood*. No less than six writers mentioned books which they are now preparing for immediate publication. Several persons who had published nothing themselves mentioned such things as Warren H. Wilson's *Community Studies* and *A Social Survey for Rural Communities*, which should be made available for the whole field. The fact is that the socially valuable literature of the country life movement consists of more than one hundred books, two or three hundred pamphlets and reports, and many hundreds of significant periodical articles. But the movement, such as it is, is as little able to turn this literature to local educational use as rural America is in need of just such education.

These answers referred to existing products. Questions ten to fifteen looked toward the call for printed matter which is not now at hand. For instance, we do not have a directory of the leaders and agencies comprising the soldiers, generals and armies which need to be mobilized into a real rural movement. We have no comprehensive bibliography of the writings on rural subjects. The last six months have brought us five or more guides for making rural surveys, but each of these has its bias. We have manuals on chicken raising and on growing fancy turnips, but none on organizing rural social federations or on the movement as a whole. So six of the questions of our list touched our 2,000 addressees to test their need of such characteristic standard rural publications. The majority of the respondents not only want them in some cases for immediate use but all are willing to pay from three to ten times what they would actually cost, and some not only volunteered to aid in preparing such standards but wished to publish and distribute them by the thousand and ten thousand. Here surely is a plea and promise of an organized rural movement.

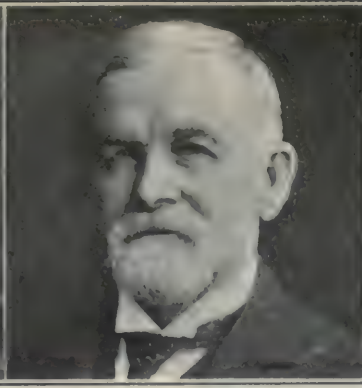
Perhaps the most important single question in rural social progress is that of personal leadership. In answer to the request: "Name what seem to you to be the outstanding problems or needs of the country and rural districts of the United States," no answer is oftener given than "Leadership." "The greatest problem is efficient leadership for the local community," says Professor McKeever of Kansas Agricultural College. A home missionary in the far West calls for "specialists who will touch the pockets as well as the hearts of the people." "The chief difficulty is to find efficient, consecrated leaders," says the secretary of missions of the American Sunday School Union. L. H. Goddard, chief of the department of co-operation of the Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station, says: "I have





WASHINGTON GLADDEN

Though best known now as city pastor and student of labor problems, years ago Mr. Gladden wrote *Christian League of Connecticut*, the first American rural life book.



ROBERT WEIDENSALL

As founder of the county work department of the Young Men's Christian Association, Mr. Weidensall led in the early fight to raise the moral tone of rural life.



WILLIAM DE WITT HYDE

President of Bowdoin College, whose articles twenty years ago on impending paganism in New England first led to the serious study of American rural problems.

abundant confidence in the rural church to furnish that which the rural communities need above all things—rural leaders.” “So far as the country life problem has developed here,” says a secretary in the West, “the great need is leadership.” Nearly all the missionary secretaries, denominational superintendents and administrators of the great associations are seeking trained men as leaders. “From my point of view and in my work a chief difficulty or problem in these fields is the lack of competent leadership; leaders of keenness and power within the community,” says Rev. I. J. Cahill, of the Disciples Missionary Society in Ohio. This is the common plea which perhaps may well be summed up in the comprehensive statement of a national brotherhood leader.

“The outstanding problems and needs of country and rural districts are social leadership. The merchant preacher must be displaced by the agricultural social leader who has been trained for social and religious leadership. New life must be developed in rural communities; new ideals, new standards, new judgments, new hopes, and new desires. These cannot be preached into a community by an occasional visit of a circuit rider. A man with high ideals and the Christ vision must live among the people. The church must prepare men to meet the needs of the country community, the same as she is now preparing missionaries for the foreign field.”

But there is another side to this question. In a personal interview, Henry Wallace recently expressed the opinion that we are not now ready for a successful country church movement because of too few leaders for the work. What are the facts? Our directory has the names of 2,000 religious leaders, a majority of whom are giving all of their time to work in country districts or to organizations which are vitally concerned with rural work. The directory is by no

means complete for the religious leaders even. Should we add to them the industrial, educational and numerous other classes of leaders, the list would be increased several fold. More than this, our sixth question is, “What persons among your officers, members or friends have gained leadership in some phase of country life improvement?” The eighteenth question requests the names of leaders to whom the questionnaire might be sent. In answer to these, ninety persons give the addresses of more than three hundred leaders, all ready to be called upon for service in improving rural life.

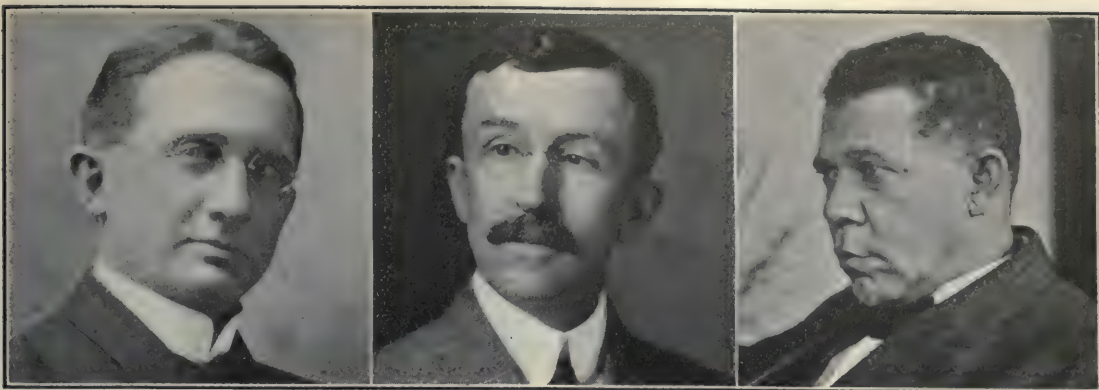
There is more local leadership available for solving the rural problem than there is guidance from the top in the assignment of tasks and the general marshalling of the vast army which is waiting to be called into the mightiest and most strategic campaign for national welfare which we have yet seen.

Literature and leadership are two great factors in the country life movement. Perhaps the institutional factor is even greater still. In fact, it is so important that in it centers the whole rural problem as far as a movement for its solution is concerned.

We are aware that there are already a large number of organizations each one of which is seeking to solve the rural problem or some part of it. Let us study their purposes to see what light is thrown upon the question of a central rural clearing house. It is surprising to note that the purpose of each is so comprehensive that it has so much the social point of view, that it might well be adopted as the purpose of the one inclusive national organization.

One country pastor, for instance, states as his objective the following: “I am endeavoring to conceive the purpose of my church work to be in the broadest sense the uplift of the total life of the community; and, specifically, the supply





**MYRON T. SCUDDER**

As principal of a school at Newpaltz, N. Y., Dr. Scudder made a special study of play. He found that many games of a generation ago had almost been forgotten.

**O. J. KERN**

County superintendent of schools, in Winnebago County, Illinois. His book, *Among Country Schools*, is making a thousand counties think.

**BOOKER T. WASHINGTON**

Head of Tuskegee Institute, whose work with the Negro farm boy is one of citizenship and character as well as technical training.

of whatever of religious motive may be essential to a complete realization of the highest type of country life." This is, by no means, the exceptional objective for a country church.

Another country pastor says that the purpose of his church is "to serve the whole community all the days in all possible ways and, at the same time, be a local station of the heavenly realm in our country and among the nations."

There seems to be a wide difference between the purpose and the personnel of some organizations. For instance, one of the most specialized of organizations, which restricts its work to the rural portions of the United States and its membership to a minute proportion of the rural population, states that it stands

"for the recognition of the inherent value of country life in and for itself; for the maximum development of constructive forces in rural communities; for trained leaders for community enterprises; for the creation of a new social consciousness in village and in the open country; for deliverance from the enervating paternalism of the city; for stemming the tide which sweeps toward the city; for adequate preparation of those who must go to the city; for better health and sanitation in farm homes and country communities; for a redirected educational system which will fit for life in the country; for a more scientific type of crop production and farm administration as essential to greater satisfaction in rural life; for a wholesome development of the recreative life; for the increased power of the church; for the dominance of Christian ideals in the character of the manhood and boyhood of the country."

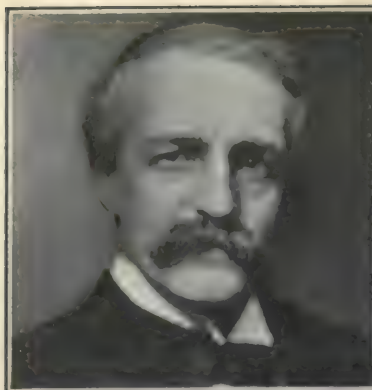
If an organization and its objective were identical we might infer that that organization were rural United States itself.

The conditions which we are trying to describe cannot be set forth without more concrete statement. At the present time the Home Missions

Council, the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, the American Sunday School Union, the International Sunday School Association, the American Bible Society, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the Missionary Education Movement, the county work department of the Y. M. C. A., the rural work of the Y. W. C. A., and the Department of Church and Country Life of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions are among the religious organizations which are in the field for rural social work. There is much duplication and unspoken intolerance among these organizations. There is much co-operation, but it is accidental and personal rather than official and comprehensively planned by adequate overhead administration. Some of them assume functions which belong to the Department of Agriculture at Washington, to the grange and to the agricultural colleges, as well as to the churches. No denominations are or ever have been more thoughtless of each others' rights or of the interests of society in general than are these propagandists among whom co-operation often has as its chief motive the gaining of ascendant glory for the organization which exercises it. Such things ought not so to be, but they are inevitable in rural work until a national organized movement makes so fundamental and complete a study of rural needs as to be able to assign to each of these and many other forces specific tasks the performance of which will yield 100 per cent of good, and will heal rather than enhance the curse of organized civilization.

It is more useful to deliver a whole lecture in a single town than to utter one syllable in every town in the United States. Likewise it may be as useful for an organization to respond to all forms of social need in a single community, as to respond to one special need in every community in the nation. The organization doing





GIFFORD PINCHOT

President of the American Conservation Association, who has linked country life to the movements which would conserve and control forests, mineral resources and water power.



WILLET M. HAYES

Assistant Secretary of the Department of Agriculture, who has recently been largely instrumental in reorganizing the National Farmers' Congress.



WICKLIFFE ROSE

Secretary of the Rockefeller Sanitary Commission, which in campaigning against the hook worm is giving every town, county and state health agency in the South a new lease of life.

the former would be horizontally narrow while vertically broad; that doing the latter would be horizontally broad but vertically narrow. In the first case it would be intensive; in the latter extensive.

What is needed for rural America is an organization which shall be on a national scale what the Pennsylvania Rural Progress Association is on a state scale. "The purpose of our organization," says a member of this association, "is general improvement of rural conditions." It is both specialized and inclusive in both its horizontal and vertical aspects. Such should the national country life movement be.

If this brief study of the motives of the various organizations which are seeking a better rural America teaches us anything, it is that the social spirit of our age, which is the sum total of the social spirit of all our institutions, is sufficient to warrant the integration of them all at the earliest possible moment into a fellowship more real than that of mere proximity of geographical location. To express truly the sum total of the motives of all these would be to organize the rural life movement.

The chief problem of organizing the entire country life movement of the United States lies in the task of bringing the organizations which already exist into intelligent co-operation. Our study of the purposes of these organizations would tend to indicate that such co-operation and integration is entirely possible and extremely desirable.

A general view of the rural situation shows a problem infinitely serious and though many organizations and leaders are seeking its solution they are hardly holding their own against the difficulty. This general view would indicate that there are too few rather than too many agencies at work, that there is no energy to be lost in

overlapping and competition. There is both room and work to spare.

But this general view is not conclusive. What are the findings of our investigation touching the relations between existing organizations? Are there no difficulties to be overcome?

The state Baptist secretary of New York reports an "unwillingness to subordinate local desires or interests for larger good, showing itself in the difficulty of combining two churches under one pastor, as both churches wish morning services." A Colorado leader calls for "a new spirit of co-operation and federation on the part of religious organizations, the elimination of the waste that comes from overlapping, and a general move-up all along the line." A country pastor in the central West says: "My great difficulty is a 'sister' church which has changed ministers six times while I have been here—less than seven years; and a public school which has had an equal number of principals in the same time. Co-operation and progress are obstructed by such disorder of things." "R— needs federation of church life," says another country village pastor. "Bitter strife, jealousies and contention have obtained for twenty years. No spirit of co-operation or willingness to unite can be felt or aroused as yet. Unheard-of feuds among church people of rival communions no longer produce surprise on the part of people residing in this town."

It is needless to enumerate the cases of this sort of strife between local congregations. Competition is not confined to the churches. There is not only theological bigotry and exclusiveness but organization bigotry and exclusiveness, which is a more modern curse. "What the country needs is not a federation of the churches alone but a federation of all its betterment forces. The overlapping is not fundamentally a fault of the





J. CLYDE MARQUIS

One of the editors of the *Country Gentleman*, the purchase of which by the Curtis Publishing Co. shows which way the winds are blowing.



HENRY ISRAEL

Editor of *Rural Manhood*, organ of the county work department of the Young Men's Christian Association.



WALTER H. PAGE

Editor of *Country Life in America*. He has avoided city duress by moving his publishing plant to Long Island.

churches, but it is a fault of all the agencies for community uplift in the rural districts," says an intelligent rural leader. "If the churches ought to unite, the reform agencies more so," says a country pastor. A more concrete instance is taken from the letter of a county Y. M. C. A. secretary on the Pacific Coast. He says: "One of our chief difficulties is to get the ministers in the country churches to really back up our work. Ministers will tell their laymen to put in all their time and money on their own churches. This is what the laymen tell us who approve of our work and who go back on their ministers. This is especially true of the young preacher who wants to do something striking in his town and is jealous of any organization not directly connected with his church."

It is not pleasant to dwell upon the negative side of this question. The problem of strife and contention has been so great that several state organizations of church federations, and broader federations for social service, have been organized. That the problem is recognized as a need and that there is on the part of our leaders very generally a real comprehensive unity both in ideal and purpose is evident from representative statements like the following:

Wilbert L. Anderson says:

"The country needs confidence in its own attractions and possibilities. It needs the vision of its own felicity, as those who discern the coming form of civilization apprehend it. It needs, East and West, a new contentment with farm life and the farm home, so that the young people shall be rural-minded and willing to seek their fortune and their happiness on the land."

Another statement is from a Methodist leader in Montana:

"The chief need is the development of a communal consciousness on the part of people who

are thrown together from all parts of this country and from other countries and who with the exception of maintaining public schools, pay little attention to things of social significance."

William Shaw of the United Society of Christian Endeavor further says:

"We feel that the great problem in the country districts is to secure a common community sentiment and co-operation. The chief difficulty usually comes from the fact that the religious and moral forces are divided, their financial resources are small and it is difficult to secure effective co-operation in any community plans for social betterment."

The ideal and purpose to bring about the co-operation of agencies seeking better rural life is so great that one of the reports brings us the following statement, in which there is a clue to this problem of inter-organization relationship:

"The Y. W. C. A., in its newly developed rural work, has been grateful to recognize its entire allegiance to the church from which it draws its inspiration and whose work it constantly seeks to advance and has been glad to adopt as its basis that which the Evangelical Churches themselves decided upon as the basis upon which they could co-operate in full accord and which resulted in the formation of the Federal Council. We should be especially glad, therefore, if the Federal Council could make it plain to the churches that the Young Women's Christian Association is an arm of the church and that it stands ready to do work for them whenever they need help in specialized work for the women in a community."

Our studies of the literature, leadership, organization purposes and organization relationships of the country life movement, such as it is at the present time, bring us face to face with the demand, first of all, for discriminate thinking. From top to bottom, from the city office of





G. WALTER FISKE

Oberlin Theological Seminary.  
Author of *The Challenge of the Country*. A Congregational leader  
in country life work.



WARREN H. WILSON

Superintendent of the Department of Church and Country Life of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions.



G. FREDERICK WELLS

Chairman Country Church Commission of the Methodist Federation for Social Service.

the most representative organization down to the loneliest rural unit, comes the loud call for a clear definition of the functions of each fundamental organization working in rural life.

How can this need be met apart from an inclusive national organization? And not only so, should not this national organization lend its leadership to marshalling the army of organizations each to know and to perform its own functions?

Let us take our bearings. Both telescopes and microscopes will probably be needed to see how far we have traveled toward the possibility of a national organization for rural improvement.

It is undoubtedly true that the situation is practically identical in township, state and nation. Socially, and I believe, practically as well, the outlines of one unit are parallel to those of the others. The difference is chiefly one of size.

If the federation of rural social forces—that is, of farmers' organizations to secure economic welfare, of the school for education, and the

church for religious idealism—can be attained in country townships, as it already exists in many of them, why is it not possible for state and nation? The Hartford forward movement in Vermont is one good example of such a local federation. The Pennsylvania Rural Progress Association which is practically a federation of economic, educational and religious federations, is a splendid example of a new state organization. The Illinois Federation for Rural Life Progress is another which may have attained even greater results. Why not a national association on these same models? Has not the hour arrived when our idolatry of names and organizations may subside and when each of our numerous denominations, departments, associations, councils, educational systems, farmers' organizations and federations may cease trying in and of itself alone to be the national organized country life movement, in order to bend its efforts toward becoming the self consistent and efficient part of the organized country life movement in America?

## THE BLAST-FURNACES

DEEMS TAYLOR IN *LIFE*

Brooding and grim,  
Sullen beneath its sooty skies,  
Drugged with the fumes of gas and coke,  
The sprawling, blackened city lies  
Wrapped in its pall of smoke.  
The darkness falls, but mark you, still  
Against the sky a crimson light,  
Where, on the crest of yonder hill,  
Our watch-fires pierce the night.

We never sleep.  
Fire is our life—a life that came  
And passes with its molten breath.  
We may not still that leaping flame;  
We dare not sleep—'tis death.  
More! Give us more! Unceasing boil  
The fires within us—feed us, then!  
Give us the blood and sweat of toil;  
Give us the lives of men.

In Babylon  
Long years ago, a god of flame,  
Dread Moloch, took his daily toll.  
This fire within us is the same  
That once was Moloch's soul.  
Nay, curse us not; for, good or ill,  
Ours is the task, but not the plan.  
The toil we waste, the men we kill  
Concern us not. We serve the will  
Of him who made us—Man.



# FIGHTING THE LEASE SYSTEM WITH PARDONS

KATE BARNARD

COMMISSIONER OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION OF OKLAHOMA

*[When, just before Christmas,<sup>1</sup> Gov. George W. Donaghey of Arkansas pardoned 360 state prisoners as a blow at the convict lease system, none of the telegrams which reached him meant more than that from the state commissioner of charities and correction of Oklahoma, whose investigations three years ago struck at the abuses in the prisons of several western states. Miss Barnard's reasons for her approval of Governor Donaghey's act are given in the following article—Ed.]*

I HAVE been in the state penitentiary at Little Rock and have seen personally many of the men confined there. The percentage of illiteracy in that prison and throughout the prisons of America is a silent rebuke to the world. Gray heads and eyes dim with age bend over primers learning the a b c's. If civilization has given these men no chance in the morning of their lives to come into contact with the best thoughts penned by the scholars of the world, no chance to read of the ideal and beautiful, no chance to read God's Holy Book, what right has that civilization to punish these men if in weakness they resort to crime? Yet there are men at Little Rock with eyesight made feeble because their mothers burned the midnight oil to produce bargain counters for America. Their children were born with a bad vision which prevented them from securing honest livings in the industries of the world. There are men there whose mothers toiled in arsenic factories until the babes were poisoned before they were born. There are feeble-minded men in that prison whose mothers lacked the food which makes nerve tissue. Those men have no red corpuscles in their blood; the feeble mind has no will power with which to obey man-made laws.

In Arkansas they have taken these helpless men, more sinned against than sinning, and they have coined their unfortunate bodies into gold through the most amazing lease system. These unfortunate prisoners have first been leased for one dollar a day and then leased for a dollar and a half a day to build railroads and other public works. They have stood waist deep in swamps which were covered with green stagnant pools of water, draining the swamps for a state that did almost nothing for them in the morning of their lives. Under the hot burning sun, breathing miasma and pestered with myriads of mosquitoes, those men have become anti-social in their ways.

I can find no words to express the horror I feel for the convict lease and the convict con-

tract labor systems of America. Those who fought in previous battles for liberty would do well to enlist for this. I wish that we could have large prison farms where our prisoners could learn scientific farming, poultry raising, dairying, etc. In order to show my belief in this plan I have donated 160 acres of Oklahoma land, and have taken out articles of incorporation to build a prison farm upon which to receive men when they come homeless, friendless and penniless from the prisons of this country.

It is because I know these things about the lease system of prison labor that I telegraphed Governor Donaghey my commendation and encouragement when I learned that he had pardoned 360 convicts as a blow at that system in Arkansas.

The primary object of civilization is to promote human progress. Human progress is best conserved by upbuilding a sense of justice and honor among men. Before organized society can expect individual honor and justice, it must first be just and honorable itself. Today there is a great injustice in our civilization. This injustice lies mostly in our failure to regulate our industrial and commercial life. Our laws for the conservation of industry are almost perfect. There are almost no laws for the conservation of men. The result is society works a great injustice against working men. And until society is just to its working men, it cannot expect its workers to be just and honorable in their individual lives.

Society is largely responsible for crime, and we in the United States paid last year something between \$100,000,000 and \$300,000,000 for crime. I have said that society is responsible for a large percentage of this crime, and since this outlay would educate every child in America and feed and clothe it, it behooves society to see who is responsible.

First, society is responsible because it kills its bread winners. Last year it maimed 500,000 of them. Yet we have almost no public protest from organized Christianity, and almost no agi-

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, December 28, 1912, p. 383.



tation for a national organization and employers liability law, such as protects the workers of Germany. Had a half million cattle been slaughtered, or a half million acres of land loosened by the tides fallen into the sea, the public interest would have been aroused.

With maimed and neglected bodies the workers go forth to find their places in industry. They must have bread, and I find hundreds of their maimed bodies in our penitentiaries and jails, forced to turn from a civilization which received them strong from the hand of their Maker, maimed them, and then refused them a chance when they would have re-entered industry to pursue once more their former natural and honest life. Has not society sinned against these helpless men? Does not society owe them another chance?

Again, there are 6,000,000 working women and girls in America who are mothers, whose one business in life should be "building bodies and souls of little children." Many of them are mothers of unborn babes. They are working in sweatshops for a pittance which will not supply sufficient food, so that the child is starved under the mother's heart before it is born. This is happening now while you read and we are doing nothing for them. The long hours exhaust the vitality of the mothers and rob the child of its natural birthright—the right to be born strong.

If civilization owes anything to anybody, it must be the right to a child to be well born. These weak, anaemic, little ones are "born tired"—without sufficient energy for industry. No man will hire them, they cannot do a day's work; but they must eat. So they drift from place to place and "pick up" a living by petty crime. After a while we put them in our penitentiaries and thus give state aid in the evening of a man's life because we have refused to give him a chance to be well born.

In Oklahoma we have passed a compulsory education law under which the state pays to the mother the wages the child would make from three to six months in the year. Thus Oklahoma helps her child in the morning of its life. There are 4,761 children in the schools whose wages are paid by the tax payers. We have thus a better way than to pay for them after they have been in jails and prisons.

In other states where they have not this law, children are working in glass factories breathing glass dust into their lungs, expectorating blood and dying. Four thousand of them are working in cotton mills, breathing cotton dust into their lungs and inviting St. Vitus's dance and other diseases into their frail bodies. Over one thousand are toiling in the black dust of the coal breakers.

Our first effort should be at race efficiency.

Industrial efficiency must take care of itself. With two million children toiling in unhealthy conditions, crime will inevitably be the result. And until this nation adopts as its dominant keynote the conservation of human life, society will be called upon to make appropriations for the ever increasing problem of crime: for it is a law of life that men seek happiness. When they can get happiness honorably, they prefer it that way. But when there are large numbers of unemployed in this country and no provision for public work, society is responsible for what ensues. Just so long as society provides no compensation for motherhood, so long will society be responsible for crime.

Now Governor Donaghey knows something that the public should know, namely: the fundamental thing in a man's life which causes him to commit crime. A man's body does not commit crime. There is therefore no use of punishing the body. The body is simply an instrument. The brain says to that instrument "go here" and it goes; "come here" and it comes; "do this" and it does it. When the brain says "hunger" the body goes forth for food. When the brain says "rebellion" the body rebels. When the brain says "stick that man with a dirk knife," the body does it. What, then, is the object of prison discipline? It is to change the view point of the brain. If you neglect men in their childhood and punish them bitterly and cruelly, or hold their bodies in cages of steel for twenty years, you have only embittered the mind and as soon as the body is liberated it will go out to get vengeance.

When Governor Donaghey pardoned 360 convicts in order that they might be liberated from conditions which tend to make them anti-social; when this great man representing the organized power of society reached his hand down to 360 men and said "Here! the state of Arkansas will give you one more chance," he changed the view point of those men from an anti-social condition of anarchy to one of gratitude to their Maker and a feeling of interest in their country's welfare. He appealed to the honor which lies deep in the human soul, despite the fact that the body may have been degraded through civilization's injustices and prison pens. He probably saved for human society 360 citizens, and who knows but what he saved for heaven 360 souls? And I say to Governor Donaghey: "For this good which you have done for these helpless ones, may God bless you." And I as one of those who pray daily "forgive us our trespasses as we forgive those who trespass against us" would remind those who criticise Governor Donaghey that the Saviour of the world was crucified between a murderer and a thief, and his last words were those of forgiveness for an erring man.



# PUBLIC PENSIONS TO WIDOWS WITH CHILDREN

C. C. CARSTENS

SECRETARY OF THE MASSACHUSETTS SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN

*[For the three months beginning August 1, 1912, Mr. Carstens was commissioned by the Russell Sage Foundation to study the actual working of public pensions to widows with children in certain western communities. He spent several weeks in San Francisco, six weeks in Chicago, and much shorter periods in Kansas City and Milwaukee. The full report of his findings will soon be issued in pamphlet form by the Foundation. Meanwhile, that portion of the report which deals with Chicago pensions and also its general conclusions are given in advance to the readers of THE SURVEY in the following pages.—Ed.]*

THE most important experiment in widows' pensions has been undertaken under a statute which was passed in Illinois and came into operation on July 1, 1911, but, as far as known, has not been taken advantage of in any of the counties of the state except Cook County in which Chicago is situated. The text of the law, which is an amendment to Section 7 of the Juvenile Court Law, is as follows:

"If the parent or parents of such dependent or neglected child are poor and unable to properly care for the said child, but are otherwise proper guardians, and it is for the welfare of such child to remain at home, the court may enter an order finding such facts and fixing the amount of money necessary to enable the parent or parents to properly care for such child, and thereupon it shall be the duty of the county board, through its county agent or otherwise, to pay such parent or parents at such time as said order may designate the amount so specified for the care of such dependent or neglected child until the further order of the court."

## *Theory of Legislation*

The theory upon which pension legislation was based in this state, as in the others, was that children were being separated from their mothers for reasons of poverty only, and that children were coming before the Juvenile Court for forms of waywardness or delinquency which the court believed were due to the lack of the necessary care which the mother was capable of providing, but which she was prevented from giving because of the necessity of going out to earn the support for herself and her children.

The term "dependent children" does not have the same meaning in every state. In most states, the class of dependent children includes neglected as well as dependent children, and in certain states it includes a considerable number of those that in other states would be classed as way-

ward. When, therefore, it is stated that children have been committed to institutions, before one can reach a conclusion regarding the number of children that have been taken from homes because of poverty only, it is necessary to separate from this total the number that have been removed because of the neglect, crime, cruelty, drunkenness or other vice of the parents, so that they might have a better home than the parent has been able or willing to provide. We must also deduct the number that were removed because of the children's own waywardness, with which the home was unable to cope.

## *Poverty as a Single Factor*

This lack of distinction between neglected, wayward and dependent children is at the foundation of much loose thinking on this subject, and at final analysis the number of children who have been removed from their mothers because of poverty alone is found to be only a very small percentage of those in these various institutions. That there are children in institutions or in the care of children's societies because of poverty alone is unquestionably true, but it is essential that one should have a fairly clear idea of their number, so as to determine the advisability of developing an entirely new form of public aid to provide against this evil.

In Illinois the term "dependent children" includes also such neglected children as are placed before the court because their homes are so bad that the court steps in and requires their removal to institutions or to other homes. It is interesting to note the number of commitments made during the six months ending June 30, 1911,—the six months just preceding the enactment of the Funds to Parents Act—by comparison with the commitments in the same months a year later. There were committed to the various pri-



vate institutions of Cook County in the first six months of 1911, 125 fewer dependent children than during the corresponding months of 1912, which, since the pension law went into effect, were the months in which the granting of pensions was the most active. While it is not reasonable to suppose that the granting of pensions has had the effect of increasing the number of dependent children in institutions, on the other hand it is at least clear that the number of commitments of dependent children to societies and institutions has not been reduced by the pensions. The increase of commitments was due to other causes and the number was but slightly, if at all, affected by the granting of pensions.

*Investigation of Applicants*

From July 1, 1911, to January 16, 1912, there were 335 applications for pensions. From January 16, 1912, to September 30, 1912, there were 1,115 applications, making a total of 1,450 applications to September 30 inclusive. The number of pensions granted up to September 30 was 522, which affected 1,769 children. Of this number, 156 children in 41 families were no longer pensioned on September 30, the number on September 30 therefore being 481 families and 1,613 children. These numbers had been increased to 503 and 1,700 respectively during October. The amount expended for pensions during September was \$10,922 and during October, \$11,713. This last amount would make an average pension expenditure of \$6.89 per child and \$23.28 per family. It is estimated that the cost of the pensions, exclusive of cost of administration, will be, during the next year, not less than \$200,000.

When the plan for pensions came in force, the Chicago Juvenile Court was not at once equipped with sufficient probation officers to make the necessary investigations, and it was not until after a large number of applications for pensions had been accumulated that enough probation officers were appointed to make the investigations necessary to determine the advisability of granting a pension, and to supervise the family intelligently when a pension had been granted. The amount of investigation and supervision grew so rapidly toward the end of 1911 and the force of probation officers was so inadequate that the judge of the Juvenile Court asked the assistance of a group of citizens not connected with the court to organize themselves into a citizens' advisory committee; and, when the judge also asked the co-operation of private agencies in sifting the facts in the pension cases, a pension case committee of seven was organized, consisting of the chief probation officer and his deputy, representatives of the United Charities and a group of other private non-sectarian societies interested in the work of the Juvenile Court, together with representatives of the Jewish Home-Finding So-

ciety, the St. Vincent de Paul, and other Catholic agencies interested in children. The chief probation officer was chosen the chairman of this committee but he and his deputy were not given a vote. At the beginning, a representative of the county relief agent, through whose office the payments are approved, also sat with this committee, but when important differences of opinion on the advisability of pensioning certain families arose, the county agent's representative withdrew and preferred to present his facts directly to the judge—a procedure which has been continued throughout the year.

*The Case Committee and the Judge*

Since January 16, 1912, this case committee has held semi-weekly meetings. Their recommendations have been based in most cases upon the facts presented by the probation officers to whom the individual applications for pensions had been assigned for inquiry. The committee has not hesitated to make certain inquiries itself through its members when it has not been satisfied with the facts presented, but, as a rule, the decision for pension has been made on the probation officer's presentation. The committee's recommendations have been of great help to the judge in deciding what families should be pensioned, and he has been largely guided by them in his decision both as to whether the pension should be granted and as to its amount.

Whenever this case committee has decided to recommend to the judge that he pension a certain family, the name and address are given to the county relief agent's representative, to give him an opportunity to satisfy his department of the advisability of a pension. For this ten days are generally allowed.

When the case comes before the judge for a hearing, the mother and children who are prospective beneficiaries of the pension come before him; the probation officer who has made the investigation presents the case; the deputy chief probation officer presents the recommendation of the case committee, and the county agent's representative adds such data as he has gathered through his independent investigation. On the facts from these three sources the judge generally reaches his conclusion without much difficulty. The county agent's representative has often added materially to the information regarding the family's financial status, the financial status of the relatives, and their ability to help. In some instances also the county agent's department has furnished more or less reliable information regarding the family's moral character. If the judge decides that a pension should be granted, he charges the mother with the duty of keeping accurate account of her expenses and promises visits by a probation officer, whom she is to acquaint with her financial expenditures in detail



It is generally arranged that the supervision of the family remain in the hands of the one who has made the original investigation.

#### *Kind of Investigation Made*

From an intimate acquaintance with the work of this case committee for a period of six weeks and from a patient hearing of the presentation of cases by the various probation officers, the writer did not acquire much confidence in the kind of investigation that the probation officers make. In many instances the probation officer, after a meager investigation, presented certain facts which were wholly inadequate for determining whether or not a pension was advisable, and the case was then referred back to the probation officer for additional inquiry on certain specific points. Not infrequently it was necessary to refer the case a second and a third time. Not infrequently meetings of the case committee were held at which deferred cases were the order of the day, only to have them deferred again and again. The committee's work was delayed, their time was spent in mere technical criticism, and the families were kept from a week to a month longer without the definite and prompt answer which they anxiously awaited and to which they were entitled.

The separate investigation made by the county agent's department, while contributing materially to the facts about the family, was found to be made frequently with a brutality to which no applicant for assistance should be exposed. Insinuations were made regarding immoral conditions in the neighborhood inquiry about the widow which were based upon neither facts nor suspicions, but which the county representative threw out to arouse interest in his inquiry, and by means of which he hoped to get incriminating information.

#### *Character of Probation Officers*

With some exceptions, the group of thirteen probation officers were political appointees of the president of the county board for periods of sixty days, in contravention of the civil service law. They inspired no confidence in their ability to make the necessary inquiries with such tact and insight as to determine the wisdom of pensioning, or in their ability to supervise a pensioned family in such a way that their work would develop any reasonable plan or any good results for the family. Not only were a considerable number incapable, but more serious charges could be made against certain members of the staff which would entirely unfit them for important public service. Much of their time was spent in dawdling in the office, aside from the great waste of time which their inefficiency and inexperience made necessary at the meetings of the case committee, and in securing additional facts on the same family by repeated visits. The office direction of their work was very

meager, much time and energy was lost in that way, and a good deal of their undirected work was done to little purpose.

In certain instances the probation officers made an investigation sufficiently complete to answer the question whether a pension should be granted or not, but wholly inadequate for any constructive and supervisory work with the family. It must be conceded that, where an average of \$23.28 is provided for each family, temptations come to spend money recklessly or foolishly, even in some of the better families. A pension plan of this sort requires careful following up, so that appropriate suggestions in regard to the health of mother and children, employment of older children, difficulties in discipline, an improved diet, and many other matters that come up in family life, besides advice on expenditures, may be made. The probation officer's investigation, however, seemed to develop into espionage instead of friendly supervision.

#### *Study of 100 Pensioned Families*

By means of a small staff of trained investigators, an inquiry was undertaken by the writer, with the cordial and helpful co-operation of the judge, the chief probation officer, and his deputy. The circumstances of one hundred pensioned families chosen at random were looked into. These families were visited in their own homes and a patient and painstaking statement was had from them regarding their present situation, the health, schooling, and work of the children, the mother's health, work and fitness to care for them, the adequacy of the pension, the items of the budget, and the individual expenditures per week. Inquiry was also made with reference to the family's condition before the death of the breadwinner, and after the breakdown had occurred and before the pension began. In addition, other inquiries were made in verification if it seemed necessary.

The results of this inquiry are summarized in the following table:

	Yes.	No.	Doubt- ful
Was the probation officer's investigation adequate? .....	36	64	
Is the probation officer of the type to render the necessary service, and is the relationship developing between mother and probation officer satisfactory? .....	14	80	6
Is the probation officer's supervision over health, training and diet of the children, and over the family budget, adequate? .....	11	89	
Is the probation officer's supervision resulting in a development of any plan and in good results for the family? .....	7	88	5
Is the relief adequate? .....	61	39	
Is school attendance of the children satisfactory? .....	72	18	10
Is the mother with her children a reasonable period of time? .....	86	13	1
Is there evidence in the mothers' and children's attitude of undue dependence? .....	24	74	2
Have the church, relatives, employers or private societies become less interested, or ceased their interest altogether, since the pension began? ....	51	19	30



Are the standards of the family such that the home should be maintained for both mother and children?.....	81	10	9
Are improvements noted over the care that the family had previous to the pension period? .....	58	35	7
Are there conditions in the family that need remedy by court order if the pension is to be continued?.....	32	55	13
Was the application due to the existence of a pension plan from public funds? .....	34	64	2

This study of one hundred cases has led to conclusions that cannot but have weight in determining the value of the pension plans in force in Chicago.

*Meaning of Word "Pension"*

The term "pension" is not a new one in the vocabulary of agencies which work with needy families. It implies an accurate analysis of the conditions and needs of the family and a knowledge of the resources that are available and that may be made available. In addition it suggests that the whole need not covered by the family's own resources be met by the payment of sums per week or month, so that the family may feel the assurance of having the budget complete and of knowing just what amount they may count upon receiving in a given period. It further implies the principle that under those circumstances the family is much more likely to develop the elements of self-respect, self-confidence and thrift which result in total family rehabilitation. It is interesting to observe that this use of the word "pension" is no different from the use of the word "relief" as it exists in the more enlightened policies of societies in various cities and commonwealths. Therefore, while to call the sum a pension may be a matter of convenience, no vital distinction can be drawn between sums that are said to come as a matter of justice and those that come as relief.

*Testing Probation Officer's Work*

The probation officer's investigation was one test to which the records were subjected, and, giving the officers the benefit of the doubt, the inquiry shows that of the 100 cases 36 had an adequate investigation, while 64 of the investigations were not reasonably satisfactory. With exceptions, the probation officers were entirely unequipped for the task. Several who possessed intelligence and the best of intentions failed because of their lack of training and experience. The investigations in some cases were adequate only because they had been again and again returned to the officers, until all the necessary facts had been gathered.

When we turn to the probation officer's work in after-care, we find that they had even less fitness for this task than for investigation. Supervision that will be of value presupposes an intimate knowledge of the family circumstances, so that it may not develop into espionage. This knowledge did not exist except in rare instances, and hence friendly and effective supervision

could not result even if there had been time for it. Most children were attending school regularly, but some of the probation officers were unaware as to whether they were in school or not. Other children were out of school or were going irregularly without the probation officers' knowledge of it. Of the 100 cases looked into, in 72 families the school attendance was satisfactory; in 18 it was not satisfactory; in 2 families the children were too young for school attendance, and in the case of 8 no inquiry was made. Inquiry as to whether the officer's supervision over the health, training, and diet of the children, and over the other members of the family was adequate, led to the conclusion that only in 11 families was this the case, while 89 did not have sufficient supervision to affect the family in these important matters.

*Little Planning Ahead*

When we come to study the results of the supervision with the idea of seeing whether any planning for better home conditions was resulting, we find that only in seven instances does there seem to be any looking ahead on the part of probation officer or family to a period of self-support or to a better plan for the family life, while 88 families seemed to be living on without the development of any plan for the future. These conditions were mostly due to the fact that the probation officers did not seem to be of the type to render the necessary service and to develop the relationship between mother and children and officer which would bring positive results. In only 14 families are wholesome results apparent from the supervision, while in 80 they are lacking. In 2 other instances the probation officer is of the right type, but it is too early to see results, and in 4 instances the results are doubtful.

Of the 100 families visited, the pension granted was deemed adequate in 59 cases; inadequate in 39, while in 2 it might be considered doubtful. This inadequacy is apparent to the court, and the judge has done what he could to remedy it. In October, 1912, of the 522 families pensioned, 52 that were receiving the maximum amount granted by the court were inadequately aided, while a considerable number of other families in the same condition were not receiving the maximum. This group of 52 families the court has induced the private societies to provide for on their merits, since their greater flexibility of plan permitted more generous relief to be given in such cases.

*The Maximum and Supplementary Aid*

Such a division of labor was not originally intended when the pension law was passed, but the administration of the law in Illinois has convinced its friends that some maximum was needed. A more flexible plan seemed



the doors wide for undue pressure upon the administrators of the fund. Until December 1, 1912, this maximum was \$10 per month per child, but after that date the judge was willing to consider recommendations for \$15 per month for girls and \$10 per month for boys as before. This change was not an index of any greater need, but was due to the fact that \$15 a month is the amount paid from the public treasury to institutions for dependent girls, while \$10 a month is paid for dependent boys.

When it was found necessary that a maximum be established, it also became necessary, in the case of families where there are few other resources or where there are but two or three children, to have some supplementary aid. Whether the public pension in such cases should be supplemented from private sources or whether the aid should all come from one source became thereupon an important question. In this matter the various relief agencies came to a substantial agreement to the effect that the pension should preferably come from one source, whether public or private. Out of this situation grew the court's arrangement with private societies by which they provide on their merits for the 10 per cent inadequately cared for by the court.

#### *Keeping the Family Together*

The purposes of the pension doubtless included the demand that the mother should remain a reasonable period of time with her children. It was believed that because of the mother's going out to work either every day or most of the days of the week, the children did not have that oversight and care, training and discipline, which would result in good family life and in well trained children. We find that 87 per cent of the mothers were with their children a reasonable period of time under the pension system; that either the inadequacy of the pension or the failure to insist on the mother's remaining at home when the resources were ample, led to 13 per cent not being with their children as much as they should be.

While the case committee carefully passes on all cases that come up for pension, the inadequate investigation evidently has led to the pensioning of families in conditions that would not be approved if all the facts were known to them or to the court. In 32 per cent the conditions seemed to be such that they needed a rehearing and a remedy by the court if the pension was to be continued. In 55 per cent conditions were apparently satisfactory; 4 cases are doubtful, while in 9 others the remedies are doubtless in the hands of probation officers who could apply them if they were of the right sort and if time were given them for a careful study of the situation.

On the other hand, it should not be supposed from this test that all of the 32 families men-

tioned as having conditions that need remedying are such that the family should not be kept together. In fact, in only 10 families are the standards clearly such that the home should be broken up, while in 9 the decision is doubtful, leaving 81 per cent with standards that, while they might require some remedy, are on the whole good. This speaks well for the careful work of the court and of the case committee in sifting out those that should not be pensioned.

#### *Pension vs. Church, Employers, Friends and Relatives*

The effect of the pension upon the generosity of relatives, and upon the development of private aid through church, employers, friends or societies is a thing which will be keenly watched by all who are interested in the care of needy families. It is a subject of large concern to know whether, through such a large relief fund as a widows' pension fund, churches, relatives, employers or private societies will become less interested or cease their interest altogether at the point where the pension begins. On this subject 51 per cent of the cases examined show either that less interest began to be felt as a result of a pension plan or that these agencies ceased their interest altogether. In 19 instances there seems to have been no effect, but in some of these no other agencies or individuals were at any time interested. In 30 instances it was impossible to measure just what effect the pension had had. In 34 instances it was believed that the application for the pension was due to the existence of the pension itself, while 64 applications did not seem to have originated in that way, and 2 were doubtful.

Under these circumstances one would expect that there would be evidence of undue dependence in the families. We find, however, that the number showing this attitude is not as large as the number of applications due to the existence of a pension, for 74 showed no evidence of such dependence. In 26 families, however, the fact that this sum was granted from public funds by the court and called a widows' pension either had not prevented the development of a pauper spirit or had not removed it in instances in which it had previously existed. It is evident that pensions have the same effect as relief.

A few general conclusions from the study of the 100 Chicago pension cases may be of value:

#### *Types of Families Dealt With*

The administrators of pension funds in Chicago, as well as those in the other cities visited, find that in common with administrators of other relief funds they are dealing with at least two types: first, families who, because of their receiving generous aid, rapidly deteriorate, become less energetic, less self-reliant and less moral than before such aid was given; second,



families who, because of more generous aid, feel that economic security which becomes for them the basis of family rehabilitation. Most of the families visited are now better off financially than before the pension was granted, and are also better off than during the period preceding the death or last illness of the chief breadwinner, or whatever other cause led to economic breakdown. In some instances the family has never been as prosperous as it is now.

It was interesting to find that in a large majority of the families visited there was no evidence of wanton recklessness, extravagance or foolishness in the expenditures. There are many in the total number who have a large measure of family life and whose care of the children is most excellent, but a few of the mothers were clearly intemperate women, and there was a tendency to keep family groups together that had better be broken up. In one family, for instance, the mother was making capital of her crippled child and was interfering with its proper care. In another a patient in the highly contagious stage of tuberculosis was being kept at home under conditions detrimental to the two children. In another the family was syphilitic. In still others, the moral tone was low and the children unlikely to prosper, no matter how adequately relieved.

#### *Inflexibility of Pension Funds*

There are various indications of a lack—a necessary lack—of flexibility on the part of pension funds. None is more unfortunate than the requirement made in Chicago that if there is even a small sum left in the bank or any equity in a piece of property, however small, it must first be spent before a pension can be considered. The woman who has a small property, however much encumbered, or who has a bit of insurance left, is practically told, "Go spend what you have and then come back." This certainly leads to extravagance and dishonesty, and prevents any development of thrift.

In a number of the families visited the improvement that was evidenced came through a larger family income rather than through good administration and friendly oversight, and in a number of other families, where there had not been much improvement, it seemed equally clear that it was mainly because of unwise and ignorant management. A county that assumes as important a task as the pensioning of 1,700 children is guilty of flagrant neglect when it gives them over into the hands of a corps of visitors who are largely unfit for such serious responsibilities.

Such intelligence as is being shown in the administration of the Illinois law in refusing to consider the pensioning of families in which the father has recently deserted, in which there is but one child, or in which the children would for

various reasons be injured rather than benefited by remaining with the mother, is due to the careful consideration given each case by the case committee, and to the staunch way in which the judge has supported their work. The law itself requires no such safeguards. The committee is there only at the request of the court, and it is doubtful whether a community can for any length of time withstand the application of a much broader interpretation to a law so loosely drawn, a law which does not even limit its benefits to mothers, but permits the pensioning of both parents.

#### *General Conclusions*

1. The present resources and methods of procedure in caring for women with dependent children are so diverse in diverse communities that it is impossible to enact state-wide legislation that will meet their needs successfully. This diversity has been shown to some extent in this study. It is often found in the different cities of a single state. It is, for instance, true that while Boston, through its public and private charitable agencies, is largely preventing the breaking up of families for reasons of poverty alone, in other cities in Massachusetts the care of dependent children and their mothers is not as adequately provided for as in Boston and its immediate vicinity. When to all this is added the fact that in some cities and states subsidies are granted to private institutions for the support of children at public expense, while in others subsidies are forbidden, it becomes apparent that it is impossible to legislate wisely in any one state by merely copying laws that are on the statute books of another. In California the support of dependent children in private institutions at public expense has been in existence for many years, and no plan of outdoor relief obtains in San Francisco. These circumstances are not typical, however, of many American communities. The circumstances of Kansas City are also individual. With no public outdoor relief and only small sums being paid to private children's societies from public funds, and with private relief societies inadequately equipped to meet the needs, the situation was one to encourage the development of a new form of public aid.

On the other hand, neither of these sets of circumstances prevailed in Chicago or Milwaukee. While the general opinion prevailed in Chicago that widows' needs could not be promptly and fully met, it is worthy of note that the Illinois law did not grow out of a conviction born of careful study of the relief situation in Chicago. It was urged by those who had but an imperfect knowledge of the resources available for women with dependent children, of the difficulties that had been occasioned by the merging of the two large private institutions available



societies, or of the increasing success and adequacy with which the new agency, the United Charities, was coping with the problem.

These varying circumstances certainly do not create a presumption in favor of widows' pensions to be provided in every state in the country without considering, in the case of each state where the question comes up, how many dependent children are unprovided for, what the state has already done, and how each community is meeting the need.

#### *Necessity of Adequate Relief*

2. The idea of adequate relief is a new one for most charitable agencies. Agencies public and private are still quite generally in the habit of calculating the amount that can be given any one family by dividing the probable total number of families under care into the probable total amount available for relief. Great strides, however, have been made in private agencies, particularly in their ability to recognize the value of assuming the responsibility for aiding only such families as can be fully provided for, and of developing, within the families themselves, within their immediate circles, or from natural sources, such aid as will wholly and best meet the need. Public agencies have only partially as yet felt this influence, and they recognize only imperfectly or not at all the many forms of service which can be rendered those in distress aside from the granting of money. Progress has, however, been made even among them.

#### *The Duplication of Machinery*

3. The creation of new administrative machinery without doing anything with the old is a common enough error, which leads often to conflicting policies and authorities. The duplicate investigations for the granting of Chicago pensions are an illustration of this. In most of the cities and towns of this land the public relief officers, under various designations, are the last resort for aiding women with dependent children. By creating new bodies to deal with the pensioning of women with dependent children, the experience of these officers is disregarded, and the problem of a new form of relief is turned over to a new group, a group more likely to work in antagonism than in co-operation with the established relief authorities.

#### *Burdening the Juvenile Court*

4. With the exception of St. Louis, the administration of all the plans for pensions that have been considered is vested in the Juvenile Court. The work of the Juvenile Court is so important that it is extremely hazardous to its proper development to add to its judicial functions the function of pensioning and the supervision of pensioners. The judges of the Juvenile Courts represented in this study are men of integ-

rity and intelligence, and their very interest in the social problems of their community, which they felt were not being successfully met by existing agencies, has led them either to encourage widows' pension plans or to originate them. Most of them do not themselves feel that the Juvenile Court is adapted to this task.

Says Judge Baker of the Boston Juvenile Court: "I want to warn the communities that are going to try any experiments with widows' pensions or relief to parents not to administer them through the juvenile courts." To which Judge Pinckney of the Chicago Juvenile Court adds: "When Judge Baker says that the administration of this relief ought not to be left to the Juvenile Court of Chicago, or to any juvenile court, I say Amen! Amen!"

A study of the pension administration of the various juvenile courts does not give one that confidence in its success which would justify its further extension. If widows' pensions are needed in our various states, some other agency than the juvenile court should be charged with their administration.

#### *Effect on Commitments*

5. Those who expected that pensions to mothers with dependent children would reduce the number of commitments to institutions materially are doomed to disappointment, judging from the experience of the cities where pensions are in vogue. The number of children committed because of poverty alone is much smaller than is generally supposed, and only a careful case-by-case examination of the reasons leading to the commitments would bring out the facts. Most of the dependent children committed in Chicago were neglected by their parents and had no homes to which they could safely be returned.

#### *Creating New Dependents*

6. The passage of new laws for the pensioning of widows with dependent children who are in need will inevitably create a new class of dependents in our communities. Thirty-four of the 100 cases examined in Chicago seem to be due to the fact of the existence of a pension plan. In communities where the forms of co-operation between the juvenile court and the private relief agencies are not as carefully worked out as they are in Chicago, this number will be materially increased. Any legislation that seeks to aid new groups of dependents without at the same time guarding against the creation of such dependents is dangerous.

#### *Preventing Widowhood*

7. The enthusiasm in favor of widows' pensions must not be underestimated and undervalued. It is born of a desire to have justice done to the mother who is attempting to keep her brood of children together under trying cir-



cumstances. A number of the states of the Union have, however, begun to meet this question in a more logical way, and are pointing the way to a better solution. They have discovered the causes of some of the deaths which have brought about widowhood, and have passed laws for their prevention. They have discovered that deaths from accident and from industrial and other preventable diseases constitute a considerable proportion of the total number.<sup>1</sup> They have better protected the living so that there might be fewer widows and dependent children. They have passed workmen's compensation and employers' liability laws, so that the industry and the consuming public might carry the expense that comes as a result of the risk involved in the production of goods. They have passed insurance legislation which has decreased premiums and encouraged thrift.

When, in addition to measures that look toward the prevention of accident, disease and death, the community has also recognized the importance of a strict enforcement of legal responsibilities, still less will remain to be done through the pensioning of a new dependent class. There are few states that have laws to deal at all adequately with desertion, bastardy, and support by relatives in line of descent, and where such laws are reasonably adequate their rigid and intelligent enforcement is rare. The en-

thusiast in favor of widows' pensions is indifferent to the rigid enforcement of responsibilities. He is apt to hold lightly the ties of kinship and of those natural community relations which find their most beautiful expression in the service which one person may render to another in a time of distress. He is apt to turn easily toward the payment of a lump sum from the public treasury as a substitute for family and neighborhood responsibility, and as a remedy for all social ills.

The existing public and private agencies for home assistance should be adapted, standardized and used to meet the present needs as far as their purposes and their methods make this practicable. When, in addition to these, the preventive measures that have been mentioned have been instituted, a large part of the dependence in most of our cities and states will have been met. If, however, social and economic conditions, upon careful inquiry, are found to be such that large groups of families are left in poverty or destitution, it were better that a plan of social insurance be adopted than that these families should, group by group, be added as dependents to our communities. Such plans of insurance against widowhood, unemployment, invalidism or accident are now in vogue in England, Germany and other European countries. The state provides the whole support or asks the breadwinner to contribute from his earnings a portion of what will be paid him as a pension when some unavoidable misfortune has come upon him.

<sup>1</sup>In another study of the Russell Sage Foundation now about completed 29 per cent of the husbands of the 799 widows studied died of tuberculosis, and 9 per cent were killed by industrial accidents.

## THE MACHINE

HELEN M. BOARDMAN

The Machine is kept in a little hut not far from the factory. Each morning it propels itself over to its proper place in the factory. It is a wonderful Machine but it is not worth much. There are so many such Machines in the world.

As the sun peeps over the horizon, the factory whistles blow and the Machine starts out. Other gray Machines are going through the early light to the same place. They are used to make hats. What would the world do without hats? Indeed, hats *must* be made.

One day the scream of the whistle is heard before closing time. The great wheels stop for a moment as something silent and gory is carried out and taken away in a wagon. A Machine is broken. Never mind, there are other Machines to be had at the same price. Toot, whistles! Turn, wheels! What if a few Machines wear out? Hats must be made!



# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 15

January 11, 1913



A HAPPY NEW YEAR FROM UNCLE SAM

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**T**HE Pennsylvania children who come to their majority in the 1920's ought to average an inch taller in height, and be broader of chest and sounder of lung; they will have more of the joy of life in them; they will have fewer crippled fathers among them, fewer broken-down women among their kin. The reason lies in the fact that J. C. Delaney, state factory inspector, has been retired by Governor Tener—Delaney, the chief stumbling block to progressive labor legislation and adequate child labor and safety enforcement in this, the greatest industrial state of the Union.

**S**TATISTICS, theories and fine distinctions flew thick and fast in Boston between the holidays, when five of the national learned bodies held annual meetings. But the theories dealt with human happiness, the statistics with race progress and the distinctions with fundamental programs of prevention. P. 474.

**B**EGINNING January 1 the practice was started in the New York Children's Courts of having one judge sit continuously, instead of several rotating. To students of juvenile delinquency, such as Judge Russell, this means that one policy, one mind, one conception of child character and one philosophy of punishment will henceforth harmonize the treatment accorded to wayward childhood in that city. Pp. 467, 471.

**M**EANWHILE a semblance of order has come out of the confusion surrounding the Chicago Juvenile Court. Following a judicial decision that the probation officers of the court are not subject to the civil service law, a committee was appointed by Judge Pinckney to examine and pass on all applicants. Twenty-two new officers are to be added. P. 467.

**A** PERSONAL glimpse at America's pioneer minimum wage board. P. 470.

**A** COLLEGE teacher thought insanity was never cured and was rapidly increasing until she went recently to the first public conference on mental hygiene ever held in this or any country. She was only one of 21,000 visitors who had a chance to learn otherwise. P. 470.

**A** LOAN shark filed with Gimbel Brothers, the New York department store owners, an assignment against the wages of one of their employees. Gimbel Brothers refused to recognize it and the loan shark brought suit. The court held the claim invalid because the assignment was not filed within three days of the loan. This destroys a powerful weapon of the usurer. P. 472.

**A**MONG Congressional cynosures just now is the bill which would extend the benefits of the federal parole law to prisoners serving life terms and the measure which provides for an investigation of the treatment accorded United States prisoners in jails. P. 468.

# THE SURVEY

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**P**RESIDENT TAFT'S nominations for the Commission on Industrial Relations have been referred to the Senate Committee on Education and Labor of which Senator Borah is chairman.

**T**HE Senate committee on commerce has been holding hearings on the La Follette-Wilson seamen's bill, already described in *THE SURVEY*.<sup>1</sup> This bill passed the House last session, and although the Senate committee has made no announcement about it, there is good ground for the belief that it will be reported favorably before long. The chances are that it will pass, but the friends of the measure are taking no risks and leaving no stone unturned to influence legislators to vote for it.

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY* July 6, 1912, p. 495.





VOLUME XXIX, No. 15

JANUARY 11, 1913

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### CHANGING NEW YORK'S CHILDREN'S COURTS

On January 1 the children's courts of New York underwent some marked changes. The practice was inaugurated of having one judge sit continuously, with the exception of vacation periods, and becoming responsible for the direction of the work in that court. This is in strong contrast with the principle which formerly prevailed of having a large number of the judges of the Court of Special Sessions, which has adult criminal jurisdiction, rotate for a short period, usually one month in the children's courts. Four judges were selected from the total number and it was arranged for them to do all the work in the four children's courts. Under the old plan these four judges sat in the different children's courts and in no one court did they sit continuously for a period longer than three months. The new arrangement obviates the necessity of turning over large numbers of probationers from one judge to another. The courts in the boroughs of Richmond and Queens sit only twice a week and can readily be covered by one judge. This leaves a fourth judge free to correlate and unify the work of all of the courts by sitting in each of them.

The twenty probation officers who, selected by civil service examination, took up their duties in the children's courts last March were practically the first ones in the children's court work to be paid by the city. So effective has their work been thought that the city has made provision for doubling the number of officers for this purpose, beginning January 1.

Plans have been drawn and excavations al-

ready made for a new four-story children's court building for the borough of Manhattan. It is said that additional provision must be made in the near future for mental clinics in connection with the courts and for a municipal detention home.

### BETTER DAYS FOR THE CHICAGO JUVENILE COURT

Those who have shared the country-wide interest in the crisis through which the Juvenile Court of Chicago has been passing<sup>1</sup> will rejoice with all Chicago's public spirited citizens in what is deemed a decided turn of its affairs for the better. During the past two years, under the administration of county affairs by a president of the county board who is described as incompetent and self-assertive, determined efforts were made to discredit and demoralize the probation service of the court. These were temporarily successful. Civil service appointees were either forced to resign by hardships and abuse heaped upon them, or were dismissed on charges declared to be trumped up. The membership of the civil service commission was repeatedly changed until it did the president's bidding. Vacancies thus created were filled by "sixty-day appointments" of those who, it is said, could pass no examination whatever. The judge vigorously protested, as did almost the entire press and intelligent, right-minded citizens generally, but all were helpless. The November election was the last and only recourse of good citizenship. The former regime was overwhelmingly defeated by

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, March 30, 1912.



the election of Alexander A. McCormick, to the presidency of the county board.

As president of the Immigrants' Protective League and a former resident of Hull House, Mr. McCormick showed himself a capable representative of the better citizens and social workers who had received scorn and malice as their portion. Meanwhile, however, the state courts added to the confusion by deciding that the probation officers of the Juvenile Court were not included among the officials under the civil service law, and were to be appointed by the judges of the circuit court. This decision is regarded as temporarily advantageous, pending efforts to strengthen and extend the merit law in its application to the Juvenile Court officials. The appointment of probation officers has been entrusted to the judge of the Juvenile Court, Merritt W. Pinckney, by his associates on the circuit bench. Judge Pinckney has selected a committee to examine and pass upon all applicants, consisting of Louise De Koven Bowen, president of the Juvenile Protective Association; Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch of Sinai Temple; Leonora P. V. Meder, president of the Federation of Catholic Women's Charities; the Rev. Father C. J. Quill, superintendent of the Working Boys' Home, and Sherman C. Kingsley, director of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund. Twenty-two new officers are to be added so that the court will now have seventy-four in addition to the police probation officers. For the thirty-eight vacancies there are more than 500 applicants.

According to the annual report filed in the circuit court, the total number of children brought before the Juvenile Court of Cook County during the thirteen years from July 1, 1899 to October 31, 1912, was 44,407.

#### WILL CONGRESS CAUSE JAIL INVESTIGATION?

One of the measures before Congress, the progress of which is being watched anxiously by its friends, is the Clayton bill to appoint a commission to investigate the treatment accorded federal prisoners in jails and other places of detention. It will be remembered that Attorney General Wickersham recommended such a commission in his annual report last year. Mr. Wickersham declared that many places in which federal prisoners are confined are "wholly unsuitable for the detention of any human beings and are shocking breeding places of crime." Representative Clayton's bill has been favorably voted by the Judiciary Committee of the House and is among the measures for which consideration by the present Congress is thought not unlikely.

In this connection it is interesting to compare how a foreigner sums up his adverse judgment of jails, and the general run of our places

of incarceration. Writing to the *London Daily News*, Canon Horsley says:

"It is the local government, allowed to become a local iniquity, that sustains such a system and ignores or tolerates conditions, which seem incompatible with enlightened humanity or even the self-protection of the state.

"I have never found an American to deny or to excuse this state of affairs, of which yet I have read yearly for the last thirty years."

#### RESULTS OF PAROLE LAW IN INDIANA

Even farther along is the bill which extends the benefits of the federal parole law to prisoners serving life terms. It has passed the House and is before the Senate on a favorable report from the Committee on the Judiciary. Fifteen states have already set the example by permitting any prisoner to be paroled after he has served a considerable period, provided his record warrants. As long ago as 1909 a committee of the American Prison Association reported favorably upon the idea. Attorney General Wickersham advocates this measure as well as the one authorizing a jail investigation.

In this connection it is worth while to see what have been the observable results of the Indiana indeterminate sentence and parole laws, which have been on the statute books since 1897. They apply to all men over sixteen years of age and all women over seventeen years, unless convicted of treason or murder in the first or second degree. Between the minimum and maximum terms of imprisonment prisoners serving indeterminate sentences may be conditionally released by the parole board. At the Jeffersonville reformatory and the state prison this board consists of the trustees; at the woman's prison it consists of the trustees, the superintendent, the chaplain and the physician. Paroled prisoners may be held under supervision until the expiration of the maximum term. In actual practice those who have complied with the conditions of their release are usually discharged at the end of one year.

Up to September 30, 1912, the reformatory, the state prison and the woman's prison had granted conditional releases to 6,945 prisoners. The reports to the board of state charities indicate that 4,000 of these completed the parole period satisfactorily and were released from supervision. An additional 449 were discharged because the maximum limit of their sentence had been reached. At the close of the fiscal year 573 were under supervision and 120 had died. These make a total of 5,142. The remaining 1,803 are the failures, those who are known to have broken faith. They constitute 25.9 per cent of the whole number paroled. Up to September 30, 779 of these were still at large.



To give the figures for the separate institutions, the reformatory had paroled up to the close of the year 4,171 young men and its unsatisfactory cases numbered 1,087 or 26 per cent; of the 2,580 men paroled from the state prison, 659 or 25.5 per cent proved delinquent; the woman's prison paroled 194 women, of whom 57 or 29.3 per cent proved delinquent.

The prisoners during the time they were under supervision, never less than a year, reported earnings for themselves amounting to \$1,886,995.53 and expenses amounting to \$1,568,466.66. These reports were certified by their employers. These ex-prisoners, therefore, not only were self-sustaining, but had on hand or due them when they ceased reporting a total of \$318,528.87. Had they remained in prison, their maintenance for one year would have cost the state, at the average per capita expense, the additional sum of \$1,152,555.80.

#### ALL ABOARD FOR SEATTLE

All aboard for the specially arranged and personally conducted visit to the Canadian Rockies, the Alps of British Columbia, where for over 600 miles a continuous panorama of bewildering magnificence presents to the enraptured vision of the spellbound tourist wondrous glacier fields, beetling precipices, snow-crowned peaks, bottomless canyons, umbrageous forests, crystal lakes, roaring torrents and peaceful valleys, all thrown together in grand confusion by the witching hand of Nature.

Don't forget your ear muffs and Alpine stock (nor, if you're a woman, your bloomers) for a week's travel through that quintessence of modern mountain myriorama, which in the words of Edward Whymper, conqueror of the Matterhorn, with whom Parker B. Field, superintendent of the Boston Children's Mission, agrees, is "sixty Switzerland rolled into one."

Special tourist car leaves North Station, Boston, June 19, at 10 a. m. Destination, the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Seattle. Make-up of party, the Monday Evening Club of Boston, together with any of their friends and enemies who can beg, steal or borrow the \$162.50 necessary to the round trip. No immunity guaranteed to those who steal it. Leader, the aforesaid Parker B. Field, who has been over the entire route, has climbed the mountains of Switzerland, and as member for seven years of the excursion committee of the Appalachian Mountain Club has conducted many a tour of equal magnitude and importance. Purpose, the chance to compare Nature's cataracts with the cataracts of oratory which will pour down from Seattle platforms during conference week; Nature's gleaming peaks with the bald heads of conference octogenarians, and Nature's conven-

tion-breaking and custom-destroying prodigies with the radicalness of conference benmarshes and wilburphillips.

Toot, toot! All aboard! Tickets, please!

#### ILLINOIS ENDORSEMENT OF CHILDREN'S BUREAU POLICY

The personal tribute to Julia C. Lathrop was not more hearty than the endorsement of her policy for the Federal Children's Bureau when 200 of her Chicago fellow workers hastily gathered to welcome her home from Washington for a brief holiday visit. Doctors, teachers, women's club leaders, social workers and officials such as the president of the state board of health, the chief of the department of factory inspection, the superintendent of the department of compulsory education, and the county clerk, vied with each other at this city club meeting in showing the fundamental need for the registration of births which is the object of the initial campaign of the children's bureau. While the present Illinois law was conceded to be a dead letter, some of these officials accounted for the fact by its failure to provide for either the responsibility or the expense of conveying information to public prosecutors regarding failure to comply with its requirements. Others thought that the lack of an appropriation to cover the fee of 25 cents for reporting each birth accounted for the failure to do so. But the county clerk stated that a recent appropriation of \$5,000 for this purpose had not been exhausted and that more midwives than doctors turned in claims for fees with their reports. Through the urgent efforts of the county clerk's office, however, the registration of births in Chicago has risen from 19,000 in 1908 to over 43,000 in 1911. All agreed that while the present law had been inoperative through the lack of official enforcement and of the public sentiment to demand it, new and more exacting legislation would be required to secure statewide registration of births.

The opinion was strongly urged by some that the responsibility for reporting births should be placed primarily upon the parents and that the fact of the birth should be registered immediately without waiting for the naming of the child. Waiting for the name in order to complete the registration frequently delays the report for a year. A physician emphasized the fact that a registration that will help parents save the life or the sight of their child is too late to do so if reported even a few days after birth. The "model law" endorsed by the American Medical Association, the American Bar Association, the National Federation of Women's Clubs and the American Federation of Labor, was favored by all the speakers.

Miss Lathrop's statement of the policy and plans of the Children's Bureau met with hearty



response, especially the endeavor to gain the good will of parents, utilize all existing health agencies and to secure the active co-operation of women's clubs and other social agencies. A strong representative committee was appointed to round up sustained co-operation with the bureau, to secure the registration of births in Illinois by more effective legislation and administration.

#### RESEARCH BUREAU FOR BALTIMORE

The Maryland Bureau of State and Municipal Research which has opened offices at 728 Equitable Building, Baltimore, differs from research bureaus created elsewhere, in that it expects to study the work of state as well as municipal departments and institutions. The bureau is under the direction of a board of trustees, representing a small group of Baltimore men who have contributed sufficient funds to give the municipal research idea a trying out in Maryland. W. H. Maltbie, an attorney of Baltimore, is director.

Its first investigation in Baltimore is being made in connection with the inspection of weights and measures. Under the Baltimore city charter this inspection constitutes a sub-department of the work in the comptroller's office. Work on other investigations will begin shortly.

#### AMERICA'S PIONEER MINIMUM WAGE BOARD

Although handicapped by the illness of one of its members, the Massachusetts Minimum Wage Commission, appointed recently by Governor Foss, begins work July 1, 1913. Its personnel is a matter of interest to both friends and opponents of the principle of the minimum wage. H. LaRue Brown of Boston is chairman and Arthur N. Holcombe of Cambridge and Mabel Gillespie of Boston are the other two members. Mr. Brown is a lawyer and has for many years been interested in the legal questions affecting labor. He is author of a special report on labor injunctions, issued by the Federal Bureau of Statistics as their Bulletin 70. A supplementary report by him on the Litigation Arising from Labor Disputes and Their Related Causes in the Massachusetts Courts was issued as Bulletin 78. These reports are considered by many to be authoritative upon the subjects treated and have been in great demand, many law classes using them as text-books in their courses. Mr. Brown has been interested also in savings bank insurance, and has lectured widely in its behalf.

Mr. Holcombe is one of the Harvard faculty, is secretary for the Massachusetts Society for Labor Legislation, a co-ordinate branch of the national and international societies, and has written numerous works on this and related questions.

Miss Gillespie is at present secretary of the Women's Trade Union League of Boston. For four years she was secretary of the Consumers' League of Buffalo, and has been an investigator for the Russell Sage Foundation.

#### FIRST PUBLIC MENTAL HYGIENE CONFERENCE

That the number of patients in the insane hospitals of the country is greater than the whole strength of the United States army, navy and marine corps, and greater than the number of students in all our colleges and universities, was one of the striking facts brought out at the first public conference on mental hygiene ever held in this or any other country. Despite this testimony of the numbers afflicted with insanity a hopeful tone marked the discussion. It was shown that more than one-quarter of all the cases of insanity so serious as to bring the sufferer into an asylum, are later discharged as cured; that more than one-half of all incipient cases can be remedied and that a very large percentage of mental troubles arise from entirely preventable causes.

The conference which recently closed its sessions was held at the College of the City of New York. The exhibit which was set up will be sent to other cities and to leading educational centers throughout the country. It was prepared by the National Committee on Mental Hygiene while the conference was planned by the Committee on Mental Hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association. The conference and its companion exhibit mark the beginning of a nation-wide campaign of public education on the possibilities of preventing and curing mental troubles in their earlier stages.

Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, voicing his satisfaction at the results, said:

"The movement for the prevention of insanity is fully as important as that for the checking of tuberculosis, and many of the methods which have proved effective in that great contest will be used in this. The mental hygiene movement is a great campaign of public education. In the way it brought the facts as to insanity and the possibilities of its prevention and cure home to a great body of people, the conference exceeded our expectations.

"Many of the 21,000 visitors at the conference, lectures and exhibit came because of active or suspected mental trouble in their friends or relatives. It has been a splendid thing to give these people the sensible, hopeful view of insanity which is the modern view. We have convinced our visitors, at least, that insanity is not a disgrace to be concealed as long as possible. They know that it is a disease, which should have early attention from skilled physicians like any other disease, that it is often curable, that still oftener, it can be prevented.



How much all this has meant already is suggested by the fact that since the conference opened the number of patients who have applied for advice at our mental clinic in Henry Street has more than doubled."

The widespread ignorance regarding insanity was curiously illustrated by a lady who told Dr. Thomas W. Salmon, of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, that she had previously supposed that insanity was never cured, that it was always hereditary and unavoidable, that all insane persons were violent and often had to be confined by straight-jackets or manacles, and that insanity was rapidly increasing. This woman was a member of the faculty of a New York college.

Perhaps the most general of these misunderstandings is the supposition that a great many insane persons are tied up in straight-jackets or kept in padded cells. As a matter of fact, neither straight-jackets nor any sort of bands are used in the modern insane hospital. When a patient becomes excited he is treated by hydrotherapy; that is, by prolonged baths, packs and showers. In every modern hospital for the insane there is a nurses' training school and "keepers" have been replaced by trained attendants.

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### PROGRESS IN THE NEW YORK CHILDREN'S COURTS

ISAAC FRANKLIN RUSSELL

Chief Justice Court of Special Sessions, New York

Municipal government in New York is a thing so vast that any one particular institution, however important, is apt to be overlooked. The public school system costs in the neighborhood of \$40,000,000 per year; the city is preparing to spend on subway construction a sum approximating \$250,000,000; the port itself and the water front, stretching about three hundred miles, is and always must be the chief asset of the metropolis. The suppression of vice and crime, including the organization of the municipal police, is always of momentary interest to the public. Presidential and other elections and the fortunes of prominent politicians furnish the main themes for newspaper discussion. In this way it is easy to note how a conspicuous and wonderful advance in the treatment of juvenile delinquency has escaped public attention.

On July 1, 1910, there were but two children's courts in New York, one in Manhattan, about

ten years old, and one in Brooklyn, about eight years old. Both of these were inadequately housed and inefficiently manned and conducted. The court in Manhattan, at 66 Third Avenue, was lodged in a building, which, at best, had never been more than a temporary makeshift. The same is true of the Brooklyn court, at 102 Court Street. The judicial force and chief clerical equipment was, on the other hand, such as to leave little to be desired.

Many voluntary organizations, charitable and religious, established co-operative relations with these courts and have done faithful and effective service.

The municipality, however, like all great bodies, was moving very slowly with the task of housing these courts in dignified and appropriate buildings, in extending the area of the jurisdiction, and particularly in supplementing the work of the judges with the service of a competent and sufficient staff of probation officers.

Prior to July 1, 1910, there was no probation officer paid out of public funds in the service of the Brooklyn court. Three probation officers representing the Catholic, Jewish and Protestant faiths were supported entirely by private resources. In Manhattan the situation was practically the same.

The court has recently been subjected to much painful but not altogether unjust criticism. Attention has been called to the short terms of judicial service, generally not more than one month, to the lack of specialists on the bench who might give their entire time to children's cases, to the identification of the court with a criminal tribunal for the trial of adult offenders, and to the lack of a sufficient force of probation officers.

Within the past two years marked progress has been made in response to this criticism. Specially trained experts, giving their entire attention to the adjudication of children's cases, are now appointed for substantially long periods of judicial service. In fact, at each of the four children's courts in the city some one judge, under the present plan of judicial assignments, sits for more than half the time and is relieved only for necessary vacations. An effort has been made to direct attention to the equity powers of the court, in pronouncing judgment of improper guardianship and in making suitable commitments for institutional treatment. The letter as well as the spirit of the law calls upon the court to consider the child at the bar in need of the care and protection of the state. The forms and phrases of criminal court procedure have been abandoned as far as possible. Even the papers on file and process of the court studiously obscure the character of the court as a criminal tribunal.



Procedure in the various counties has been standardized, the salaries of judges in different counties have been equalized, new tribunals have been organized in Queens and Richmond Counties, the erection of a noble building, commensurate with the dignity and wealth of the city, has been commenced on the old site of the City College in Lexington Avenue, the sittings of the court in Queens County have been doubled to meet the increasing demand of the population, and plans for the new county of the Bronx are being carefully considered.

But the one conspicuous element of progress is to be seen in the provision during the year 1912 for forty new probation officers, mainly for service in the children's courts. These are to be taken, under a recent decision of the Court of Appeals, from civil service lists.

Headquarters for the probation work have been selected in the Ashland Building, far away from the frowning fortress of the Tombs and the gloomy atmosphere of the Criminal Courts Building.

For some years past the interest of penologists in psychopathic and psychiatric analysis and experimentation has been great and growing. All now recognize that what is sometimes called crime or delinquency, and what at best is an unfortunate happening, may be treated pathologically instead of morally, and may be conceived as the necessary result of irresistible physical forces rather than the deliberately chosen end of voluntary moral action. Definitely known drugs stimulate sleep, thirst and various animal appetites; other drugs suppress these energies. Music and visions, rest, quiet and summer skies sooth and calm the mind and nervous system, disordered and weakened by the stress and strain of prolonged labor and excitement. Tonsils, appendices and adenoids are often sacrificed with beneficial results. In this way medicine and surgery contribute to solve the problems of the criminologist.

Abnormal man frequently appears at the bar of criminal tribunals; and common justice demands that we make a scientific estimate of his capacity for what we have been in the habit of calling free moral action. Does he know the nature and quality of the act which he has committed and for which he has been arraigned? This is the crucial question. It can only be answered by the trained scientific observer, and, in many instances, only after prolonged and patient investigations. This demands laboratories with expensive apparatus and equipment and a staff of specially trained experts. Progress in such a field must necessarily be slow. Theorists and faddists, actuated by an honest but misguided enthusiasm, can only delay and embarrass the work of reform. Not all the defendants who appear in the children's courts need the

services of these trained experts. The impulses that prompt a boy to take an apple and eat it, to leave school for the playground, and to seek the companionship of spirits kindred to his own, are pretty well known and accurately estimated by the judges of juvenile courts who have been called upon to adjudicate thousands of cases.

But the exceptional case does appear, perhaps daily in this city, when the last word and the best word of the skilled psychiatrist must be spoken. Appropriations of public money are needed for this purpose and can hardly be gotten till public sentiment is cultivated and aroused. Meanwhile private philanthropy is supplying about all the means we have to use in this direction. At the State Reformatory for Women at Bedford<sup>1</sup> a noble start has been made through the munificent endowment made by Mr. Rockefeller, and at the Post Graduate Hospital Dr. Max G. Schlapp is continuing, without the aid of the public purse, to meet the more urgent calls of the justices of our children's courts. No greater need than this now confronts us in our treatment of juvenile delinquency.

## THE COURT OF APPEALS AND THE LOAN SHARK

ARTHUR H. HAM

The year just ended, which has been a notable one in the campaign for the improvement of small loaning conditions, had a fitting close when on December 31 the New York Court of Appeals rendered its decision in the cases of Thompson against Gimbel Brothers and Thompson against Erie Railroad. As a result of satisfactory laws enacted in several states and of court decisions which erected obstacle after obstacle in the paths of the usury-mongers the past twelve-month a considerable number of these craftsmen are now repenting their sins in the quiet retreats provided by government for the reformation of law-breakers. These last decisions of the Court of Appeals cut the string which lenders, operating from Portland, Me., and other points, have been able to tie upon victims in New York.

The cases have been in the courts for more than two years.<sup>2</sup> They arose from an attempt by the loan shark to evade the usury laws of New York by requiring the prospective borrower to sign a power of attorney which authorized the lender to execute and sign for the borrower such notes and contracts as he saw fit. The power of attorney was sent to Portland, Me., where the loan broker's agent executed the notes and pretended to sell them to a resident of that state. Naturally the notes called for the payment of a much larger amount than the borrower

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, December 7, 1912.

<sup>2</sup>See THE SURVEY, June 10, 1911, and January 13, 1912.



received, for no stringent usury laws are in force in Maine. When the borrower became delinquent in his payments the power of attorney was utilized for the execution of an assignment of wages, a copy of which was then filed with the employer in an attempt to collect the notes, protest fees and collection charges through his agency. The New York personal property law provides that a copy of the assignment must be filed within three days of the making of such assignment and the making of the loan.

Gimbel Brothers, on receiving an assignment filed against the wages of an employee, refused to recognize its validity. The loan agent sued and the case, which was defended for Gimbel Brothers by Messrs. Gallert and Heilborn, was carried through the courts to the Appellate Division, first department. This court by a three to two decision held that the claim was invalid for the reason that the assignment was not filed until more than three days had elapsed after the making of the loan.

The Erie Railroad case which was based on similar facts was passed upon by the Appellate Division, second department. This court unanimously held that the purpose of the law was to give the employer notice of the assignment and even though such assignment be executed by virtue of a power of attorney many months after the loan which it secured was made, the employer must recognize the claim. Both cases were appealed and argued conjunctively.

In discussing these two decisions we expressed the opinion that the Court of Appeals would hold with the Appellate Division, first department, in its more enlightened construction of the law. This expectation was justified, for the state court of last resort has affirmed the opinion in the Gimbel Brothers case. The court held in effect that a person making a loan secured by an assignment of wages must notify the employer of the borrower within three days after the loan



*Rhodes in Milwaukee Leader.*

#### THE SHARK IN WISCONSIN

Following the conviction and imprisonment of a Milwaukee loan shark, District-Attorney Zabel, aided by the leading newspapers of that city, undertook recently to close up the loan shark offices and secure the conviction of all money-lenders who are violating the law of Wisconsin.

is made. Unless such notice is given the employer has no legal right to deduct the amount claimed from the wages of the employee.

The way is now prepared for employers who have been harassed by the assignment of wage evil to protect their employees against the payment of unreasonable interest charges. The first step is to follow the example of the members of the Retail Dry Goods Association and rescind the rule of discharge which is the sole weapon left in the salary loan shark's hands. Borrowers who are not living in constant fear of discovery and loss of position will not submit to outrageous interest demands. The second step, which should be concomitant with the first, is to provide an opportunity for deserving employees to borrow at reasonable rates and to encourage habits of thrift and saving by organizing employees' savings and loan associations.



*Chicago Tribune.*



# THE HOLIDAY CONVENTIONS

BOSTON, DECEMBER 27-31, 1912

AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION

ECONOMICS

STATISTICS

POLITICAL SCIENCE

LABOR LEGISLATION

SOCIOLOGY

EFFICIENCY

THE meetings of the American Economic Association were productive not only of good discussion upon present day topics but were valuable in showing the progressive attitude taken by the economic professor on these vital problems. It is true that contentions were set forth which many of the economists felt could never be practically realized. But on the whole no time was wasted on theoretic discussion which did not have a bearing on some practical problem.

The discussion on the minimum wage attracted a good deal of interest because of the attack upon its practicability urged by men who have been engaged in enforcing various forms of labor legislation. Prof. Henry R. Seager, of Columbia University, presented the main paper which treated the subject from the economist's standpoint. He maintained that the wages paid for some forms of labor, particularly that of women and children, were lower than sufficient to maintain a livelihood. By way of example he chose tenement house workers and department store girls. Wages among such classes are constantly low because there is an overabundant supply of the laborers, because the workers usually do not have to depend wholly upon their own wages for maintenance and because the nature of the work precludes unionism. The speaker said that the conditions controlling the lives of these workers showed no signs of improvement. Hence it was necessary for the state to fix a minimum wage. Such action would put an end to the exploitation of such labor by unscrupulous employers. Professor Seager welcomed the likelihood that it would be necessary for the state to take some definite action to lessen the number of unemployables.

Prof. John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin, said that he was in perfect agreement with Professor Seager on the principle of the minimum wage but as a member of a state commission whose duty it was to enforce such legislation, he saw many grave objections. The difficulty of fixing such a wage and of really enforcing it were too important to be overlooked.

E. F. McSweeney declared that the Massachusetts law which goes into effect next year "is a monument to the timidity of the legislature which allowed itself, because of a situation created by the Lawrence strike, to be bullied into

passing a bill because of the general belief that failure to approve it might cost votes at the coming election." He said that Massachusetts is not to have a minimum wage board but "a sort of a denatured arbitration board, lacking in power and authority."

The discussion of the rising cost of living turned chiefly upon rise in prices. As a remedy Prof. Irving Fisher, of Yale University, proposed his scheme of basing the value of our money unit upon index numbers of a large variety of commodities in place of the one commodity—gold. He felt that if such a scheme were adopted by several leading nations, its success would be assured, for after seeing its advantages other nations would come to adopt it as they have the gold standard. There was general approval of Professor Fisher's plan though it was felt that it would be a most difficult subject to present to the people and for this reason its progress with law making bodies would be slow. Charles P. Neill, commissioner of labor, said that the rise of general prices was a subject about which we knew but little. He spoke of the work of the Bureau of Labor in collecting price statistics but he felt that a great deal more must be done in this line before we can hope to establish an adequate set of index numbers.

It was the general feeling of those attending the meeting on banking reform, that some form of central bank is needed to meet our banking difficulty. In the main paper read by Prof. E. W. Kemmerer, of Princeton University, the Aldrich plan was supported but it was held that a change should be made in the choosing of the directorate of the central bank. Professor Kemmerer holds that the proposed board of directors should be reduced in number and that each bank which is a member of the association should have one vote regardless of its capitalization. This would remove any fear of domination by the large New York banks and would make the scheme more acceptable to the farmer. Professor Hollander, of Johns Hopkins University, urged the need of a great campaign of publicity in regard to the banking plan. He feels that the Aldrich plan is generally misunderstood.

A great many practical ideas on farm management were presented at the meeting on Agricultural Economics. The need of accurate farm



cost-accounting in determining the cost of each crop and in determining what crops do not pay was treated by Prof. H. C. Taylor, of the University of Wisconsin, and Prof. C. K. Graham, of Hampton Institute. Prof. T. N. Carver, of Harvard University, maintained that American farming is not less scientific than European farming simply because we raise a smaller number of bushels of grain to the acre. The greatest profit is to be had in combining labor and land in the right proportion.

Since land in the United States is of lower value than that in England it is not profitable to work it so intensively and though we raise a smaller crop per acre the return of each unit of labor is greater. Hence our farming is fully as scientific as the European.

Prof. Simon N. Patten's round table on the Reconstruction of Economic Theory was well attended, and was enlivened by a number of diverting dialogues.

The meeting on Governmental Price Regulation was productive of much good discussion. Prof. J. M. Clark, of Amherst College, supported the thesis that the regulation of the prices of the products of industry was altogether too complicated to be attempted by the government. He pointed out the difference between such regulation and that of public service corporations. There is greater need for regulation of the latter and it is less difficult because there are usually but few prices to fix. By assuring fair competition he feels that prices will not become monopolistic.

While in practical agreement, Prof. C. W. Wright, of Chicago University, held that it was possible for the government to regulate some prices by fixing a maximum price. In this manner the consumer would be protected from monopoly but still competition would be left to set the real price.

Many of the speakers felt that price regulation could not be brought about except by complete governmental control or ownership, as was pointed out by Eliot Jones in connection with the difficulty of the government in regulating the sale of so simple a product as anthracite coal, should control of price here be deemed necessary.

The need of some immediate restriction upon immigration if we are going to maintain our present standard of living in this country, was presented by Prof. Frank A. Fetter in his address as president. He called attention to the operation of the law of Malthus at the present time and showed how the pressure for subsistence in this country was becoming more severe each year. If we are more interested in the quality of our people than our numbers, he believes that there must be some important restrictions placed on immigration.

The officers for 1913 are: President, David I. Kinley, University of Illinois; vice-presidents,

John H. Gray, University of Minnesota; Dr. C. W. Macfarlane, Philadelphia; Prof. W. E. Hotchkiss, Northwestern University; secretary and treasurer, T. N. Carver, Harvard University.

R. C. LINE,

[Mount Holyoke College.]

## THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION

THE annual meeting of the American Political Science Association was in every way a successful one. This nine year old society now numbers over 1,700 members, and in addition to its annual volume of proceedings containing the papers read at its annual meetings, it publishes a quarterly *Review* which has now completed its sixth volume. The issuance of the *Review*, which is sent to all members of the association, was begun at a time when the membership was small. This led, for a time, to an annual deficit in the treasury. The association is now, however, out of debt and has a satisfactory excess of receipts above current expenses.

The presidential address of Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, entitled *A Government of Men*, dealt in a most interesting manner with the necessity, in a democracy, of providing the means whereby the popular will may not be defeated or oppressed by the formalism of laws. The escape from this thralldom, Professor Hart argued, is by furnishing opportunity to intelligent and liberal-minded men to exert a decisive influence not only upon the enactment of laws, but upon the spirit in which they are interpreted and enforced.

The problems of democratic government furnished the theme for a number of the papers read. Prof. J. F. Stimson, in a paper entitled *Old Fashioned Reforms*, dwelt upon the fact that many of the political reforms recently introduced, or urged for introduction in our states—the referendum, the initiative and the recall—have their close analogues in the institutions of the early Germans. Whether or not this fact furnishes an argument in their favor, Professor Stimson left to the judgment of his hearers. Walter E. Weyl discussed *The Democratization of Party Finances* and urged the desirability of providing the necessary sinews of war for political parties by the assessment and collection of small dues from the rank and file of their members, in this respect imitating the Socialist Party in this country and the German Social Democratic Party which, he declared, is, through this method, rapidly devolving into "the most powerful as well as the best organized political party in the world." H. A. Garfield, president of Williams College, spoke on *Good Government and the Suffrage*, and dwelt especially upon their relation to the immediate future. He declared it both futile and foolish to attempt to prevent the ultimate extension of the suffrage to all adult



citizens, which, when realized, will open the way to the constructive stage of democratic government upon which we are now entering. President Garfield emphasized, however, the fact that good government is not necessarily dependent upon the exercise of the suffrage, and made a strong plea for the greater use of technically trained men in the administrative service. Professor Schapiro in a valuable paper explained the present position of political parties in Belgium; H. B. Learned discussed Some Aspects of the Vice-Presidency, and showed how necessary this office is to the American constitutional system; and Adam Shortt of the Civil Service Commission of Canada explained the historical development and present day working of the relations between the legislative and executive branches of the government of his country.

One of the most interesting of the sessions was that given over to budgetary methods in their relation to economy and efficiency in government. The principal papers were by Frederick A. Cleveland, head of President Taft's Commission on Efficiency and Economy in the federal government, and Profs. F. J. Goodnow and W. F. Willoughby, both of whom have served upon the same commission.

In a special session devoted to jurisprudence and political theory, Prof. Roscoe Pound dwelt upon the Political and Economic Interpretations of Jurisprudence; Professor Walter J. Shepard discussed The Theory of the Subjective Right to Vote; and Professor C. H. McIlwain considered historically The Tenure of English Judges. The topic for the last session of the meeting was Journalism and Public Opinion, the principal addresses being by Arthur Brisbane of the *New York Evening Journal*, and Rollo Ogden of the *New York Evening Post*. As may be imagined the views of these two speakers were not wholly identical. All of the papers read will appear in full in the February issue and supplement of the *American Political Science Review*.

The following officers of the association for the year 1913 were elected: President, W. W. Willoughby; Vice-Presidents, Adam Shortt, F. A. Cleveland, and C. E. Merriam; Secretary and Treasurer, W. F. Dodd; members of the Executive Council, J. I. Wyer, Jr., R. H. Whitten, J. A. C. Chandler, J. W. Garner, and C. A. Dunniway.

It was voted that the next annual meeting of the association be held in Washington, D. C., beginning December 30.

W. W. WILLOUGHBY,

[Johns Hopkins University.]

## AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION

THE American Statistical Association is much the oldest association devoted to study and research in the field of the social sciences of the group which met in Boston. This was its seventy-fourth annual meeting. After nearly three-quarters of a century devoted to the fur-

ther extension of statistical method in the field of population, vital and social statistics, the association has recently been active also in the industrial field—a study of which can be aided by application of the statistical method. This association for many years had no part in these annual gatherings, which are so valuable to the members of the several associations in the extension of acquaintanceship and enlargement of outlook. Four years ago this exclusive policy was abandoned and since that time the association has grown rapidly in numbers and, it is felt, in influence.

Statistics has always been distinctively a utilitarian science, or perhaps an art. It was not necessary, therefore, for it to have a new birth in order that it might become an instrument in the field of social improvement. It has been gratifying to statisticians to note the increasing use of their method and results by the followers of the other social sciences in recent years, and to observe the almost complete abandonment of the spirit of aloofness which was at one time so characteristic of their discussions.

The keynote of the recent meetings was struck in the opening session at which Prof. Albion W. Small, president of the American Sociological Society, and Prof. Walter F. Willcox, president of the American Statistical Association, delivered their presidential addresses on Modern Tendencies in Social Science and The Need of Social Statistics as an Aid to the Court respectively. In the estimation of these speakers the chief question before the sociologists and statisticians is not: What is the world doing, or whither is it moving, but: How can we aid in shaping the course of social progress and in accelerating its speed along right lines? Students of social problems have long been in close touch with actual conditions, but never before have they shown the amount of missionary zeal in promoting better conditions of living and labor than in the series of meetings which has just come to a close.

President Willcox emphasized strongly the need of better social statistics as an aid to the courts. He cited cases in which decisions had hinged on the determination of the facts of the cases, but in which even the most fundamental facts could not be determined, and any scientific gauge of probable results on the communities concerned was impossible, because of lack of statistical data. Going further, he showed what would have been the course of action, and the probable results, in Great Britain and Germany

where adequate statistics are to be had, emphasizing the superior advantages of such definite knowledge over the uncertainties which

at present obtain in this country.

Space is lacking to set forth adequately the scope of the other papers, including a round table discussion at the South End House of the Compilation of Urban Population Statistics by Small Local Areas, by Walter F. Willcox, Robert



A. Woods, E. Dana Durand, Lawrence Veiller, and others.

At the annual business meeting it was decided to hold a special anniversary session in Boston on the seventy-fifth anniversary of the formation of the association.

Officers elected for the year 1913, are: President, John Koren; Vice-Presidents, Henry W. Farnam, E. Dana Durand, Charles P. Neill, Henry B. Gardner, Henry R. Seager; Editor, William B. Bailey; Treasurer, S. B. Pearmain; Secretary, Carroll W. Doten.

JOHN H. SHERMAN.

## ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

THE thing which sets off the American Association for Labor Legislation from the learned bodies which are its holiday bed-fellows is the fact that it is out for propaganda. It is not primarily a meeting organization, nor a proceedings-publishing organization, nor a quarterly-publishing organization, though it does all three, but an all-the-year-round going concern with a practical job to perform. The Efficiency Society is, of course, another exception, but that is a newcomer in this group of holiday meetings.

So it was that perhaps the most interesting session of the American Association at Boston was its annual business meeting. And perhaps the most interesting feature of that meeting was the series of impromptu reports from chairmen of committees that have been working on various labor topics within the last year. The principal subjects thus discussed were Industrial Hygiene, by Frederick L. Hoffmann; Workmen's Compensation and Insurance, by Henry R. Seager; One Day of Rest in Seven, by John A. Fitch; Women's Work, by Irene Osgood Andrews; and the international aspect of these subjects, by Ernst Freund, Mary C. Wiggin and Charles M. Cabot, who were among the eleven delegates representing the association at the Zurich Congress on Labor Legislation last September. During the two years of the presidency of Prof. Henry R. Seager, of Columbia University, the association has developed markedly in scientific content and in practical activity. He is succeeded by Prof. W. F. Willoughby, of Princeton University, at different times an expert of the United States Bureau of Labor, an assistant director of the census, treasurer of Porto Rico, and more recently called to the chair at Princeton formerly held by Woodrow Wilson. Professor Willoughby wrote the first American book on workmen's compensation, and his election marks his re-entry into active work in a field in which he was a pioneer.

The association has grown from 1790 members, at \$1, in 1910, to 2,549 members with a minimum annual fee of \$3, in 1912. One of the distinctive events of the past year, reviewed by Secretary John B. Andrews in his annual statement, was the national conference on industrial

diseases at Atlantic City last June, at which an industrial hygiene exhibit was displayed and through it, together with joint sessions of the American Medical Association, that powerful organization, for the first time in the sixty-six years of its existence "was definitely pledged to official recognition of the industrial disease problem and to giving a place to this question on its annual program." A joint committee of the two associations will continue the work among physicians.

This campaign against "phossy jaw" was initiated and directed step by step by the association. Its larger importance lies in calling attention to the industrial disease problem generally—it was picturesque and made people see—and to the use of taxing power as an implement for social control.

But it is not to be supposed that the association's Boston program was weak from the conference standpoint. There were three major sessions; the first, on factory inspection and law enforcement, at which Prof. John R. Commons outlined the work of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission along the lines of his article in *THE SURVEY* last week. Henry Sterling, of the Boston Typographical Union, and Charles Sumner Bird, the East Walpole manufacturer who was the Progressive candidate for governor last fall, spoke from the points of view of laborer and employer. Edward F. Brown, special investigator of the National Child Labor Committee, presented an incisive criticism of present factory inspection machinery. The practical importance of getting the activity of manufacturers and workmen on safety committees, the need for greater money, greater staff, and longer tenure in the factory departments were discussed.

The immediate legislative program of the association was the subject of the second session, the principal speakers being Charles Earl, solicitor for the Department of Commerce and Labor, John A. Fitch, and Robert Emmet Chaddock of Columbia University.

It was the third session on the minimum wage which was perhaps most exciting. The range of points of view was illustrated fairly well by two Massachusetts men, both members of the first minimum wage commission. E. F. McSweeney held that "the living wage" is based on the family as a unit and is Christian; the minimum wage, he said, is based on the individual and is pagan. George W. Anderson stated that the responsible heads of many industrial establishments had been found by the Massachusetts commission to be ignorant of the actual wages paid in the lower grades; that it was only a small minority of employers who, knowing the facts, continued to be responsible for what he called "wage slavery," and that many employers, driven by competition from this minority, welcomed co-operative efforts such as the minimum wage boards afforded, to put their industries "on a self-supporting basis."



Various points were raised against minimum wage legislation—its legality, the impracticability of getting through compulsory legislation, its social consequences, etc., yet among the audience, and among the speakers there was a very obvious trend in favor of the principle and of its application. The principal paper was that of Prof. Henry R. Seager, who said in conclusion:

"The economic interests of society requires the payment of living wages to all workers, except children learning trades, and defectives, who must be treated as wards of the state.

"In the United States the great majority of industries pay such wages to the great majority of their employes. Starvation wages are only found under exceptional circumstances. Typical of these are home workers under the sweating system, and the employment of girls in department stores. For both of these employments the requirement of minimum wages, covering necessary living expenses, would be a distinct social gain. It would increase the health and efficiency of those employed at such wages. It would put a stop to exploitation by grasping employers and hasten a better distribution of the labor force of the country. Finally it would compel society to face the problem of caring for the unemployable through insurance or pensions for those who should not be expected to be self-supporting and through the better distribution and industrial training of those who might be self-supporting if given some assistance. The objections to the plan are mainly practical, and the most convincing answer to these objections is the fact that other countries are actually making minimum wage regulations effective."

PAUL U. KELLOGG.

## THE EFFICIENCY SOCIETY

A MODERN complaint concerns the bad social effects of over-subdivision of labor and over-specialization of task. At its meeting on education the Efficiency Society advocated a still further subdivision of labor and a further specialization of task. Carver, advocated a redistribution of human talent so that although specialization be intensified, only those will undertake special tasks who are especially fitted to do them. Samuel McCune Lindsay, speaking in favor of vocational guidance, favored a gradual steering of talents of children into special fields from very early years. S. A. Cortez, inspector of tests of Detroit, speaking of the measurement of efficiency in education, explained a new and more scientific method of rating the abilities of students in various elementary branches as an assistance in guiding them into special fields. John Martin, of the Board of Education of New York, pointed out that vocational guidance and vocational training standing alone are not sufficient to steer talent into the work for which it is fitted because the social and financial rewards of given tasks oper-

ate to take young people out of the work for which they are especially fitted. Much social legislation and readjustment of the social status is needed to steer human talent into the right activities.

These views, mainly grouped under the head of vocational guidance, were brought out at the afternoon meeting in Emerson Hall at Harvard University. Meyer Bloomfield, of the Boston Vocation Bureau, presided.

Vocational training with special reference to training for business was the chief topic at the evening session at the Boston City Club, over which Prof. Joseph French Johnson, dean of the New York University School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance, presided. Professor Carver had said in the afternoon that the talent for business management was the scarcest and the most difficult to train. James P. Munroe, secretary of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, took up this point and showed what huge responsibilities are wielded by the modern business manager of large plants. His duties are diplomatic and social and the modern business manager needs to be trained almost as if for the responsibilities of public office. The so-called captains of industry are not business executives and frequently lack the technical knowledge demanded of departmental managers. They are mainly manipulators of colossal enterprises. J. B. Geijsbeek, of the University of Denver, joined with Mr. Munroe and Assistant Superintendent Frank B. Thompson, of the Boston schools, in attacking the present methods of training for business as being far and remote from the actual demands of the time. Business schools, in their judgment, have simply elaborated shorthand and bookkeeping instead of recognizing the new organization

of business which demands as much social as technical knowledge.

The secretary of the Efficiency Society, H. F. J. Porter, took occasion at the evening meeting to indicate the policy of his organization in regard to education. He said that more efficient industry was absolutely dependent upon a more efficient education of business managers and upon a redistribution of human talent. It was the province of the society, he said, to co-ordinate the activities of those engaged in vocational training and vocational guidance and with those urging social legislation because, as Mr. Martin and others had pointed out, work had to be made attractive and dignified in order to hold those perfectly fitted and scientifically guided into it. Behind vocational guidance, he said, are housing reform, industrial reform and eugenics. Co-ordinate with it is a public responsibility for recreation and artistic life. Mr. Bloomfield and other vocational guides, he thought, will find their work nullified unless their social agencies co-operate with them in the effort to redistribute human talent.

BOYD FISHER.



## THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

THE intimate correlation, amounting almost to organic unity, of all the social sciences was the keynote of the Boston meeting of the American Sociological Society. Albion W. Small, of the University of Chicago, in his presidential address, emphasized the fact that sociology, psychology, religion, education, philanthropy, politics and law are all so interdependent that what has heretofore been an impersonal treatment of institutions, of a philosophy of wealth as an end in itself, has passed into a philosophy of human obligation, a task of promoting human well-being. He spoke of the enormous aggregate of public service performed by American social scientists in excess of the requirements of their positions as a most powerful indication of the present tendency. He declared that the task of the American people would not be finished without the co-operation of all our social sciences from the historical, functional, moral, and instrumental standpoints. The function of social science is to be the chief organ of social self-examination.

G. Stanley Hall, of Clark University, called attention to the intimate relation between psychology and sociology. He showed how the various psychological phenomena of voluntary juvenile organizations, primitive tribal relations, and kindred examples of institutional life were all extremely valuable to the sociologist as a commentary upon, or rather a guide to, a proper conception of modern social organization. He showed further how psychoanalysis of the abnormal—the criminal, the insane, the defective—showed that all psychic phenomena conformed to a uniform law, and that the normal and the abnormal were but different combinations of the same psychic elements. Some psychologists, he said, are already dreaming of the time when psychic tests will take the place of every kind of examination in schools or for vocational guidance to determine morbid processes in a stage so early that they can be rectified.

Prof. Paul Munroe, of Teachers' College, contrasted the principle that education is the means by which the normal members of society are prepared to perform their normal function in society with the older idea that education was intended for a few chosen because of wealth, birth or exceptional privilege.

Prof. Charles E. Merriam, of the University of Chicago, spoke on The Outlook for Social Politics in the United States, which he defined as the conscious systematic control exercised by the government over economic and social life. He contrasted it with the police system in which government contented itself with merely preventing violence and fraud and showed how in our own country progress in the direction of a comprehensive social policy had been particularly slow. Among the reasons for this, he cited the attitude of economists toward the structure and powers of government, the strict constitutional

limitations imposed upon the states and the narrow interpretation of these limitations by unfriendly courts, and

the organized system of political corruption.

Prof. Simon N. Patten, of the University of Pennsylvania, in formulating a basis for the reconstruction of economic theory, pointed out that the year 1912 marked a new epoch; that social thought had abandoned the earlier program and had entered a new field. He divided sociological thinkers into three classes: the reactionary class which seeks to justify the present class consciousness by an appeal to the historic doctrine of the economic man; the revolutionary thinker who hopes to accomplish the needed changes in sociological thought by epoch making revolutions; and lastly the evolutionary thinker who recognizes that social advance is the accumulation of small persistent effort in commonplace material things.

It was significant that the last session was given up to a discussion by representatives of two law schools of the contributions of legal theory to this new social unity. Professor James, of the University of Wisconsin Law School, showed that the present generation was witnessing a conscious effort to use sociological investigations in the preparation of laws and that legislation—not judicial action—has distinctly changed the character of a large portion of American statutory laws. He called attention to labor legislation, particularly employers' liability and mitigation of the fellow servant and assumption of risk doctrines and the fact that many of the terms of employment which under the common law employer and employe were left to settle are now regulated by the state, and contracts contrary to the terms of the statutes are void. He insisted that the realization of the social ideal backed by American legislation will ultimately find expression in juristic philosophy very different from that of the old school. Professor Pound, of Harvard Law School, classified the four stages of legal development into: first, primitive law, or the beginning of law; second, the strict law; third, equity or natural law; and fourth, maturity of law. To these he added a fifth stage which he called the socialization of law. The beginnings of the fifth stage he sees in the emphasis which is now being gradually transferred from individual to social interests. The watchword of this movement, he said, is the satisfaction of human needs.

Prof. Francis Peabody, of Harvard Divinity School, presented socialized religion as the ideal which should be present in the mind of every sociologist—closet or practical.

Social Ideals Implied in Modern Programs of American Philanthropy were presented by Edward T. Devine.

The society elected officers as follows: President, Albion W. Small; first vice-president, Edward A. Ross; second vice-president, George E. Vincent; secretary-treasurer, S. E. W. Bedford.  
W. K. FOSTER.



## BOOKS

IMMIGRATION AND LABOR, THE ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES  
By ISAAC A. HOURWICH, PH.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons.  
544 pp. Price \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.78.

Does our present immigration lower wages, increase unemployment, depress the standard of living, displace native workers and the older immigrants, and thus do harm?

Most people unhesitatingly answer, "yes," without bothering about evidence, either thinking it a waste of time to prove the obvious, or perhaps finding the proof, after all, somewhat difficult to secure. Even our recently disbanded Immigration Commission, after four years of research, have permitted themselves more than one generalization on these points for which we are unable to find authority in their statistics.

Dr. Hourwich, however, in his new book, *Immigration and Labor*, just as unhesitatingly answers "no," and with such a wealth of historical illustration and statistical proof, such keenness of economic analysis, as to jolt the reader at once out of the usual easy acceptance of things as they seem.

In general, the line of argument is that immigration is a force set in motion by more fundamental economic forces, which would work out much the same order of things as we now have, irrespective of the specific human material involved. Immigration does not overstock the labor market, because it merely follows demand for labor. For the same reason, immigration does not increase unemployment, but varies inversely with unemployment, because the business expansion which calls in the immigrant reduces unemployment and *vice versa*.

The introduction of labor-saving machinery during the last thirty years has reduced the proportion of skilled and unskilled workers required in our principal industries. But the general expansion of industry, calling in the great unskilled labor force afforded by the newer immigration, has prevented this change in ratio from becoming actual displacement of the skilled. So that the newer immigrant, instead of pushing aside the American workingman and the older immigrant, is really pushing them up, and maintaining them on the higher economic levels. And Dr. Hourwich offers statistics to show that a racial stratification of occupations of this nature has actually taken place.

But has the newer immigrant, while doing this, lowered the wages of unskilled labor to a "single-man" standard, to the detriment of wholesome family and social life in what has become a relatively large part of our population?

All available data on wages seem to show that unskilled labor has never been at any time or in any place, entirely or appreciably above this standard. In the period of the older immigration, the wages of unskilled labor and even of some of the skilled mechanics, did not fully provide for the family support. The shortage had to be made up by the labor of the wife and chil-

dren. And even on our American farms, in the earlier period, women and children were worked and overworked to bring the family out even at the end of the year.

On the other hand, actual advance in wages in many industries, reduction of hours of labor, increase in union membership and strength have gone on with increase in immigration. So that on the whole, good and not harm is the accompaniment of this new foreign invasion.

These are certainly propositions sufficiently debatable and interesting in themselves to attract the reader from this bare and inadequate outline to the book itself, to see how the author works them out. The reviewer earnestly hopes that this will be the result, and can promise that anyone who wants to come out of the fog of emotion about immigration, and really think the matter through, in its relation to general economic development, will be greatly assisted in doing so by a careful study, chapter by close-packed chapter, of Dr. Hourwich's scholarly and stimulating book, whether he ends by agreeing with the author or not.

KATE HOLLIDAY CLAGHORN.

THE MAN FARTHEST DOWN, "THE STRUGGLE OF EUROPEAN TOILERS"

By BOOKER T. WASHINGTON. Doubleday, Page & Co.  
300 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

Booker T. Washington, in the summer of 1911, was given two months' leave of absence from Tuskegee on condition that he spend it in recreation and rest. Accordingly, he sailed for Europe, and in the six weeks that he had at his disposal visited England, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Sicily, Poland and Denmark, studying the people living in poverty and making notes for a book. Assuredly this is a Twentieth Century American's conception of recreation and rest!

We, however, are the richer for Dr. Washington's vacation. His *Man Farthest Down* contains, in simple, accessible form, much important matter regarding European laboring people. The pictures that he draws of city poverty are somewhat hackneyed, but in the country he is at his best. We go with him through the orange groves of Sicily, and then to the dirty, tiny homes in which the orange pickers live. We travel to the sulphur mines and see the man at the bottom, a homeless, ill-treated, cruelly-worked boy. In Poland we see the Jew, in mediaeval garb, heavily taxed, impoverished. In Austria we meet Magyar and Slovak, and learn of a race hatred and contempt as deep as any between white and black. And last, in Denmark, we find the man farthest down a thrifty, intelligent farmer, saved from severe economic oppression by his co-operative societies which manufacture and sell farm products. In fact, we have here a guide book which will serve us when we are weary of the past and want to study the workers of today in Europe.



Dr. Washington does not attempt to generalize in his book. He, however, likes frequently to draw a parallel between the American Negro, the man at the bottom in the United States, and the man at the bottom in Europe; and this parallel is always to the Negro's advantage. The colored man does not starve to death as does the man lowest down in London; he can easily acquire land, unlike the agricultural laborer in Great Britain; he and his children have greater educational opportunities than the children of the Sicilian. This cheerful optimism must increase the book's attractiveness to the American who is weary of being muckraked, but he must remember that he fails to hear the answering retorts of the English and Sicilian and Scotch!

In discussing the Poles and their political status, Dr. Washington reveals, as he has often before revealed, his distrust of political action as a means of permanent improvement of economic conditions. In this he stands for the moment with the syndicalists of France and the United States, with Sorel and Haywood. He parts company with them at once, however, on remedial methods as he has no revolutionary tactics, but believes in education as the cure for degrading poverty. Without the franchise this education, of course, would come from the people in power and he believes should be along those industrial lines that are familiar to all readers of Dr. Washington's works.

The book ends with the suggestion that we should look at things from the point of view of the people who are looking up, rather than from that of the people who are looking down, "and, strange as it may seem, it is still true that the world looks, on the whole, more interesting, more hopeful, and more filled with God's providence, when you are at the bottom looking up than when you are at the top looking down. The man who is down, looking up, may catch a glimpse now and then of heaven, but the man who is so situated that he can only look down is pretty likely to see another and quite different place."

MARY WHITE OVINGTON.

#### THE MILK QUESTION

By M. J. ROSENAU, Professor of Preventive Medicine and Hygiene, Harvard Medical School, Houghton, Mifflin Co. The Riverside Press, Cambridge, 1912. 309 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

#### DUSTY AIR AND ILL-HEALTH

By ROBERT HESSLER, A.M., M.D. Printed privately. 352 pages. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.10.

#### HYGIENE FOR THE WORKER

By WILLIAM H. TOLMAN, Ph.D., and ADELAIDE WOOD GUTHRIE. Edited by C. WARD CRAMPTON, M.D. American Book Company. 255 pp. Price \$5.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$5.75.

The milk question is one that interests profoundly laymen as well as sanitarians, pediatricists and bacteriologists, but the person with unscientific training has had to suffer great bewilderment because of the disagreements of the scientists. It is a relief to have a book appear which is written for laymen primarily and which gives in readable form the latest pronouncements of science on the vexed question of what is good

milk and why it is good, what is bad milk and why it is bad. Dr. M. J. Rosenau, formerly of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, now of Harvard University, has given us such a book in the one recently issued under the title of *The Milk Question*.

This book takes up every phase of the subject and the searcher after truth can find here the actual facts which underlie the mass of more or less loose statements we are all accustomed to hear made concerning such matters as milk-borne infections, the infection of human beings with bovine tuberculosis, the comparative value of milk as a food, the dangers of dirty milk, the real bearing of the milk question on infant mortality and the much disputed subject of pasteurization. It is interesting to read the section on the bacteriology of milk and to learn that it is character (or rather bad character) that counts and not mere numbers of bacteria, for milk may contain actually more bacteria than the same amount of city sewage and yet be harmless, at least for adults. It is also interesting to read that the great danger in milk comes not from the cow, but from the milker and handler, epidemics of milk-borne disease usually being caused by a typhoid or diphtheria carrier or by some one with scarlet fever or septic sore throat. Tuberculosis is probably the only serious cow-borne infection. The whole chapter on dirty milk is very enlightening. Perhaps the most valuable part practically is that dealing with pasteurization, of which Dr. Rosenau is an outspoken advocate, since it is the "simplest, cheapest, most effective and least objectionable method" of destroying germs in milk. However, it has its limitations and objections, which must be considered. Consideration of these cannot be taken up in a review. To any one who wishes a clear understanding of this important question and wishes to be kept from making extravagant, or obsolete, or inaccurate statements this book is recommended.

\* \* \*

The pleasant discursiveness of Dr. Hessler's book takes us back to the literature of an earlier generation; a generation of ampler leisure, and perhaps wider interests, or less specialization. It sets down in rather rambling sequence the observations of a family physician of many years' experience in city and country practice, who has formed a strong belief that dust is the greatest single cause of disease. The reader must not, however, be misled by the apparent carelessness of style into thinking that the book is essentially loose and unscientific, for it is not. Dr. Hessler is familiar with modern medical science and if his book be pronounced one-sided by physicians it will not be rejected as unsound. The lay reader will find it an interesting and novel exposition of what is certainly an increasingly important source of disease in civilized communities.

\* \* \*

*Hygiene for the Worker* is a book of practical instruction adapted especially to the needs of the wage worker. The usual instruction in the care of the body is modified to



meet the different requirements of working people in sedentary occupations, in occupations involving physical strain, involving excessive changes of temperature, etc., and each chapter closes with an excellent short summary of the instructions contained in it. The really novel feature of the book is the part devoted to industrial hygiene. The worker is told what should be the standard of a work shop, what dangers should be guarded against, and how. Descriptions are given of machinery properly safeguarded and without guards, of good and bad ventilating systems, of proper measures for fire prevention, and so on. In other words, the book seeks to show the worker what he has a right to demand, and to give him a standard by which he can judge of the conditions in his place of work. One chapter is devoted to a brief review of the labor laws of New York state, and the reader is urged to find out what are the laws in his own state. This book is a very valuable addition to the literature on hygiene, which so far has had nothing of a popular nature devoted to the hygiene of occupation.

ALICE HAMILTON, M. D.

#### COURTS, CRIMINALS AND THE CAMORRA

By ARTHUR TRAIN. Charles Scribner's Sons. 253 pp. Price \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.87.

Arthur Train is always worth reading. If one wants good stories about criminals, accurate descriptions of the domain of courts and prosecutors, attorneys and "bad men," let him read *The Prisoner at the Bar*, and its sequel with the above title. Train fills a place that needs filling in our sociological literature. He popularizes a field that generally gets known to the public either through the out-of-focus daily press or through the annual reports of dry statistics from district attorney's office or from the chief clerks of criminal courts. What the public wants to know, and should know, is how the district attorney's office thinks and acts, and for what it stands, and what its difficulties are. At present, Mr. Whitman and his assistants have shown that in New York County the office can be an important, and at present almost inexorable, lever in prying off the lid of the witches' cauldron that has brewed the most subtle and noxious forms of graft and crime in New York City.

But Becker cases and gunman convictions are exceptional. The daily work of the office, the routine processes of the courts, the intense human interest features of the lowly cases, the methods of the real detectives and not those of the old sleuth variety, the limitations of intelligence and system, all are told instructively by Mr. Train. His book divides itself into three parts, relating to the three heads of the title. He shows how the criminal case is prepared for trial, what the jury system amounts to, and then turning to the criminal, tries to analyze the motives leading men to kill each other. A considerable space is given to the personnel and methods of detectives. Then, journeying to Italy, he gives us the clearest description of the Camorra

trial that I have happened to read. Perhaps the most valuable part of the book is the direct and indirect comparison of American and Italian methods of court procedure, and the outlining of certain features of continental procedure that should give us food for thought. One will not find Mr. Train's book a comprehensive and systematic study. It is far more a collection of articles, some of which have appeared in well-known periodicals.

O. F. LEWIS.

#### CHARACTER BUILDING IN SCHOOL

By JANE BROWNLEE. Houghton Mifflin Company. 268 pp. Price \$1; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

This little book may be read with profit and interest by all who feel with the author that "The purpose of moral training is the building of character." It should be distinctly helpful to the social and settlement worker who sees in character building the fundamental remedy for much existing social mal-adjustment, and whose work affords many a chance to put in a heartening word. It is a handbook of practical value to the teacher who sees in the classroom the daily opportunity for opening up channels of thought which will have enduring and constructive influence on the child mind; who realizes, vaguely, that her attitude toward her work and her pupils affects her success with them; but who does not know how to set about "putting her house in order."

Miss Brownlee's book is, she says, "the outgrowth of eight years' experience in the definite moral training of children through instruction in the right use of their power to think." Some of the chapter headings—*The Personality of the Teacher, The Mind a Servant, The Body a Servant, Constructive and Destructive Thinking, The Real Child or the Soul*—suggest ideas that are used in the day's work by many who would not acknowledge conscious allegiance to the many "mind-over-matter-isms"; but while the author claims, indeed, that thought power and mental control are all-powerful factors in character building, her conclusions are drawn from such wise, sane and logical observations of child life that the effect of such instruction should be welcomed by the most "orthodox" of mothers.

Although Miss Brownlee in the preface refers to the subject matter as "suggestive only," it is practical and interesting, and will undoubtedly be helpful to the many who heartily subscribe to the author's views that "It is possible to present great truths so simply that little children may comprehend them. They may be taught the meaning of character; that the purpose of life is character building; that this great work goes on slowly day by day; that the materials used are the daily happenings in home and in school; that the tools they use are the power to think, to reason and to will; that if good use is made of materials and tools, the life of the individual cannot fail to be strong and useful, and so lead to happiness for himself and for all with whom he is associated."

C. C. M.



## COMMUNICATIONS

### THE UNITED STATES ARMY

TO THE EDITOR:

As a subscriber to *THE SURVEY* I beg to inquire whether the extract from the *American Magazine* which *THE SURVEY* prints in its issue of November 30<sup>1</sup> in regard to the army of the United States carries, as it appears to do, your approval of the sentiments expressed and the position taken therein.

The statements made are in my judgment, and largely to my knowledge, both false and purposely misleading, where partly true. They are furthermore so unpatriotic as to come very near being treasonable. The government is charged with the duty of enlisting and maintaining an army not only for defense against public enemies, but for the preservation of domestic peace, and it has never failed in its duty. I venture to say that the rank and file of the army whom your publication describes as having universally acquired the vices of the camp, which so far as they exist are largely due to the fanatical W. C. T. U. opposition to the canteen, are, in character and capacity to take care of themselves after a term of enlistment has expired, well up to the average young men in colleges. Furthermore, they have a discipline and a respect for law and authority which those young men not infrequently conspicuously lack. The whole unmistakable purpose of the extract is to discourage enlistments in the army, and if there is no law to punish it there ought to be. If the Socialistic teachings toward which you appear to lean were—as they surely will—to cause riots which get beyond the control of the local authorities—as they often have—and "Observer's" precious skin or sacred property were to be in danger, he would probably be the first to shriek for the debased, vicious United States troops, to save him. If *THE SURVEY* considers it proper to slander the United States army, and to join in an attempt to deprive citizens of the protection to which they are entitled, I for one am done with it.

ARCHIBALD HOPKINS.

Washington, D. C.

[*THE SURVEY* goes out of its way to get different points of view in "The Trend." That is the purpose of *The Trend*—a department of quotation from other periodicals, in the same way that "Communications" is a forum for *SURVEY* readers. The publication of the above letter, or any other letter, does not necessarily carry with it editorial approval or disapproval.

These points are illustrated clearly by the following "communications," pro and con. They refer to some illustrated verses republished in *The Trend* from *Life and Labor*, the organ of the National Women's Trade Union League.

In so far as these two departments enable *SURVEY* readers to know what one another is thinking about, and to know what people in widely different walks of life are thinking and talking about with respect to the things that fall within the field of *THE SURVEY*, they serve a journalistic purpose. They also serve an educa-

<sup>1</sup>See *The Trend*, page 259.

tional purpose in going a little way toward breaking through those water-tight compartments of public thought which grow out of professional, racial, sectional and economic groupings in the community.

Other generations may have given up trying to reconcile soldier and Quaker on questions of national defense; but ours can at least think it a good thing for army men and working class anti-militarists to have a glimpse of how each other looks at things, under earlier, less tense circumstances than the street engagements which the above writer forebodes. That the subject is one which need not be given up bodily to the extremists on either hand is illustrated by the colonel of a regiment in one of our important industrial districts. He has set about making clear what the function of the militia is in the scheme of national permanence, recognizing that the workmen of the region have conceived of it hitherto merely as a weapon for suppressing strikes, ready to the hand of their opponents. It took a decade following the last big strike in the region before the militia companies won back any popularity in the district. Today there are scores of union men in the ranks.—Ed.]

### A WORD OF PROTEST AND A REPLY

[See Editorial note above]

I.

TO THE EDITOR:

As a subscriber, as an employer and as one seeking to diminish friction between employer and employe—rich and poor—I want to enter a protest against the publication of such matter as appears on page 201 of the November 16 issue of *THE SURVEY* under the heading *A Song of Fines*.

While I shall be glad to see the shorter day and the better pay, neither will ever be helped to realization by such doggerel. Teach the girls to fit themselves for better pay and provide the way for them to obtain vocational training. These verses teach that a contract to give a certain amount of time for a certain amount of money may be broken so far as the time is concerned but must remain intact so far as the money is concerned; that a twelve-hour day is in vogue (I'd like to know where); and that if they will strike "we'll see you through"—who?

It seems to me highly improper to print any such matter—antagonistic to the very thing you are striving to do. I am aware of the crying need of the submerged, but they will never be bettered in condition by unfair means—and I consider these verses, to say the least, unfair.

Doubtless there are abused and overworked women as there are abused and overworked men of whom we hear less. But they are not helped by such talk or writing. On one side let *Life and Labor* talk plain and emphatic prose to the employer—in the courts if necessary—who demands a more than twelve-hour day in violation of the law. On the other side let *Life and Labor* talk in the same plain way to employes about keeping their agreements and other ways of being fair and true. A very nice adjustment is necessary to synchronize the two sides. It never can be done by making one side sorry for itself and the other side resentful by unfair criticism.

Action and direction are needed—not hysterics and heroics.  
 EGBERT W. SIMMONS.  
 New Haven, Conn.



## II.

## TO THE EDITOR:

In answer to Mr. Simmons' letter regarding "A Song of Fines," quoted from *Life and Labor*, I do not quite understand how he reaches his interpretation of those verses. The Song of Fines is simply a statement of facts—and the unfairness against which Mr. Simmons protests lies in the facts and not in the verses.

The great strikes of the garment trades called the attention of the public to fines for thread, needles, and running power, and in her statement of grievances of the 50,000 garment strikers in Chicago, Katharine Coman of Wellesley College, referred to the unjust fines as one of the important factors of the strike.

The girl in the unorganized trades is many times docked half a day's pay for five or ten minutes' tardiness, having to work without pay for that time; while the girl in the union is docked merely for the loss of time, or an hour's pay for five or ten minutes' tardiness, without having to work for the time so lost. A common grievance among piece workers in the sewing trades is that during the slack season frequently they have to wait for work from four to seven hours a day without any recompense whatever for the time thus spent.

As to Mr. Simmons' inquiry, where a twelve hour day is still in vogue, it hardly seems credible that this question can be put by a subscriber to *THE SURVEY*. The legislation for the ten and eight hour days is of very recent date. The twelve hour day was legal in New York before the recent enactment of the fifty-four hour week, provided it was fitted into a sixty hour week. Yet the laundry workers' strike last January in New York showed at the hearing of the Board of Mediation and Arbitration, New York State Department of Labor, sixty-seven hour, seventy-five to eighty, and ninety-hour weeks for the laundry workers. Before the ten hour day for all women workers was secured in Illinois and declared constitutional only in June, 1912, the ticket agents at the elevated stations worked from 7 A. M. to 7 P. M.—a twelve hour day—whereas it was a notorious fact that the day's work ran to seventeen and eighteen hours in the laundries, and in all sewing and seasonable trades to twelve and sixteen hours a day.

Of course I do not know if Mr. Simmons refers only to the sewing trades or to all industries where women work, but does he not know that the twelve hour day is still legal in Pennsylvania; that there is no regulation of the hours of work for women in Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Iowa, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Mississippi, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, Vermont, West Virginia or Wyoming, while Arizona's limitation refers only to laundries, and Montana's only to telephone operators. There are no day limitations, though a sixty hour week in North Dakota and Tennessee.

Besides the legal twelve hour days and days

of still longer work in twenty odd states, it is a fact that hardly a state in the Union limiting the hours of work for women is equipped to enforce such law. Testifying before the Factory Investigating Commission (pp. 551-2), P. Tecumseh Sherman, formerly commissioner of labor of the state of New York declared:

"The law limiting the hours of labor of women is not enforced here very strictly. It is not enforced in any state in the United States. . . . When I say that a hundred factory inspectors are necessary, or proper, or adequate, I exclude that, because one thousand inspectors would not be able to watch and detect all violations of the law. I think that the question would have to be left to the labor unions pretty largely to work out for themselves. They can enforce the hours of labor law, and if they cannot, there is nobody that can."

It is sometimes thought that the so-called over-time is a matter of no moment, but when over-time runs, as Miss Goldmark testifies (Vol. 111. p. 1607 Report of Factory Investigating Commission) in binderies, canneries and clothing manufactories to seventeen weeks in the year, that is, to over four months, it can no longer be regarded as over-time in the technical term. So shocking have been the facts reported regarding the long hours in the canneries that the New York Factory Investigating Commission has made a special investigation of those hours upon which it will doubtless report to the New York legislature.

We agree with Mr. Simmons in the need of vocational training (see Report of Committee on Industrial Education of the American Federation of Labor, Senate Document 936), but does Mr. Simmons really think that wages are always in proportion to skill? Above all other trades this is not a fact in the sewing trades where many of the most skilled workers, doing beautiful embroidering on waists and dresses and monograms on linen, are the least paid of the workers. And in those trades where machinery is almost entirely eliminating skill, how can skill be the only determining factor for the wage?

As to doggerels themselves, I am sorry Mr. Simmons does not enjoy them. Surely the whole history of nursery rhymes teaches us the wisdom of putting thoughts that must be universal into rhymes and jingles. Somehow in such form these thoughts become imbedded in the minds of the people. It would seem as if even Mr. Simmons had his attention called through a doggerel to the possible existence of a twelve hour day.

And last, there is but one way and only one way to "diminish friction between employer and employe" and that is to help establish industrial democracy and social justice.

MARGARET DREIER ROBINS.

[President National Women's Trade Union League.]  
Chicago.



## JOTTINGS

### CRANBERRY BOGS UNDER LABOR LAW

The National Child Labor Committee has just received a written opinion from Nelson B. Gaskill, assistant attorney general of New Jersey, in which it is stated that cranberry bogs are included in the mercantile law which applies "to any employment of labor other than a factory, workshop, mill, or other place where the manufacture of goods of any kind is carried on."

It is of interest to the people of New Jersey, as well as to those of other states, to know that according to the definition of this act the employment of children under fourteen years of age in the cranberry bogs is illegal, and the power to enforce obedience to this law is in the hands of the state Department of Labor.

### CHURCH AND SOCIETY TO BE DISCUSSED

On the third Tuesday of each month, from January to April (inclusive) monthly conferences will be held under the auspices of the New York Charity Organization Society. The general topic for consideration will be the evils of pauperism, and the possibilities of religious and charitable organizations to overcome them.

The first conference will be held January 21, at 11 A. M., in the Assembly Hall of the United Charities Building, 105 East 22 street. The church and the organization of society will be discussed from the following angles: The Newer View of the Social Mission of the Christian Church, by Rev. Charles S. Macfarland; Organized Co-operation in the Gramercy Neighborhood Plan, by S. Boyd Darling; City Neighbors of a Block, by Rev. Theodore Sedgwick. The committee in charge of the meetings is composed of: Kate Bond, chairman; Mrs. F. S. Sellew, secretary; Mrs. Talbot Olyphant, Mrs. Francis Barlow, Mrs. John Erving, Mrs. W. Alexander Ewing, Mrs. Benjamin Nicoll, Mrs. James A. Scrymser, Mrs. L. J. Wyeth, Jr.

### FEDERATION FOR CHILD STUDY

The Federation for Child Study will give a course of three lectures on eugenics at 2 West Sixty-fourth Street on January 16, 23 and 30, at 8:15. The first lecture will be by Scott Nearing of the University of Pennsylvania, and will consider the social worth of human beings, the relation of education and environment to social worth, race characteristics, immigration, the birth rates, etc. In the second lecture Henry E. Crampton of Barnard College will give an account of recent experimental work that establishes the so-called "Mendelian" laws of heredity, and show how these laws are applied practically in the breeding of plants and animals; the evidence of their applicability to human beings will be brought out. In the final lecture Lester F. Ward, the veteran sociologist of Brown University, will survey the social field with a view to applying the known laws of biology to the problems of social life.

## Classified Advertisements

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**WANTED** young and experienced woman to take charge of new and growing Hospital Social Service Department in Pennsylvania mining district, salary \$1100 to \$1200. Address 1080, THE SURVEY.

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**SUPERINTENDENT**, 37 years, married, now head of large work for boys, 12 years experience, assistant superintendent, discipline, teacher, desires change to institution work, industrial school or institutional work for boys. Wife qualified by experience for matron. Address 1078 THE SURVEY.

**GRADUATE NURSE**—Five years social service, wishes charge of T. B. Sanatorium or institution dealing with social problems or Hospital Social Service. Address 1079, SURVEY.

**MISS SIGRID WYNBLADH**, formerly Assistant Registrar of the New York School of Philanthropy, will be free to consider a new opening after February first. Address New York School of Philanthropy.

**CHRISTIAN** young man with six years' experience in work with boys wants opportunity to invest his life with the boys of an orphan's home, or in probation work, or other cause for needy boys. Address 1074, THE SURVEY.

**CHIEF PROBATION OFFICER**. Woman in charge of an important county in Pennsylvania especially experienced in building up new work wants to change. Address Juvenile Probation, SURVEY.

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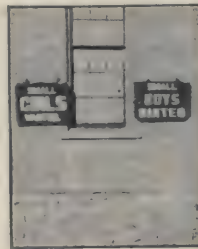
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# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 16

January 18, 1913

JAN 24 1913

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CIVICS

HEALTH

INDUSTRY

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

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A YEAR OF MAYOR BLANKENBURG IN PHILADELPHIA

MAKING WAR ON FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS

THE INDUSTRIAL OUTREACH OF THE Y. M. C. A.

THE SOCIAL WELFARE IN MASSACHUSETTS

FEDERAL AID FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

DEMOCRACY AND THE ILLITERACY TEST

WHEN THE STATE SAYS: "I BEG YOUR PARDON"

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



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October, November and December made up the first quarter of the first fiscal year under the new organization of THE SURVEY.

The response to our appeal as an adventure in co-operative journalism has been fairly stirring.

173 readers of THE SURVEY have renewed their \$10 co-operating subscriptions to our educational work. 139 readers, who had hitherto been just regular \$2 subscribers, have enlisted as \$10 co-operating subscribers:—312 in all toward the total of 800 which we have set for the year's goal.

40 others have given or promised larger amounts ranging from \$15 to \$1,000. These contributions make a total of \$6,535. This \$6,535 and the \$3,120 from co-operating subscriptions together make \$9,655—well toward half the \$20,000 needed above circulation and business receipts to shoulder the general budget of the Survey Associates for the twelve months.

\* \* \*

In acknowledging these contributions, the Survey Associates extend a further invitation to every reader of THE SURVEY to join this roster of contributors. Without their support the work of magazine and National Council would be cramped at a hundred points.

\* \* \*

Under the terms of the constitution of the Survey Associates, co-operating subscribers (those who contribute \$10 or more annually) may be elected annual members. Contributors of \$100 or more in any one year, so elected, become continuous members. Annual and continuous members will hereafter elect the board of directors. Neither form of membership carries with it financial obligation.

At recent meetings of the board of directors, the following contributors to the educational fund in sums of \$100 or more, between October 1 and December 31, were elected continuous members:

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## THE PITH OF IT

**J**USTICE Blackmar, in the Supreme Court, Brooklyn, last week, upheld the New York fifty-four-hour law for women. The case will be appealed. Said Justice Blackmar: "Laws which may be meddlesome interferences with the liberty of the individual in a primitive state may, in a highly organized society, become essential to public welfare, or even to the continuance of civil liberties themselves."

**A**LEXANDER Johnson has resigned the general secretaryship of the National Conference of Charities and Correction to become head of the new extension department at the Vineland (N. J.) training school for the feeble-minded. P. 487.

**G**OVERNOR Sulzer, it is declared, has set out to make New York the healthiest state in the Union. Pointing out the large number of deaths due to preventable diseases and the annual toll of epidemics, he appointed a commission last week to investigate various matters of public health from both a remedial and administrative standpoint. Dr. Herman M. Biggs, general medical officer of the New York City Health Department, was made chairman; Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, was made secretary and John A. Kingsbury, general agent of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, assistant secretary.

**T**HE industrial outreach of the Y. M. C. A. P. 524.

**D**R. LUTHER H. Gulick resigned the directorship of the Department of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation on January 1. He will give his whole time to the work of the Camp Fire Girls, with which he has been closely identified since its organization a year and a half ago.

**F**ROM the running of the elevators in the City Hall to the operation of the separate departments of the government, the Blankenburg administration in Philadelphia, says a writer in this issue, has stood for real business efficiency. P. 505.

**R.** M. Little, present chairman of the of the executive committee of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities, has accepted the general secretaryship of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity.

**L**EGISLATIVE committees have come to be looked upon as awful and majestic things. Massachusetts has a new one that may not be allowed to wrap itself in this illusion. It is called the Committee on the Social Welfare and will consider all bills coming under that description. Some well known social workers are among its members. P. 493.

**A**N adverse view by Joseph Lee on the illiteracy test for immigrants. P. 497.

## THE SURVEY

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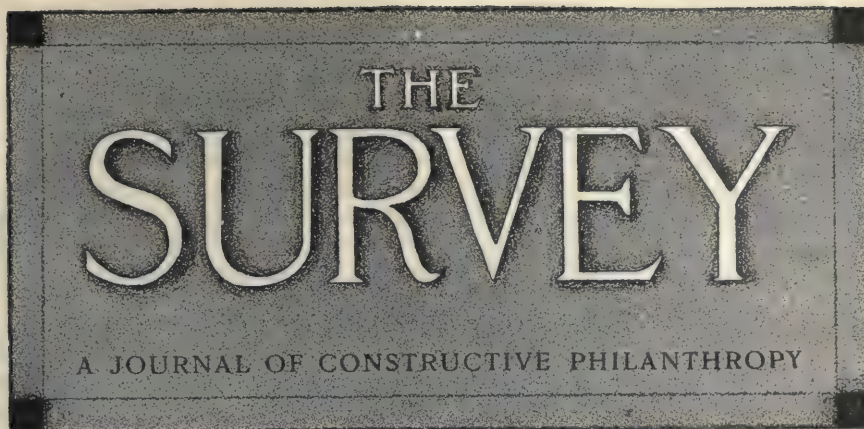
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WANTED, \$2. "Editor THE SURVEY: Through the kindness of a friend I have had THE SURVEY for the past year and have enjoyed it very much. Although I am heartily interested in the work THE SURVEY represents, I am not able financially to become a subscriber. (Signed) Rev. . . . THE SURVEY will gladly receive \$2. to pay for the extension of this subscription for the year 1913.

**S**PEAKING metaphorically, "I beg your pardon," has been often in the mouths of some of our state executives lately. The circumstance has augmented the discussion over the advantages and disadvantages of pardon boards. P. 499.





VOLUME XXIX, No. 16

JANUARY 18, 1913

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### A NEW FORCE IN THE WAR ON FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS

Alexander Johnson has resigned the general secretaryship of the National Conference of Charities and Correction to become the head of the new Extension Department of the Training School for Feeble-minded at Vineland, N. J. His resignation will take effect as soon as the executive committee of the conference fills his place, or at latest immediately after the close of the fortieth conference in Seattle. The department at Vineland of which he is to take charge constitutes a new method and weapon of attack upon the racial and social evils of degeneracy. So far as is known it is the first organized scheme for spreading far and wide the facts as to the prevalence and effects of feeble-mindedness, and for carrying on a persistent propaganda in behalf of preventive measures.

The Training School at Vineland is primarily an institution for the care and education of feeble-minded youth. Under the superintendency of E. R. Johnstone, extensive researches have been made into the causes and hereditary nature of mental abnormality. By tracing back, through personal visits to the homes by field workers, hundreds of genealogies; by comparing like and unlike matings and charting their succession of offspring; and by intensive study of individuals, the department of research, under the direction of Henry H. Goddard, has brought together a mass of data from which it is now felt reliable deductions can be made and on which preventive measures can be safely based.

To supplement this laboratory of research the

new extension department comes as a publicity and propagandist agency. The hypotheses and proposals which enter into its program are somewhat as follows: There have been three stages in our modern thinking about feeble-mindedness. In the early days it was held to be entirely possible, by careful training, to fit the feeble-minded boy or girl to take a normal place in the work of the world. After that hope was dashed it was believed that society had discharged its full obligation to its defectives and itself when it had segregated all the obviously feeble-minded in institutions and appropriated sufficient money for their comfort during life. Presently it was discovered, however, that the ordinary processes of commitment reached only a few of the pronounced cases, and that there were in addition great numbers of border-line people, whose abnormality could be detected only by elaborate tests and who yet constituted a real menace to the purity of the human stock. In addition, it was learned that the increase among the feeble-minded is much more rapid than that of the whole population. English figures place the birth rate in normal families at 4 and that among the feeble-minded at 7.3. Mere custodial care of flagrant instances was therefore seen to offer no hope of even keeping up with the evil. Then it was that the vital need of stopping feeble-mindedness in its sources became manifest. Bad strains, it was concluded, must be prevented from continuing themselves.

So far the scientist and investigator went, and for this much they were sufficient. But now comes the need for telling the world what is



known about this menace to it. The very classes among whom the evil exists are perhaps most in need of the information and, in some respects, hardest to reach. Here is a task, then, of constantly dinning unpleasant subjects into the public ears—ears often closed to that which needs technical explanation. It will not do simply to convince the intelligent members of society that their feeble-minded fellows must be shut up where they can have no offspring. By that method you leave all the normal people with defectiveness in their ancestry quite free to transmit to the next generation a new body of imbeciles to be in their turn detected and closeted away. It is a problem, therefore, of putting a new law in the moral code, of saying to men and women: "Just as none of you would now marry a brother or sister, so you must come to think of it as a crime and a sin—a sin against your race—to marry into a strain that shows feeble-mindedness in its past."

In so far as this is a task of publicity and education, it will fall to the scope of the new extension department. In giving the widest possible circulation to the facts of mental degeneracy, in originating practical measures of prevention, and in securing their adoption, the department is expected to do its most distinctive work.

#### SOME PLANS FOR PRESENT ACTION

The new department has been made possible by the contributions of individuals interested in the work of the Vineland School, particularly in the problems of eugenics. It will try to co-operate effectively with all agencies now engaged in related activity, such as the eugenics department of the American Breeders' Association. It is declared that care will be taken to avoid duplication of work being done by other organizations and that in its publications and tracts credit will be given to original sources and investigations.

Those connected with the department have been slow to prophesy large things for it. Some details of the immediate work to be undertaken have been determined, however. On the educative side it will maintain a lecture bureau through which addresses on matters relating to feeble-mindedness will be given wherever local interest is sufficient to provide halls, audiences and traveling expenses. A tour throughout many southern states made this winter by Mr. Johnson in the interests of the National Conference revealed a marked demand for just this sort of service. As a further educative measure, it is expected that moving picture films will be prepared, illustrating present ways of

caring for and studying the feeble-minded, such as methods of making tests, feeble-minded children at play and at work, dances, school gardens, etc. In addition to the publication of *The Training School*, a pamphlet which the Vineland institution now issues monthly, a news bureau will be conducted. This will furnish newspapers and magazines with timely copy on all the subjects included in the scope of the department. A third bureau, one of information, will be maintained and will be free to all who wish to make inquiries of it.

In order to conduct these bureaus, information will be drawn from every available and reliable source. A systematic correspondence is to be carried on with graduates of the teachers' department of the school, as well as with all other institutions for the feeble-minded, here and abroad. In this and other ways it is hoped to collect and analyze a large number of individual cases, including photographs, life histories, pedigrees, Binet tests, etc. These will be secured from the widest possible radius and will be studied with a view to the discovery of unknown facts about the nature of mental defectiveness. It is expected also to conduct tests of children in various cities, the work to be done by experts sent out from the department. These experts will also instruct school principals and others in the method of making tests.

Active propaganda will be carried on in states which now make no provision for their feeble-minded residents. Among these are Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Utah, Vermont, Wyoming, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Tennessee, and Texas.

The laws of the different states dealing with the feeble-minded, epileptic, insane and other defectives will be collected and compared. Especial attention will be paid to laws on marriage and sterilization.

One of the most interesting of the experiments which the department will make will be its attempt to demonstrate scientifically the economic value of the labor of the trained imbecile. This will be based on work now being done at Rome, New York; Templeton, Massachusetts; Fort Wayne, Indiana, and other places. It will be completely separated from the educational and custodial work for the feeble-minded and most of the labor will probably be utilized in clearing, grubbing and draining rough land, planting trees, and in growing, canning and drying fruit. It is not the intention of the department ever to employ a large number of persons in this way, but simply to demonstrate what can be done with a small group, probably seventy-five or a hundred.



## THE MAN AT THE HEAD AND WHY HE WAS CHOSEN

Mr. Johnson, who has for many years been a contributing editor of *THE SURVEY* and is one of the best known men in the field of social work today, was chosen to direct the new activity at Vineland partly because of his ability as a lecturer of great dynamic power and partly because of his successful administration of the Indiana School for Feeble-minded Youth at Fort Wayne. During the ten years of his superintendency there, which ended in 1903, he pioneered in utilizing the labor power of the able-bodied feeble-minded adults. Particularly notable was his demonstration at that time of the extent to which the higher grades of imbecile could be trained to useful work, such as building, farming, brick-making, etc., under proper supervision with such efficiency that many were able to support themselves entirely so long as they remained within the custody of the school. His experience there enabled him also to enter the lists as a champion of remedial legislation. In those days people were just waking up to the crucial importance of the feeble-minded woman of child-bearing age in any program of prevention. Many of the old school shook their heads, therefore, when Mr. Johnson drafted and aided in putting through the legislature a measure that opened the doors of his school to women not over forty-five. The previous age limit was eighteen.

It was largely at Fort Wayne that Mr. Johnson learned also the statesmanship of institution management. It was this training which the Russell Sage Foundation called on when it recently turned to him to write its book on the significance and administration of the almshouse. Mr. Johnson has many times conducted the courses in institution management at the New York and Chicago schools of philanthropy. Of the former he was associate director from 1904 to 1906.

Between 1884 and 1886 he was general secretary of the Associated Charities of Cincinnati, and for the next three years held a similar position with the Chicago Charity Organization Society. During those years he acquired that experience and acquaintance with modern philanthropic theory which fitted him to become in 1889 the first secretary of the state board of charities of Indiana. It was largely due to Mr. Johnson's conception of the relationship which a board with advisory powers should bear to the institutions under it, and to his ability to make such a body a real and sympathetic force in their administration, that Indiana became a leader in the movement to secure effective and intelligent classification and treatment of society's defective wards. There, too, Mr. John-



ALEXANDER JOHNSON

Who is to head a forward movement in the prevention of feeble-mindedness

son first saw the possibilities of systematic publicity, of that systematic co-operation with the censors of the people's information which is essential to the highest efficiency of any public business. Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross, was then one of a group of newspaper reporters in the state capital who worked closely with Mr. Johnson in letting the folks throughout the state know what was going on in their own institutions.

But it is as general secretary of the National Conference, and through his lectures and writing, that Mr. Johnson has become most widely known in the social field. When he entered on the work of the conference eight years ago he took hold of a membership of 1373. He will leave it with a membership of 3500. At that time it was just beginning to widen its horizon beyond the fields of organized charity and institution management to take in the newer forces that were gradually being brought to bear on social conditions. Today it is perhaps the most virile and far reaching of the national non-propagandist humanitarian bodies. Its awakening effect on the people of state and city where its annual session is held is such that a dozen places often vie with each other in the effort to secure its next meeting.



For the past few years Mr. Johnson has lived on the shore of an Indiana lake, where he owns a small farm which he named Yggdrasil. His office was situated in Angola. His new work will require his removal to Vineland.

#### FEDERAL MONEY FOR VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

It is likely that the fate of the Page-Wilson bill, which grants federal aid to the states to promote vocational education, will be settled some time between January 20 and February 1. During the past three weeks mayors, school principals and superintendents, agricultural bodies, and national, state and local commercial and industrial associations have rallied strongly to its support, as had been previously done by most of those engaged in furthering vocational education for boys and girls over fourteen years. The bill is on the calendar of the United States Senate for early action and the hopes of its friends have risen high. It has met with the opposition of those who do not like to see a further expansion of federal activity as well as of those who are against its specific proposals.

This measure, which has the endorsement of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, grants such specified sums of money for successive years, beginning in 1913, that by 1921 the total annual expenditure under it will be, for the federal government, about fourteen and three-quarters millions. For every dollar which the national government thus appropriates, the states themselves or the local governments are required to spend another dollar of their own.

The bill provides both for the instruction of children and the training of teachers, as follows:

1. For training teachers to give instruction in agriculture, industries and home economics it gives \$480,000 a year to state colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts and \$1,000,000 a year to normal and other training schools. It is the intention that most of this money shall go to schools now in existence. This grant takes effect in 1913.

2. For the operation of schools which shall give instruction in agriculture, industries and the household arts the bill gives \$9,000,000 a year. These may be all day, part time or evening schools. This grant takes effect in 1916. It thus becomes available three years after the sum for training teachers, the purpose being to provide a period of grace in which to prepare teachers for the job.

3. A million dollars is granted yearly to branch stations which shall provide demonstration work in agriculture. This sum becomes available in 1916.

4. For the purpose of extension teaching the

bill grants to state colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts a half million dollars in 1913. By the provisions of the measure, this sum would increase to \$3,000,000 in 1921.

#### THE QUESTION OF THE DUAL SYSTEM

The most discussed administrative question in the establishment of vocational education today is the question whether this education ought to be carried on as a separate and distinct system of public instruction, or whether it ought to be engrafted on the present public school system and incorporated in its curriculum. This is the mooted question of the "dual system." Wisconsin stands for the dual plan but the trend among those states which have lately made provision for vocational instruction seems to be toward incorporating the work in the existing system. In a few days we shall know what attitude is taken towards this most important question by the board of managers of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. At the recent annual meeting of this society<sup>1</sup> a committee of manufacturers, teachers, social workers and vocational guides drew up a tentative statement of principles and policies and urged its adoption upon the board of managers. This statement declared that the work in vocational education, whether administered by regular public school authorities or a separate board of control, and whether conducted in a separate building or under the same roof as the regular school, should be carried on separately and independently from that of general education, so that it may be left free to realize the dominant aim of fitting for useful employment. This, the statement continues, requires a separate organization, under a separate head or a distinctive management, and separate equipment, courses of study, pupils and teachers who shall have had extended experience in the industries they are employed to teach.

The Page-Wilson bill allows each state to solve this problem for itself. Under its provisions each state is required to have a state board for vocational education to administer the act. But the state can decide whether a new board shall bear this name or whether the name can be given to the old board. The bill then requires this board to formulate its own plan for using the funds made available by the act. This plan is to be submitted to the secretary of the interior. It will probably be passed upon by the commissioner of education under him. If the secretary approve the plan, the state board then becomes the highest power in putting it into effect. Only if changes are later made in

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY for Dec. 14, p. 321.



this fundamental working scheme can the secretary of the interior again interfere in the autonomy of the state board. He can, however, check up the use of funds by this board and if he finds them misapplied can withhold the misused sum from the next year's appropriation.

#### TRAINING FOR THE WORKER OF TOMORROW

The supporters of the bill believe that it has thus struck the necessary balance between that freedom which the state must have to meet its own needs and the right of the federal government to see that money appropriated by it is wisely spent. They hope that the commissioner of education will insist that well recognized principles in the establishment of vocational education be applied by each state. His office it is thought would naturally become a clearing house of information as to what all of the states are doing in this field.

The friends of the act say that it is in a sense merely the logical extension, demanded by present industrial conditions, of the old Morrill Act. That measure, passed during President Lincoln's administration, granted money to the states to establish colleges in agriculture and the mechanical arts. Under its provisions every state has set up such a school, and sixteen southern states have established two such colleges each. It is to these schools that the Page-Wilson bill grants money for training teachers and for extension work. The training given in these schools must be of college grade. Until lately few of their graduates actually went back to the farm, most of them entering research work instead although the colleges are now showing a tendency to broaden out and to do extension work among farmers. The Page-Wilson bill thus, in effect, extends the scope of the Morrill Act to include the training of the youth of the country, the farmers, home makers and industrial workers of tomorrow.

Another measure before the Senate is the one known as the Lever bill. This also grants federal money to the states for vocational instruction. It does not require the states to meet these sums with like amounts of their own. It is pointed out that while the Lever bill gives money only for extension teaching among mature farmers the Page-Wilson measure is interested chiefly in training the young; and friends of the latter say, further, that in providing extension teaching for farmers only, the Lever bill neglects the towns and cities. It is the view of these people that something must be done to meet the problems of practical education of the great mass of industrial workers in the centers of population. A dozen different inquiries have shown recently that the fourteen

year old child who leaves school to find a job in the city is ill trained, ignorant of his own aptitudes and totally unfamiliar with the needs of industry. The result is that many children spend the next three or four years of their lives shifting from one profitless occupation to another, without advancement and without educational benefit. To set going a nation-wide movement to face and solve this half economic, half educational problem is the proposal of the Page-Wilson bill; its ultimate aim, to fit boys and girls to pursue profitable occupations with advantage both to themselves and to society. The method it suggests, namely, using federal funds to stimulate state activity by offering them to only those states which would spend equal amounts and meet certain tests of performance, is very similar to the method by which some of the states carved out of the Northwest territory have used their school land funds to induce towns and counties to build public schools and keep them up to standard.

#### THE NEEDLE TRADE STRIKES IN NEW YORK

The long unrest in the needle trades of Greater New York which showed itself in the dramatic strikes of shirtwaist makers and cloakmakers in 1910 has come to a head again this year. A general strike was declared on December 30 by practically all the unions in the different processes of men's tailoring and after mass meetings on January 5 and 6, the ladies' waist, dress, kimono, wrapper and underwear workers followed suit by voting to quit work on January 9, 10 and 15. The strike movement involves over a hundred thousand persons, most of them members of the unions in the United Garment Workers of America (men's clothing workers) or of one or another of the unions affiliated with the International Ladies' Garment Workers.

One union in the latter affiliation is not involved in the strike. This is the Cloak, Skirt and Suit Makers' Union. Their strike in 1910 was settled under the so-called protocol<sup>1</sup> which provided for permanent collective bargaining between a thoroughly organized body of employers and a strong union, which created a joint board of sanitary control and an arbitration board, and which put representatives of the public on both. The plan also provided the novel feature of the "preferential shop," which makes it to the advantage of a worker to belong to the union, but which does not in principle exclude the non-union man from employment. Under this regime the union has grown until it practically includes all the workers in the trade to the number of 70,000. The manufacturers' organization includes the greater share of the 1,200 shops in the

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, September 11, 1910.



city. For here, as in all these garment trades in New York, the separate establishments run into as large numbers as do the work-people making up a union, in one of the smaller cities.

While in this one branch of the garment trades a peaceable entente has been grounded for two years on strong organizations both of employers and men, the other branches present practically the same situation as was true in all up to two years ago.

In the shirtwaist industry the history of the past two years affords a marked contrast to that of the cloak trade. A waist makers' union of 40,000 members sprang out of the strike of 1910. But this strike was settled on no such permanent basis for collective bargaining between employer and worker, with the result that only 5,000 members remained on the rolls at the outset of the present strike movement.

### THE MEN'S TAILORS AND THEIR DEMANDS

The present strike is the first general strike of the men's tailors in New York since the complete defeat in 1904 of the United Garment Workers of America, when 30,000 struck against the open shop policy adopted at that time by the National Association of Clothiers. A two weeks' agitation preceded the present strike, which was called by an overwhelming referendum vote in favor. Both before and since the strike began, the union membership has increased by leaps and bounds from the original 20,000 on the rolls at the beginning of December.

Of the number of tailors already on strike it is possible only to conjecture. The New York Clothiers' Association, representing 35 per cent of the manufacturers, estimates the number out 50 per cent lower than the union officials, possibly because this organization represents the best shops where the response to the strike call has been slowest. The many empty shops and the two score crowded strike headquarters, each day more densely crowded, show no small body on strike, and the body has so far shown steady increase day by day. There have been skirmishes between police, strikebreakers and strikers, and intimidation is claimed by some of the employers as the reason for the emptying of their shops.

Conditions in regard to subcontracting and pay for piece work are, according to the statements of both sides, much the same as those made familiar by the strikes of 1910 among the cloak and shirtwaist makers. Of home work there is said to be considerably more than in the two other trades. The union demands

"The abolition of the subcontracting system.

"The abolition of foot power.

"That no work be given out to be done in tenement houses.

"Overtime to be paid for at the rate of time and one-half, double time for holidays.

"A forty-eight-hour work week.

"A general wage increase of 20 per cent for all the workers in the garment industry.

"The following scale of wages:

"Operators—First class, sewing around coats, sewing in sleeves, and pocket makers, \$25 per week; second class, lining makers, closers, and coat stitchers, \$22; third class, sleeve makers and all other machine workers, \$16.

"Tailors—First class, shapers, underbasters and fitters, \$24; second class, edge basters, canvas basters, collar makers, lining basters and bushelers, \$21; third class, arm-hole basters, sleeve makers, and all other tailoring, \$17.

"Pressers—Bushel pressers, \$24; regular pressers, second class, \$24; underpressers and edge pressers, \$18.

"Women and Child Workers—Button sewers and bushel hands, \$12; hand buttonhole makers, first class, 3½ cents; second class, sack coats, 2½ cents; feller hands, not less than \$10 a week."

Recognition of the union is implied by the presentation of union demands. There is, however, no demand for the closed shop. Whether this will come as the strike progresses or whether its omission will leave a loophole for a protocol, as in the cloakmaking industry, remains to be seen. As yet efforts at mediation in any form have been unsuccessful, though the State Board of Mediation and Arbitration, the Chamber of Commerce and the International Peace Forum have all offered their services. So far neither the union or the employers' association expresses any strong leaning toward the protocol agreement, but it is freely said that some individual employers favor it, and there is a small but growing agitation for the protocol throughout the needle trades.

### WILL THERE BE MORE PROTOCOLS

The question of adapting the protocol agreement of 1910 to men's wear and other branches of the garment industry has been raised pointedly by the present strike. Though it is too early in the strike to predict such protocol agreement, it is a significant fact that Meyer London, attorney for the Cloak Makers' Union, and one of the framers of their protocol, is also attorney for the United Garment Workers, and that the independent manufacturers, who do not belong to the New York Clothiers' Association, have recently organized and chosen Julius Henry Cohen, attorney for the cloak manufacturers, and like Mr. London, a father of the protocol, as their attorney.

The New York Clothiers' Association, which is made up of the larger and stronger establishments in the tailoring trade, is opposed to the



preferential shop as being nothing but in practice a closed shop, and is opposed to recognizing the union. Eugene S. Benjamin, president of the association, is quoted as follows in the *New York Times*:

"We wish to let it be known that while all members of the associations allied with us will meet and discuss higher wages and shorter hours with their employes as individuals, none will recognize the union. So far as we are concerned there has been no step toward a settlement. Even if a few manufacturers undertook to grant an immediate increase in pay of 5 per cent they couldn't keep it up more than a week under the present conditions of competition unless all the operators fell into line."

His position has been challenged by Mr. Cohen, representing the new association, who claims that the latter, the United Manufacturers, will have all the business of the rival association in two years if it persists in rejecting the proposal submitted to the union.

Mr. Cohen said:

"It is ridiculous to say that a 'protocol' will not work in the clothing industry. The Century Dictionary definition of 'protocol' is: 'A diplomatic document or minute of proceedings signed by friendly powers, in order to secure certain diplomatic ends by peaceful means.' Will such a document carry injury? What the Clothing Trades Association professes to stand for is: 'No peace, no attempt to obtain adjustment of difficult situations by diplomatic means, but steady warfare—smash the union, and everything will be all right.' If the public agrees with this policy, let it say so. If the public agrees with the policy of arbitration, let it say so. We are willing to abide by the consequences."

"The line-up is very clear. On one side is a group of manufacturers who are willing to arbitrate and who are willing without surrender of principle to obtain permanent peace. On the other a group of manufacturers who frankly are anti-union and refuse to arbitrate. Where does the third party—the public—come in?"

The walkout of the waist-makers and white goods workers was not at once accompanied with a general formulation of demands. Here, also, the movement for a protocol is gathering head, complicated, though it is by the fact that unlike the cloak makers, a majority of the workers are young girls, difficult to hold in a dependable organization.

These unions in the International Ladies' Garment Workers have appointed Gertrude Barnum special protocol agent, and she is conducting a systematic lecture and leaflet educational campaign. At the mass meeting of January 5, the general organizer of the International, John Dyche, hinted at the obtaining of a protocol as one of the objects of the strike agitation, and on the employers' side in these trades the waist manufacturers have recently engaged Julius Henry Cohen as their attorney.

## THE SOCIAL WELFARE AMONG LEGISLATORS

"Mr. Speaker, I move that this bill be referred to the Committee on the Social Welfare."

This is likely to be a much used expression in the Massachusetts House of Representatives during the session just begun, for a new legislative committee bearing this name has been created. It came in response to a recommendation made in his opening address by Speaker Grafton D. Cushing, who wants to see "continuous and carefully planned improvement in social conditions" in his state. To the Committee on the Social Welfare will be referred "bills and petitions dealing with the welfare of the individual in his relation to the state and to society." Such matters now are scattered among diverse committees of the legislature and do not receive, thinks the new speaker, the thorough and connected consideration to which their importance entitles them. Similar recommendations were made to the Senate upon its organization, and the House and Senate both acquiesced in the suggestion and created the joint committee which was appointed as follows:

William A. L. Bazeley, of Uxbridge; Samuel Ross, of New Bedford; Charles F. McCarthy, of Marlborough, on the part of the Senate; William M. Armstrong, of Somerville; George D. Chamberlain, of Springfield, Allison G. Catheron, of Beverly; George H. Ellis, of Newton; Windsor H. Wyman, of Abington; Michael J. McEttrick, of Boston; John J. Conway, of Boston, and Edward F. McLaughlin, of Boston, on the part of the House.

So important in the mind of the "great and general court" is this committee that the speaker of the House and the president of the Senate will often meet with it—an almost unheard of procedure. In giving the basis for his advocacy of the new committee, Speaker Cushing emphasized the unmistakable indications given by the election of 1912 that the people are vitally interested in legislation for the social welfare. He regarded this as an opportune time, he said, to crystallize this public sentiment into concrete action, and to organize such proposed legislation into a definite program. Massachusetts, he said, already occupied an advanced position in her treatment of such subjects and he hoped that her rank would be maintained.

In its membership, the Committee on Social Welfare is representative not only of the legislature but of the state at large. Its chairman, Mr. Bazeley, declares that he has brought to the winter's work an open mind. Mr. McCarthy has the experience of his four years' membership in the house. In the appointment of Mr. Ross, President Greenwood of the Senate emphasized one of the underlying ideas concerning the new committee—that it should rigidly corre-



late the work of the traditional standing committees; Mr. Ross is chairman from the Senate of the joint standing committees on labor and education. In public life since 1892, he has been a pioneer in pushing labor legislation. He is now president of the National Spinners' Association and active in the management of the craft unions of New Bedford. Mr. Armstrong, "house chairman," also illustrates this policy of correlation for he is a member of the joint committee on education. This is his fourth year in the house. At home in Somerville he is active in the Y. M. C. A. and kindred organizations.

To the readers of *THE SURVEY*, Mr. Chamberlain of Springfield, is known as the chairman of the Council of Federated Boys' Clubs. In addition to his work with the national society, he has been for twenty-five years the leading spirit in the Springfield Boys' Club. He was president of the Playground Association of Springfield and later, as chairman of the playground committee of the Springfield City Council, was instrumental in the adoption by the city of that work as one of the city's activities. He is one of the trustees of the International College of the Y. M. C. A. and chairman of the Public Improvement Committee, which represents the social-mindedness of the Springfield Board of Trade. Mr. Catheron, a young lawyer of Beverly, is president of the Beverly Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children. "As foe of the 'three decker,'" he has been effectively interested in housing. In Swampscott and Beverly he is active in the work of such organizations as the Good Government Club, Y. M. C. A., and boys' clubs. Mr. Ellis was the author of the milk bill which passed the legislature in 1910 and 1911 to be vetoed each time by Governor Foss. He has been president of the United Typothetae for many years. His interest in educational affairs is evidenced by his trusteeship of the Massachusetts Agricultural College and Simmons College. After a legislative service of many years, he is now chairman of the committee on railroads, and a member of the committee on labor. The opportunity of the Progressive Party to stand for their social program is represented in the appointment of Mr. Wyman. He is a member of national organizations concerned with peace and child labor and of the Y. M. C. A.

Mr. McEttrick, who, as the member of the House oldest in point of service, this being his twelfth term, called it to order at this session, is the most picturesque figure on the committee. He has for many years been an outspoken champion of certain lines of humanitarian legislation, particularly public education and measures relating to women and children. He has seen Negroes sold in the New Orleans market, and witnessed the dragging of Anthony Burns through Boston streets, but he is quoted as de-

claring that there are present industrial conditions much worse than Negro slavery. After an adventurous life as a plainsman, and incidentally the winner of the long distance pedestrian championship of the United States, he was elected to Congress as an Independent. Now he is nominally a Democrat, but in his mind organization is of secondary importance to "legislation for the common welfare." Mr. Conway is a member of the Ways and Means Committee as well as of the Committee on Social Welfare.

As illustrations of the legislation which the committee will be called upon to consider the bills already introduced and referred to it can be cited:

To provide for an investigation of white slave traffic and like evils.

To provide for investigation of the employment of women workers in the commonwealth.

To provide for employment of prisoners in the improvement of waste land and in other outdoor labor.

Relative to appointment of agents by the board of prison commissioners.

To provide for a minimum wage for state laborers.

Three bills providing for old age pensions.

To provide for a maximum nine-hour day for women, in industries other than those covered by the present law.

To limit to five hours the labor of children between fourteen and sixteen years of age.

To investigate health, safety and general conditions in all industries.

#### STATE LABOR LEADERS AND SOCIAL LEGISLATION

A further illustration of the social legislation that will come before the new committee is afforded by the legislative program of the Massachusetts branch of the American Federation of Labor. Not only will its legislative committee present and back bills in the field which is often considered the only one that interests organized labor, but it will urge a great variety of social legislation. Among the measures is a bill to provide for city and town planning. Especial attention will be paid to the elimination of congested areas and to promoting healthful homes for wage-earners. Firm, also, is the hope that the legislature will take the first steps toward constitutional amendments providing for the initiative and referendum and for home rule for cities and towns.

In the domain of statutory law, the committee will seek to have the present eight hour law strengthened. The present measure, passed in 1898, is declared to be far from clear; it provides for referendum by which certain specified cities and towns can adopt the provisions of the act and if the act is so adopted the provisions of the law become obligatory upon them, but not



otherwise. This act was modified in essential particulars in 1908 and again in 1911. By a codification of the state law in 1902 and 1909, some of the features embodied in these respective acts were so rearranged that the eight hour law itself became ambiguous in its terms. They were left still more uncertain by rulings of the attorney-general. The present legislature will be asked to enact a bill which will remove these uncertainties and which will do away with the necessity for a referendum, and will make an eight-hour day standard for all laborers in the employ of the state or any county, city or town, or for any contractor executing contracts with the state or any county, city or town.

The present legislature will also be asked to extend the present fifty-four hour law to *all* women laborers employed in *all* industries. The legislative committee of the federation is divided in opinion as to whether or not its instruction relative to this bill definitely embraces women engaged in domestic service, although some healthful homes for wage-earners. Firm, also, of the labor leaders say that they would carry the provisions of the proposed law that far.

The committee further intends to urge limiting the labor of children between fourteen and sixteen years of age to five hours per day—a bill has already been introduced to that effect—and also proposes to make attendance in schools for the balance of the day compulsory upon such children. While the federation is not committed to additional action concerning this part time employment for such children, the vision of some of the labor leaders extends so far that unquestionably their next request will be to enlarge the functions of the present bureaus for vocational guidance, and to increase their powers. Moreover, they will propose that every employer of children between fourteen and sixteen be compelled to apply for his labor to vocational bureaus or to the constituted school authorities. They are advocates that the vocational bureaus should pay especial attention to the question of agricultural training and should try to divert new laborers from industries already crowded into agriculture, where they are so sorely needed.

The federation will seek to make the present child labor law uniform in all its provisions. It favors a pension for widowed mothers. In legislation more specifically relating to labor, it will seek to have enacted an anti-injunction bill; a peaceful persuasion bill, "to establish the right of a man, even if he is on a strike, to speak to other men"; the picketing bill, "to allow the strikers to state their case to men taking their places"; and the bill to facilitate the settlement of trade disputes and to decrease the number of strikes. It also hopes to have created a commission to make an exhaustive inquiry as to conditions of health and safety in all industries.

## REFORMS WANTED BY THE SPEAKER

In the course of his address Mr. Cushing took up in detail many of the civic and social improvements which he hopes to see made during the session. The existence at large of so many feeble-minded persons calls, he holds, for these steps:

"1. Provision must be made for the segregation of the defective delinquents discharged from our penal institutions. Chapter 595 of the acts of 1911 established departments for defective delinquents at the Reformatory for Women, at the Massachusetts Reformatory, and at the state farm. These departments have never been built.

"2. Additional accommodation must be provided at Wrentham, where the present buildings are now inadequate to care for the feeble-minded who are committed there.

"3. Plans must be made for a third institution for the feeble-minded in the central or western portion of the state."

Among other things the speaker said further:

"A reorganization of the prison commission is urgent, and an improved plan for the parole of prisoners, the classification of prisoners, and the development of prison industries.

"The success of the probation system is dependent on the intelligence and devotion of the probation officers. In all cities of 75,000 and over there should be juvenile probation officers. There should be women probation officers wherever conditions warrant, and authority should be given for the appointment of volunteer deputy women probation officers in all cases where suitable persons can be found to undertake the work.

"Hitherto the richness of our soil and the opportunities of an undeveloped continent have led us to look upon as remote many of the problems which have vexed older civilizations. The time however is fast approaching when the demand for certain forms of social insurance is becoming insistent. Piece-meal legislation is never satisfactory, and the far-sighted way of dealing with the subject is perhaps the authorization of an unpaid commission composed of able investigators who will study the results of the systems in operation in Germany, in England and in other countries, and report upon the advisability of a plan of social insurance against sickness, accident, death and unemployment. Such a report, if intelligently made, will be of incalculable benefit in shaping future legislation."

## LIMITING THE HOURS OF VERMONT WOMEN

The Vermont legislature has passed and the governor has signed a bill limiting hours of labor of women to fifty-eight a week. The bill also provides that no woman shall be employed within two weeks before or four weeks after child birth.



## BRINGING ORDER OUT OF CHAOS IN PENNSYLVANIA

When it was shown recently in Pennsylvania that a single hospital under private management had received a larger subsidy from the legislature than the Eastern Penitentiary, with an average of 1,400 convicts; that of \$16,000,-000 which had been appropriated at the last session to charitable and correctional institutions nearly half had gone to 273 agencies under private management, and that 263 of these were local in sphere and yet received over \$6,-000,000; and that there was almost no co-ordination or articulation among the state, county, municipal and private agencies that have been multiplying of late, some of which were declared to be positively superfluous<sup>1</sup>; the need was felt for some strong standardizing influence that should bring order out of the chaos, put the state's care of its wards on a non-political and scientific basis and act as the originator of new and modern ways of fighting the causes of poverty, degeneracy and crime.

To this end the Public Charities Association has been created. Its functions will be similar to those now exercised in New York state by the State Charities Aid Association, in New Jersey by the State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association, and in Massachusetts by the Massachusetts Civic League. It thus becomes the fourth organization of the kind in a movement which, in the opinion of Homer Folks, secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association, ought to spread to every state in the union just as the charity organization movement is spreading throughout the cities and towns of the country. It is just forty years since the first state charities aid association, that in New York, was formed. Created originally to remedy the bad conditions found in almshouses and public hospitals, this organization has shown the power of development in such a body by pushing back from effects to their causes until now it is carrying on preventive work against insanity, tuberculosis, inebriety, feeble-mindedness and other evils, of the same radical nature.

The Pennsylvania Association has already been underwritten to the amount of twenty-five thousand dollars. Its support will, it is expected, come entirely from private sources. County committees of the association will be organized in the principal cities. Through the committee on legislation an effort will be immediately made to secure united support for important measures of state wide scope. It is pointed out by those backing the new organization that Pennsylvania has no women's reformatory, no separate institution for feeble-minded women, no provision for inebriates, and

that its state hospitals for the insane are overcrowded. The initial platform of the association contains the following planks:

The elimination of "politics" from the state's charities.

The adoption of a sound state policy in making charitable appropriations—based on scientific standards and classifications.

The development of an adequate system of state institutions before extending aid to private local charities.

The segregation of all feeble-minded persons by 1920.

The adoption of preventive measures against insanity as an auxiliary to state care.

The removal of all children from almshouses.

The providing of adequate state or county care for the tuberculous.

The establishment of a state reformatory for women and the modernizing of county jails and prisons.

The adoption of more modern and scientific methods in dealing with inebriety and vagrancy.

The strengthening of probation work and methods, particularly for adult offenders.

The association will also undertake to keep the public informed by correspondence, publications and public meetings of social conditions in the state and of the requirements of its charitable, penal and reformatory institutions.<sup>1</sup>

## A BOARD THAT WILL CONTROL, NOT ADVISE

Largely in response to the same needs which have brought into existence the Public Charities Association an effort is being made in Pennsylvania to create a State Department of Charities, in place of the present State Board of Charities, whose powers are purely advisory. With the assistance of a committee of Philadelphia social workers a law for this purpose has been drafted by the legislative committee appointed in the spring at the Republican State Convention to carry out the platform promises of the party.

While it is the opinion of many that advisory powers such as are lodged in the Indiana Board of State Charities are, if thoroughly exercised, sufficient to secure a satisfactory administration of a state's charities, the framers of the Pennsylvania bill have thought that a peculiar situation exists in that state which renders powers of greater control necessary. One element in this

<sup>1</sup>The committee on organization, which, it is expected, will become the first board of managers of the association, is composed of: Vance C. McCormick, Harrisburg; Martha P. Falconer, Darling; Walter G. Smith, William Draper Lewis, Charles H. Frazier, George W. Pepper, Mrs. Louis C. Madelra, Louis Wolf, Asa S. Wing, and George Vaux, Jr., Philadelphia; Mrs. Edward Biddle, Carlisle; Frank B. McClain, Lancaster; Mrs. Enoch Raub, R. L. Little, and Allen T. Burns, Pittsburgh; Robert K. Young, Wellsboro; Charles B. Staples, Stroudsburg; James A. Lilen, Jr., Scranton; Henry W. Fuller, Wilkes-Barre; A. B. Farquhar, York; and William B. Buck, Philadelphia, secretary.

<sup>2</sup>See THE SURVEY, Nov. 30, page 252.



situation is that the recommendations of the present board have for some time been quite disregarded by the legislature. The board's suggestions in regard to management have been overlooked by the institutions over which the board is supposed to have supervision. Another element is the time-honored subsidy system already described.

The Department of Charities under the new law would be composed of a commissioner with a salary of \$8,000 and an unsalaried advisory board consisting of the commissioner of health, the commissioner of education and six members appointed by the governor for six year terms so arranged that eventually the term of one member will expire each year. The commissioner is empowered to appoint deputies to head four bureaus into which his department is divided, that of charity, of insanity, of reformation and of fiscal affairs. The deputy commissioner in charge of the last bureau, together with the superintendents of the various state managed institutions, constitute a board of standardization for effecting economical and uniform standards.

Upon the initiative of the commissioner the members of the board have the power to make rules and regulations relating to methods of care and management, of construction of buildings erected at the expense of the state, and for the treatment of patients, even to the question of admission and discharge. The yearly licensing of all private institutions according to standards prepared by the board is made obligatory.

The commissioner has plenary powers of inspection. Penalties of fine and imprisonment, one or both, are established in case inspection is refused by the managers of any institution, or in case the regulations of the board are not observed. It is the duty of the commissioner to prepare a budget for the legislature showing the amount needed by each state or private institution. The auditor general may pay no money to any institution without the approval of the commissioner. Severe penalties are invoked against any lobbying, direct or indirect, by the managers or friends of any institution.

Pennsylvania social workers who have been fighting the system of subsidy to private charities regret the omission from the bill of a clause limiting appropriations to privately managed institutions to maintenance only and upon a per capita basis. In view of the present sentiment throughout the state and the fact that a number of public hearings are scheduled at which the matter will be discussed, it is possible that this may be inserted before the bill is finally passed.

The bill further gives the power of semi-annual inspection to the newly organized Public Charities Association.

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### DEMOCRACY AND THE ILLITERACY TEST<sup>1</sup>

JOSEPH LEE

#### I.

I believe that the bills now before Congress to exclude aliens who cannot read, or who cannot read and write, are of great importance to the realization of true democracy in this country.

We shall never have true social and political democracy until the lower standard of living and of wages can be raised far above the present level. It is not a question of a bare living wage but of wages on which not only physical existence but real life can be carried on. I believe the thing can be done. I think we can attain a far higher standard than we have so far even learned to aim at. And I believe it is going to be done. But this end will not be attained by simple legislative fiat. We are not going to get high wages simply by decreeing that wages shall be high. That sort of legislation began, so far as English-speaking countries are concerned, with the Statute of Laborers, back in the time of Edward III of England. The object of that statute was not to keep wages up but to keep them down. But with all the prestige and power of the governing classes of those days behind it, it utterly failed because the French wars had so cut down the supply of labor that the economic laws worked against it. The same has been the history of laws fixing commodity prices. If the thing could be accomplished so easily it would have been done long ago; and we should not stop with a living wage but provide that everyone should have comfort and even luxury while we were about it.

But we can get the desired result by working in accordance with economic laws. One of these is the law of supply and demand. There are limits in any country, at any given time, to the demand for unskilled labor. The wages such workers command will depend largely on the supply of them. So long as every rise of wages in this country operates simply to draw in unskilled labor from the inexhaustible supply at starvation level in the Old World, we shall never raise wages in this country very high. It is like trying to bail out the boat without first plugging up the leak, or rather—when the leak is as big as the steamship companies now make it—it is like trying to dig a hole in the surface of the ocean itself. In fact, the argument most commonly used for unrestricted

<sup>1</sup>Argument against the literacy test was presented by Miss Addams in *THE SURVEY* of January 4, p. 419, under the title *Pen and Book as Tests of Character*.



immigration is that it is necessary for the development of our industries, that is, to keep wages down and to encourage enterprises dependent on low-priced labor.

Secondly, restriction is necessary because it is impossible to assimilate foreign populations in unlimited quantities, and is becoming increasingly so, as each new layer of immigration comes in contact with American ideals at a constantly greater remove from the original. The net immigration in the past dozen years has probably been about six million or nearly twice as large as the number of people in this country at the time of the Revolution.

Restriction of immigration is necessary to the establishing of a democratic standard of wages and of living and to the permeation of the mass by American ideals.

## II.

The illiteracy test is the best method of restriction that has been suggested. A head tax has the disadvantage of partly impoverishing the immigrant. To wholly exclude any European race would be a poor method because there is no European race of which the best are not desirable. The critics of the illiteracy test have never suggested or attempted to suggest an efficient substitute.

A very curious argument, perhaps the commonest against the illiteracy test, is that it lets in some undesirables—that some bad men can read and write. This argument overlooks the fact that the adoption of this test does not exclude the retention or adoption of other tests. We restrictionists have succeeded in having certain of the least desirable classes excluded, such as the insane, the feeble-minded, convicted criminals, white slaves, the physically unfit to a limited extent, and persons likely to become a public charge. The present Senate bill contains clauses to make these exclusions more effective by stopping some of the holes that our liberal immigration friends have found, or made, in present laws. We shall be glad to help in any further practicable exclusion of the least desirable. Meantime it seems clear that if the illiteracy test is in other respects a good thing, it is not an argument against it that there are some evils which it does not prevent. It might similarly be argued against the prevention of tuberculosis that it is not also a cure for cancer. Indeed, the same argument might be used against the enactment of any law on any other subject.

Secondly it is argued that the illiteracy test will keep out some good people. So undoubtedly would any test. That result is unavoidable unless we are to face the alternative evil of the surrender once for all of American standards and American ideals. So also the African slave

trade brought in some good people. Booker Washington is a product of it.

Upon the whole the illiteracy test does exclude the less desirable and admit the more desirable. It would be justified as a selective measure even if positive restriction were not necessary to the preservation and advance of American standards.

Illiteracy itself is an evil in a democracy. I suppose that is why we teach our own children to read and write. At all events we in Massachusetts have been made to feel by recent events that people who cannot read a newspaper, or be reached by ideas through any channel except by words spoken in their native language, are thereby rendered less amenable to public opinion and less easy of assimilation. And illiteracy among those over school age is a handicap which usually lasts for life.

The illiteracy test excludes, upon the whole, those elements of Old World society that are the more backward and the less favorable material for democracy. Education and democracy have always gone hand in hand. It is the more forward and more democratic communities in the Old World that have established education, the more backward and less democratic communities that have not done so. It may not be the fault of the individual in the latter kind of community that he has never learned to read; but it is the fault of the community itself and an indication of the amount of progress its people have made through all the centuries in democratic government.

Italy affords an instance of the sort of selection that will be made. The illiteracy test will exclude only some 5.6 per cent. of the north Italians, the race that produced Columbus, Dante, Michael Angelo, Garibaldi, Mazzini and Cavour. It will, on the other hand, exclude about 42.8 per cent of the very different race of southern Italy, the race that, whatever its merits in other respects, has made, or submitted to, the successive governments of Sicily and Naples, and whose most notable political and social institution of the present day is the Camorra. The illiteracy test, again, will exclude only from 1 to 2 per cent of the Germans, the Scandinavians, and the inhabitants of the British Isles; while on the other hand it will exclude some 32 per cent of the people of southern and eastern Europe whose most stable and characteristic political achievement has been the Russian Empire. Which of these two classes would the reader choose if he were starting out to select material for a democracy—the people of Florence, Genoa and Lombardy, or those of Sicily and Naples; the German burgher or the Russian peasant?

And what will be the effect of the exclusion upon the American stock as it was transmitted to us? Longfellow wrote of the settlement of



New England that "God had sifted three kingdoms to find the wheat for this planting." The old stock, North and South, was largely of the cream of the English nation, drawn off at its greatest period. I cannot believe that the average unlettered citizen of Sicily or Naples is its equal in the matter of carrying on successful democracy.

## "I BEG YOUR PARDON"

C. L. STONAKER

General Secretary, State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association of New Jersey

*[From a half dozen states recently have come rumblings of an aroused public interest in the constitutional right of the chief executive to pardon state prisoners. In some cases these have been attended by pronounced views on the advantages of pardon boards. Because of his seven years' experience as executive clerk to the Colorado pardon board THE SURVEY turned to Mr. Stonaker for a review of the present situation.—Ed.]*

The ethics of politeness requires us to say: "I beg your pardon" whether we really mean it or not. It implies that we are in the wrong, that we think we are wrong or that someone thinks that we are wrong. It implies forgiveness. It overlooks the automatic rule of cause and effect. It is an admission that we are not Spartan, but Christian. The thief on the cross was pardoned.

The dominant idea of a pardon is forgiveness rather than justice, mercy or extenuating circumstances. It is an admission that human nature is prone to error no matter how we may attempt to safeguard our courts. And courts do err. Not wilfully, not stupidly, not ignorantly, not carelessly, not by being imposed upon somewhere in the course of legal proceedings, but somehow and somewhere there has been a break in the chain. "Man is prone to error as the sparks fly upward."

Even a governor upon whom rests this burden to grant forgiveness may do wrong in his attempt to correct a wrong: He may forgive unwisely and against the peace and order of society. Any attempt to justify a pardon is liable to cause a governor trouble. The governor of Arkansas believed that his state was doing a great wrong by continuing its system of sentencing men to prison camps. He could not await the slow process of a development of public opinion to cause the overthrow of the system, and he decided to take advantage of the right granted him to pardon the men compelled to work in those camps under the system. If he and succeeding governors of that state continue to grant pardons as freely as he has done, the people of the state will the sooner decide to change the system.

The governor of South Carolina is threaten-

ing to exercise his right to grant pardons in order that he may obtain reforms in the conduct of the prison in his state. He threatens to depopulate the penitentiary in order to protect the prisoners from what he calls a "tuberculosis incubator." He also looks with a baleful eye upon the hosiery mill. He, too, cannot wait for the people of his state to catch up with him.

The recent governor of New York apparently had a more or less muggy idea that our criminal code and our criminal procedures in the courts were not measuring up to the standard of our times. He is a man of commercial affairs rather than one grounded in the niceties of jurisprudence. He thought a convict innocent of a crime for which the prisoner had already served a term of many years (during which time the convict had exhausted every legal means to secure a correction of a legal wrong as believed by that convict), and that the pardoning power was created for the explicit purpose of permitting him as governor to pardon such a man. No one questions his right as governor to pardon that particular man, but we have the privilege of expressing an opinion upon the reason he gave for so doing. By declaring his belief in Patrick's innocence, he attacks the courts and judicial procedure. Patrick may be innocent of the crime of murder, but no review of his case by any of the courts has intimated any weakness in the court proceedings which ended in a jury's vote for conviction.

We are willing to accept a reasonable amount of justification in explanation of the exercise of the pardoning power. There was a time in the far West when horse stealing was a more serious offense against society than murder. Few horse thieves were pardoned. They seldom lived long enough to ask for pardon. It is no crime in most states for a man to desert his wife and family, but let him abscond with the bank's cash, and we will go after him even to Timbuctoo. The other day an old woman appeared in court with blackened eyes, a bruised cheek and a cut lip and asked that her only son be put away because whenever he was drunk he abused her. The judge's sentence was thirty days. A saloon was held up and money to the amount of several hundred dollars was assessed by the highwayman. He went up for seven years. The inequality of sentences by different judges for practically like offenses; the circumstances of a wealthy or influential prominent citizen as complaining witness against an unknown defendant, often an alien and without friends; the final conviction of one burglar in a community where many previous burglaries went by without an arrest; these and many similar conditions all appear at length when the governor is appealed to for pardon. Common sense arguments take the place of rules of evidence. A beautiful girl sheds tears for her brother all over the governor's rosewood desk,



and what governor can resist tears! Among 5,000 prisoners there must be a small percentage deserving of clemency. Five per cent of 5,000 is 250. It may be that society is not yet ready to forgive 5 per cent.

Shall we use the expression: "I beg your pardon" as a cant phrase, meaningless, hollow and cold, or do we sincerely, honestly and sympathetically ask to be forgiven for our transgressions? Do we wish to grant pardons to those who have offended against society? Do we wish to forget the enormity of the offense or do we wish to measure out the extent of the offense before we decide to forgive?

One of the "divine rights" of kings was the privilege of granting pardons. It may be that this pardoning power of a king was principally exercised in restoring political offenders to civil rights. It was a personal grace without rule or reason. No king had to establish a rule nor give a reason.

When they were making constitutions in this country, the framers felt that there must be lodged somewhere this right to exercise clemency, and so they uniformly lodged this right in the office of the chief executive of the state. It was as near as they could get to a king. If they had desired to have this power of granting pardons hedged about and safeguarded by rules of law and court practices, they would have lodged it somewhere in the judiciary. The fact that this has never been done by our constitution makers implies that they wanted to eliminate legal forms and orderly procedures so that quick action might be had.

However, setting all other things aside, the simple fact remains that our state constitutions place in the hands of our governors the unqualified right to grant pardons. Each governor may exercise this right in his own way and no one by any legal procedure can question a governor in the exercise of this right. It would require a constitutional amendment to change this situation. No state has yet done it, and so long as we continue to believe in the frailties of human nature, we will not abolish the pardoning power. Neither will we take it out of the hands of the chief executive of the state. By restricting the arbitrariness of the governor's right to grant pardons, we merely create a new court for a re-hearing and a re-trial of a cause.

The only thing we may hope to do is to help the governor in his duty, right and privilege. But in so doing, if we attempt to hedge it about by legal rules and restrictions, just so soon we create an artificial court of review, and thus make matters worse.

A number of states have attempted to assist the governor, to protect him from the clamors of prisoners who feel themselves aggrieved, to protect him from the wiles of paid attorneys or

scheming politicians, to shield him from vulnerable attacks upon his human weaknesses, by creating a council or board or court sitting with him to consider all appeals for clemency. No matter how this body is composed, the final decision must rest alone with the governor. In some states the position of a member of such a pardoning court carries with it a salary. In other states no salary is attached. In still other states subordinate state officials comprise this court. Meetings are held at stated intervals, monthly, quarterly or semi-annually. If meetings are held frequently, more time can be given to each individual case. At the last meeting of the New Jersey Court of Pardons 218 applications were on file for consideration. This represented the work of an executive clerk for something like six months, delving into the history of each case in an effort to present cogent facts in an orderly and somewhat systematic manner. If this clerk in his work should endeavor to confine his review of the facts simply to the story of the crime and the history of the trial proceedings, he would be taking upon himself the power of a court of review. But if he should gather facts regarding the past life of the applicant, facts of heredity, of social relations, facts relating to the conduct of the applicant while in prison, facts indicating the present mental poise of the prisoner, and finally any indications of penitence, remorse or hopefulness or promise for the future, he would then be able to submit to the Court of Pardons a brief summary that would enable them the better to advise with the governor and thus assist the governor to determine whether he shall grant a pardon or not.

When we in this country shall improve in our criminal court procedures, and when we shall have adopted in full spirit the real indeterminate sentence law and not, as in most instances, the present makeshift of a so-called indeterminate law, and shall properly and fully provide for wholesome parole, there will be little need for the governor of any state to exercise the right of pardon. What few cases finally would come to him could be duly considered by his board of advisors in a careful and thorough way; and probably to the general commendation of the public. Until we have the full indeterminate sentence, and a well equipped parole supervision, the governor of a state must handle as best he may the great number of appeals that come before him. So hedge the governor about by some form of advisory board, that he may not become too forgiving and thus upset the entire legal machinery of a commonwealth. The probabilities are that the average governor errs more often in withholding a pardon than in granting one. "To err is human, to forgive divine."



# MID-MONTHLY DEPARTMENTS

CIVICS      HEALTH      INDUSTRY  
CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

## CONFERENCES

### JANUARY AND FEBRUARY CONFERENCES.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New Hampshire State Conference of, Concord, February, 1913. Sec'y, Mary P. Remick, Concord.  
CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New Jersey State Conference of, Plainfield, February 2-4, 1913. Sec'y, Ernest D. Easton, 45 Clinton St., Newark.  
CIVIC FEDERATION, NATIONAL. Hotel Astor, New York, January 28-29, 1913. Sec'y, Ralph Easley, 1 Madison Ave., New York.  
PROBATION, Illinois State Conference on. Chicago, probably February 10-11, 1913. Sec'y, John W. Houston, 226 Court House, Chicago, Ill.

### LATER MEETINGS.

#### INTERNATIONAL.

BLIND, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, 1914: probably July 20. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.  
CHILDREN'S WELFARE, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstraat 106, Amsterdam.  
PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.  
SCHOOL HYGIENE, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.  
UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association for Fight Against. Ghent, Belgium, 1913. American Corres. Officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

#### NATIONAL.

BOYS, General Assembly of Workers with. Culver, Ind., May 17-30, 1913. Information may be secured from the Boys' Work Dept., Y. M. C. A., 124 E. 28th Street, New York.  
CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, National Conference of. Seattle, Wash., July 5-12, 1913. Sec'y, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.  
CHILD LABOR, Ninth Annual Conference of National Committee on. New Orleans, La., March 10-16, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 East 22d St., New York City.  
MEDICINE, AMERICAN ACADEMY OF. Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting. Minneapolis, Minn., June 13, 14, 1913.  
YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION of the United States of America, Fourth Biennial Convention of. Richmond, Va., Apr. 9-15, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, Mabel Cratty, 600 Lexington Ave., New York.

#### STATE AND LOCAL

BAPTIST CONVENTION, NORTHERN, Detroit, Mich., May, 1913. Cor. Sec'y, Rev. W. C. Bitting, St. Louis, Mo.  
CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.  
CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New York City Conference on. May 14-15, 1913. Sec'y, John B. Prest, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York City.  
RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Decennial Convention of. Cleveland, Ohio, March 10-13, 1913. Information may be secured from the Religious Education Assn., 332 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago Ill.

January 18, 1913.

## COMING EXHIBITS

### LOCAL

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT, New Britain, Conn., April 26-May 2. Sec'y, E. W. Pelton.  
CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT, Rochester, N. Y., about April 1.  
CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT, High School, Newport, R. I., last week of March. Chairman, Harriet E. Thomas, 263 Thames Street.

### NATIONAL

CONSERVATION EXPOSITION, NATIONAL, Knoxville, Tenn., Sept.-Oct., 1913.

### INTERNATIONAL

KINEMATOGRAPH EXHIBITION AND CONFERENCE, INTERNATIONAL, "Olympia," London, Eng., March 22-29, 1913.  
PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION, San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 20-Dec. 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Frank A. Wolff, Washington, D. C.  
PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION, San Diego, Cal., Jan. 1-Dec. 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego.

*Jacob A Riis*

announces that he will enter into arrangements for his services as a lecturer direct with committees of teachers' and other organizations.

Address correspondence looking to the present season, or to that of 1913-14, to

JACOB A. RIIS

Care of THE SURVEY

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# INFORMATION

**CHILD LABOR**—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

**CHILD HELPING**—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

**CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE**—American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Studies preventable causes of death and illness; urges birth registration, maternal nursing, parental instruction.

**SCHOOL HYGIENE**—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M.D., Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

**MENTAL HYGIENE**—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City. Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of the insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

**MENTAL DEFICIENCY**—The American Association for the Study of the Feeble-minded publishes the proceedings and papers of its annual meetings in the Journal of Psycho-Asthenics. Address Dr. A. C. Rogers, secretary, at Faribault, Minnesota.

**EUGENICS**—Eugenics Record Office, Cold Spring Harbor, L. I., N. Y. (American Breeders Assoc., Eugenics Sect., Charles B. Davenport, Sec.). Membership \$2. a year. National repository of data on hereditary family traits. Schedules for family records furnished free. Advice as to suitable matings. Publications at cost. H. H. Laughlin, Supt.

**NATIONAL HEALTH**—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Executive Secretary, Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all the government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

**TUBERCULOSIS**—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., will be sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

**SEX HYGIENE**—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

**WOMEN IN INDUSTRY**—National Consumers League, 106 East 19th St., New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, Gen'l Sec'y. 87 branch leagues. Reports, pamphlets sent on request. Minimum membership fee \$1.00 includes current pamphlets. Minimum wages boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

**WORKING WOMEN**—National Women's Trade Union League, to better industrial conditions through organization and legislation. Information given. "Life and Labor," events in industrial world. Three months for 25c. Mrs. Raymond Robins, Pres., 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

**EVENING CLUBS FOR GIRLS**—National League of Women Workers, Hotel Savoy, New York. Organizing Sec'y, Jean Hamilton. Recreation and instruction in self-governing and self-supporting groups for girls over working age. Monthly magazine—"The Club Worker," Twenty-five cents 1 year.

**YOUNG WOMEN**—National Board, Y. W. C. A., 600 Lexington Ave., N. Y. C. Official magazine: The Association Monthly. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge, Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty. The advancement of Christian Social Service. Free literature (all departments).

**HOME AND INSTITUTIONAL ECONOMICS**—American Home Economics Association, for Home, Institution, and School. Publishes *Journal of Home Economics*, 600 pp. per vol. \$2.00 per year. Conducts Graduate School of Home Economics. Meeting: Boston, December 31, 1912—Address, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.

**SOCIAL CENTERS**—Division of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City. A Survey of the School Centers of 1911-12, containing the latest information regarding their extent, the new civic developments, and the recent state enactments affecting them. Price 5 cents.

**RECREATION**—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y. Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

**BOY SCOUTS**—National Headquarters of the Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Ave., New York City. James E. West, Chief Scout Executive. Local Councils organized in principal cities, towns and counties. Literature on request. Monthly magazine, "Boys' Life" \$1 a year. Memberships: Associate \$3. Sustaining \$10.

**MUNICIPAL PROBLEMS**—National Municipal League 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

**CITY PLANNING**—National City Planning Conference, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at \$5 a year Includes All Literature.

**THE SMOKE NUISANCE**—Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement: How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

**SHORT BALLOT and COMMISSION GOVERNMENT**—The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, President; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters*.

**CHARITY ORGANIZATION**—Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, 105 E. 22d St., New York City. To study, teach and publish in the charity organization field. Pamphlets on family treatment, community study, relief, transportation, etc. sent free.



# DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but memberships not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**—The Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. **BUREAU OF INFORMATION** on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 5, 1913.

**ORGANIZED CHARITY**—American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City. To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs in the United States.

**THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE**—The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service. For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

**STUDIES IN SOCIAL CHRISTIANITY**—*Jan'y.*: Poverty. *Feb'y.*: Wealth. *March*: Socialism. See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York City. Price 50c. per year.

**EPISCOPAL SOCIAL SERVICE**—The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church. For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

**UNITARIAN SOCIAL ADVANCE**—The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service. Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees. Rev. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

**METHODIST SOCIAL SERVICE**—Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature: Bureau of Information. Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; Invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities. Rev. Harry F. Ward, Sec'y., 2512 Park Place, Evanston, Ill.

**BAPTIST SOCIAL SERVICE**—Baptist Department of Social Service and Brotherhood. To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies. S. Z. Batten, Secretary, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

**CONGREGATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCY**—The Congregational Brotherhood of America, Henry A. Atkinson, Secretary, 19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Ills. Programs and information furnished. Study Course: Speakers' Bureau; Publications. Service available for Institutes, Conferences and Addresses. Correspondence and inquiries invited.

**PRESBYTERIAN SOCIAL SERVICE**—Bureau of Social Service, The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rev. Charles Steitzle, Supt., 156 Fifth Ave., New York. Sociological surveys made, Clearing house for city problems of the Church. Correspondence Course in Applied Christianity. Methods for Church Publicity.

**THE AMERICAN SEAMAN'S FRIEND SOCIETY**—Rev. J. B. Calvert, D.D., pres. George McPherson Hunter, Sec'y. The national seamen's society has stations in the United States and abroad, relieves shipwrecked and destitute seamen. Annual membership includes all literature, \$5.00 a year. C. C. Pinneo, Treas., 76 Wall Street.

**REMEDIAL LOANS**—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham. Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

**SOCIAL BETTERMENT FOR NEGROES**—National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, 281 Fourth Avenue, E. R. A. Seligman, Chairman; G. E. Haynes, Director. Develops welfare agencies. Trains social workers. Aids travelers. Supports probation officers. Seeks industrial opportunities. Correspondence invited.

**NEGRO AND RACE PROBLEMS**—National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 26 Vesey Street, New York. O. G. Villard, Chairman. Board of Directors: M. C. Nerney, Secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, Director Publicity. Publishes Crisis Magazine. Investigation, Legal Redress, Literature, Lectures, Lantern Slides.

**IMMIGRATION**—National Conference of Immigration: Land and Labor Officials, 22 East 30th Street; F. A. Kellor, Sec. Information affecting aliens after admission, especially in reference to labor, land, education, protection and distribution. No matters of admission or restriction dealt with.

**IMMIGRATION**—North American Civic League for Immigrants, New York-New Jersey Committee, 95 Madison Ave., N. Y. C. Protection, Education, Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants. Printed material furnished upon request. Grace E. J. Parker, General Secretary.

**IMMIGRANT GIRLS**—Council of Jewish Women (National) Department Immigrant Aid meets girls at docks; visits, advises, guides; has international system safeguarding. Work in Religion, Philanthropy, Education, Civics. Invites Membership. Address Sadie American, Exec. Sec., 448 Central Park West, New York.

**AID FOR TRAVELERS**—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex. For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Sec'y., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

**SURVEYS AND EXHIBITS**—Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, 31 Union Square, New York City. A national clearing house for advice and information on social surveys and exhibits and for field assistance in organizing surveys and exhibits.

**PROBATION**—National Probation Association, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y. Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

**LABOR LEGISLATION**—Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws. Official Publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members. American Association for Labor Legislation, 131 East 23d St., New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

**PRISON LABOR**—National Committee on Prison Labor, 27 E. 22d St., N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stagg Whitin, Ph.D., Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. \$5 a year.

**SETTLEMENTS**—National Federation of Settlements. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state, and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work; seeks the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life. Robert A. Woods, Sec., 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.



# The New York School of Philanthropy

Edward T. Devine, Director.

A limited number of students may be admitted to the following courses which begin on February 6:

¶ **Executive and Financial Management.** Samuel McCune Lindsay. Thursday and Friday at 9:10.

Financial support of charitable enterprises, methods of appeal, reports, publicity, propaganda, reciprocal relations of directors and managers to executive officers and workers.

¶ **Amusements and Recreation.** Francis D. Tyson. Monday at 9:10.

Economic and social background of recreation, social cost of lack of wholesome facilities; play as a social factor in city life; playground movement; athletics and the dance; the theatre.

¶ **The Church and the Community.** Gaylord S. White. Thursday and Friday at 9:10.

What is the relation of the Church to the present social and industrial situation? How can the Church best serve the community? What can the social worker expect from the Church and what can the Church expect from the social worker?

¶ **Training for Settlement Work.** Mary K. Simkhovitch. Tuesday at 9:10 and Thursday at 12:10.

Personal qualifications required; studies in club work; class work (manual and academic); music, drama, dancing, balls, picnics, pageants, social, athletic meets; personal relationship with families; neighborhood work—civic, educational, social; outline of what the settlement worker should learn about his district and city; administration.

¶ **Medical Sociology and Hospital Social Service.** Dr. James Alexander Miller. Wednesday evening, 8-10.

Relation of disease to poverty and dependence; organization of hospitals and dispensaries; personal requirements and training for hospital social service; practical details; problems of public and private hygiene; social factors in disease; tuberculosis, infant mortality, child hygiene, alcoholism, nervous diseases, insanity, venereal diseases, occupational diseases.

¶ **Delinquents.** O. F. Lewis. Tuesday at 9:10.

An outline of the purpose of imprisonment, development of prison systems, indeterminate sentence, parole, probation, juvenile court. Prisons, reformatories, and jails are discussed as to administration, architecture, and efficiency. Vagrancy, inebriety, the social evil, feeble-mindedness, and other special subjects relating to the classification of delinquents. The courts, penal law and criminal procedure are briefly considered.

¶ **Immigration.** Kate H. Claghorn. Tuesday at 12:10.

A study of racial characteristics as a basis for intelligent social work among our foreign populations; present methods of care for immigrants; legislation, and other means for securing the welfare of the immigrant and the community. Many of the lectures will be given by representative Italians, Slavs and Hebrews.

The fee for each two-hour course is \$15, for a one-hour course \$7.50.

New York School of Philanthropy  
105 East 22d St., New York

## PAMPHLETS

To the Editor of The Survey:

As chairman of the Social Service Committee of the — Baptist Church of this city, I am anxious to secure for distribution pamphlets covering various social subjects. Will you kindly advise me where to obtain them and the prices in quantity?

The writer of this letter, who is a lawyer, was referred to all of the organizations listed in the Information Desk on the other side of this page, and to others which, because they are not national organizations in the social field, are not eligible to the Information Desk. There are many such.

These and other similar bodies can bring their pamphlet publications directly to the attention of The Survey's 21,000 subscribers by advertising them on this page at 20 cents per agate line per insertion (minimum accepted, five lines). Where several titles are given, the name of the advertiser need be used only once.

National organizations listed in the Information Desk may profitably use this column for additional announcements or for more titles than space in the Desk permits.

SELECTIVE LIST of pamphlets of various Russell Sage Foundation Departments free on request to Room 511, 105 East 22d St., New York.

JUVENILE COURT issue of The Survey, edited by Bernard Flexner. Articles by leading workers, reviewing first decade of Juvenile Court. First-class material in preparing club papers, debates. 25 cents. 10 copies, \$2. 25 copies, \$4.50. 50 copies, \$7.50. The Survey, 105 East 22d St., New York.

## A CHALLENGE TO THE CONTEMPORARY CHURCH

¶ A reprint of Jane Addams's article in THE SURVEY for May 4. Comprising her address on the protection of women and girls given before the Christian Conservation Congress of the Men and Religion Forward Movement. Single copy 5 cents. 25 copies for distribution, 60 cents; 100 or more copies 2 cents each (express extra).

THE SURVEY, 105 East 22d Street, NEW YORK



## CIVICS

### PHILADELPHIA NO LONGER CORRUPT AND UNASHAMED

KARL de SCHWEINITZ

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, PENNSYLVANIA SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS

City Hall in Philadelphia has twenty elevators, five at each corner of the big square which the building occupies. Before December 4, 1911, riding in these elevators was something like investing in a lottery; sometimes you won, but more often you lost. It was not unusual on arriving at the southeast entrance to be referred to the northeast or to the southwest corner for a lift upstairs. Something seemed always to be the matter with the elevators. Now Philadelphians are beginning to wonder if that something was not politics, for since the Blankenburg administration has taken charge, the elevators in City Hall run as smoothly, and as often and as surely as those in any large office building. Let this be an illustration of the fact that the Blankenburg administration stands for efficiency.

When George D. Porter was appointed Director of Public Safety a year ago, he felt the need of an expert to systematize the business of his department. When lack of money prevented him from employing the man he desired, a number of public spirited citizens offered to help, and underwrote the salary of Captain Martin H. Ray, a West Point graduate, who was thereupon appointed aide to Director Porter. This marks another characteristic of the Blankenburg administration—co-operation between the people and their servants.

The new heads of the Department of Public Safety soon learned that the carrying out of their duties required a great quantity of printing. The necessity for advertising for bids and for sending work to job printers caused frequent delays. Accordingly a printing press with full equipment was purchased. This press, including the cost of labor, paid for itself within six weeks.

In order to put the press into immediate operation without going through the delay of waiting for a special appropriation from Councils, it was decided to try to find a printer from among the members of the police force. When this

became known, Director Porter's mail was enlivened with scores of the most entertaining kind of recommendations. Citizens living along the "beat" of Officer Jones wrote to say that he was always on duty and was so good to children. Officer Smith was urged as the right man for the job because he had never been known to be intoxicated. Strange to say, the man's ability as a printer was in no case mentioned.

Meantime Director Porter had ascertained that the force included twenty-seven printers. These were interviewed, and as a result a recent recruit was chosen. He was amazed at receiving a position which under the old regime would have cost him money. He was still more surprised when upon trying to thank his superiors he was told that he had earned the job upon merit and that merit alone would hold it. Merit as the basis for advancement is the third new feature of the administration.

There is much more which might be said in this connection to show that the chief work of Mayor Blankenburg during his first year of office has been to give Philadelphia a

business government. A review of the accomplishments of the first year of such an administration can be no more exciting and no more interesting than the story of the first year of any corporation which has taken charge of a worn-out, run-down, mismanaged factory and is starting to renovate and develop a modern, up-to-date business.

When Mayor Blankenburg took office, however, he had one handicap, with which the receiver of the average bankrupt company is not usually burdened. This was the contractor-boss system, which in Philadelphia had probably been developed to greater nicety than in any other city. Under machine politics it operated in this wise. For all city work specifications were drawn calling for the very best kind of materials and labor. All honest firms were therefore, compelled to make their bids accordingly. The political con-



RUDOLPH BLANKENBURG  
Mayor of Philadelphia.





GEORGE D. PORTER  
Director of Public Safety

tractor bid low; received the work; whereupon the city inspectors would shut their eyes to the kind of material that was furnished. Firms outside the organization rarely bid upon municipal projects. Lavish expenditures for inferior goods were one cause of an indebtedness of more than five million dollars incurred for running expenses.

Councils is antagonistic to Mayor Blankenburg. And Councils in Philadelphia means two unwieldy bodies, forty-seven men in one and eighty-seven in the other, which control all appropriations and through whom there is no such thing as speedy action. With the exception of the city solicitor, practically all of the county municipal officers are opposed to Mayor Blankenburg politically. The new mayor when inaugurated did not even have the endorsement of a majority of the voters. He had been elected not so much by a wave of reform, as by a split in the "gang," which in Philadelphia is called the "Organization."

As support Mayor Blankenburg had the backing of all of the best citizens. He also through appointments had control of practically all of the city's business.

The mayor of Philadelphia has greater powers perhaps, than the mayor of any other city in the United States, inasmuch as he appoints five directors who govern the city—the directors of Public Safety; Supplies; Wharves, Docks and Ferries; and Health and Charities.

Mayor Blankenburg's selections for these offices were well considered. George D. Porter, Director of Public Safety, had led the battle for reform in Councils almost single handed for

years. Morris L. Cooke was appointed Director of Public Works at the suggestion of Frederick W. Taylor, the widely known efficiency expert. Herman Loeb, Director of the Department of Supplies, was a successful manufacturer. Director George W. Norris of the Department of Wharves, Docks and Ferries, some time before Mayor Blankenburg was elected, had resigned his membership in one of the most important banking firms in the city in order to devote himself to the study of municipal problems. Dr. Joseph S. Neff, Director of the Department of Public Health and Charities, had held that office under the former administration, but upon practically the unanimous endorsement of the medical profession of the city, was retained to continue his work.

The mayor and his Cabinet first directed their efforts to the breaking up of the contractor boss system of low quality goods at first class prices with political favorites controlling the city inspectors. This was done by drawing reasonable specifications and inviting everybody to bid on an equal basis.

Director Loeb of the Department of Supplies, by observing this policy has everywhere reduced prices and increased quality. For instance, under the old regime the specifications for the meat, which was served to the residents of the alms-house at Blockley, called for whole carcasses of well fattened steers weighing at least six hundred pounds dressed. What were actually delivered were cows worn out as milkers and whose meat was too lean to be exposed for sale. The inspectors closed their eyes and the favored contractor made money by deliveries far below standard.

Director Loeb's new specifications call for bids upon so many hind and fore quarters of steers and of cows. In other words, he has asked for what the city really needs for its institutions, and by playing fair has obtained the kind of bids that a big business house would receive. In the same way Director Loeb, through specifications without jokers and honest inspection, was able to reduce the cost of lumber to the city by 41 per cent and the price of flour by nearly a dollar a barrel. In the past year he has saved 11,000 tons of coal, or \$44,000.

Director Cooke of the Department of Public Works, also has been able to effect economies. For 1912 he reduced the garbage contract from \$516,000, the amount paid by the city in the year previous, to \$278,000, and he has let the contract for 1913 at \$225,000. Under the former administration the garbage contract was so desirable that it was common talk in political circles that one garbage disposal company was paying 10 per cent on the stock of another firm in order to insure to itself the monopoly of garbage collecting.

The complete overthrow of the contractor boss system is again shown in the changes which Director Cooke has been able to make in the street cleaning specifications for 1913 for in Philadelphia this work is not done by the city.

The old system demanded that asphalt streets should be cleaned twice a week and all other



streets every day. The bid for this work was so low that no company could have lived up to the specifications without entering into bankruptcy proceedings. The new specifications are so drawn that the streets which have the heaviest traffic will be cleaned oftenest. By providing oil skins for the men, street cleaning will be done rain or shine. Previously wet weather stopped all work. In the Bureau of Highways Director Cooke found that out of forty inspectors not one was an engineer. All of the forty are now.

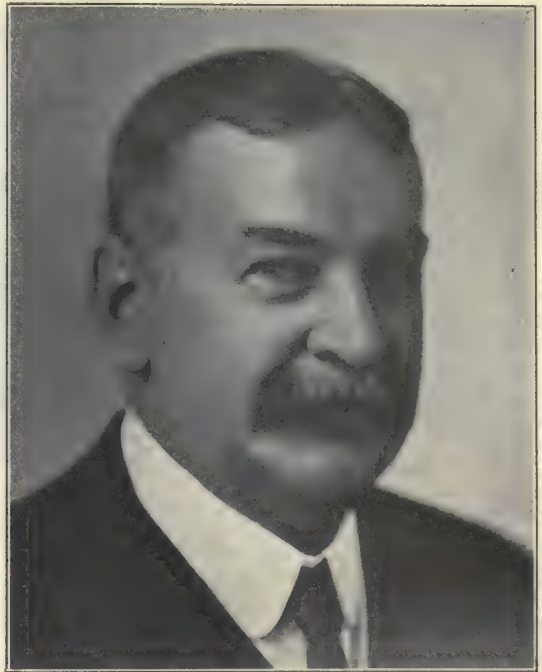
Director Norris of the Department of Wharves, Docks and Ferries, has conducted a publicity campaign throughout the State showing the advisability for investment by the state in the improvement of Philadelphia's water front. He expects to bring before the Legislature bills giving the city power to condemn property which it may need to improve its docking facilities and large appropriations to carry this into effect.

Dr. Neff—one of whose first moves, by the way, was the appointment to the office of assistant director, of an experienced social worker, Alexander M. Wilson—has aroused the public interest in the situation at Blockley, which is the name given to the largest conglomerate institution for the care of sick, indigent and insane in the world. He has begun the breaking up of this relic of nineteenth century charity. Through the passage of a municipal loan, \$250,000 has become available for the building of a tuberculosis hospital, which will take that department from Blockley. The male tuberculous insane have already been removed. The building of a sanatorium for the female tuberculous insane has been begun.

The city has a farm of 875 acres just within its northwestern border. Here Dr. Neff is developing a colony for the insane, utilizing the farm houses on the property. A home for the male indigent is half way towards completion. Work has also been begun upon quarters for feeble-minded women.

The Department of Public Safety with its problems of vice and crime-suppression and fire protection is the crux of every administration. For the first time in years this part of the city government is clean. No longer are the police obliged to pay a percentage of their wages into the campaign treasury of the "organization." At the recent Presidential election the police were not used to intimidate voters. Formerly anti-"organization" men were often taken from polling places where they had been stationed as watchers, and were jailed until the necessary ballot manipulating had been carried out. All of this has been stopped. At the last election there were fewer arrests than on an ordinary week day.

Shortly after the reform administration took charge, a Vice Commission was appointed. Pending the report of the investigation of this commission, Director Porter has made no announcement as to his policy, but in the meantime, he has closed disorderly houses in out-



JOSEPH S. NEFF, M.D.  
Director of Public Health and Charities.

lying districts and has put an end to all street solicitation.

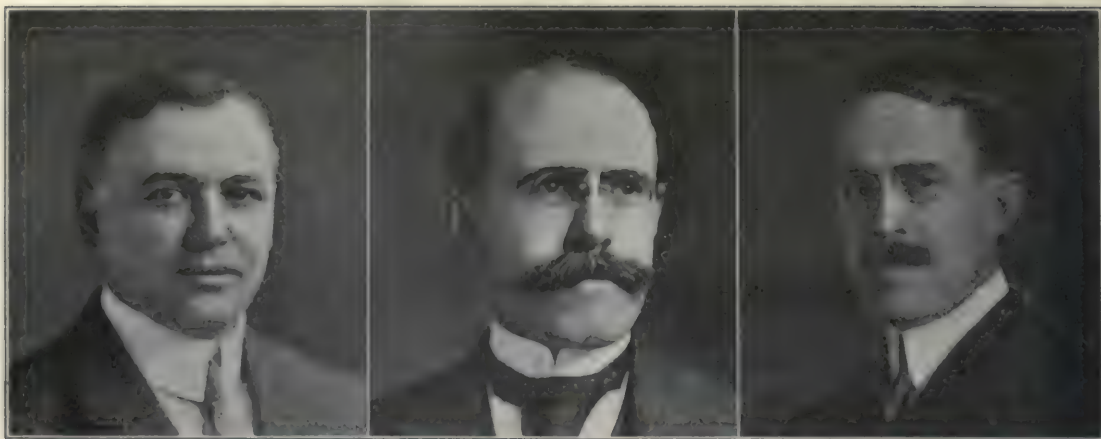
Fifteen years ago a manual of instruction for policemen was issued. Since then there has been no new edition, and it is doubtful how many policemen there were on the force at the time the new administration took charge who knew what a manual was. Very shortly a most complete one will be issued.

A school has also been established for the instruction of recruits. Formerly a new man spent two days in the company of one older in the service and was then told to shift for himself.

In the old days before the patrolmen were sent out "upon the street," they were lined up at the various police stations. The lieutenant then read to them descriptions of whatever criminals happened to be wanted. After hearing the color of the eyes and hair of half a dozen different persons, the average patrolman was as ignorant of the appearance of the men desired as before. Now each policeman is provided with a notebook. Upon what is called an alarm sheet, a description of the criminals wanted is printed for insertion in this book. The very first day this system was inaugurated, two men who had long been searched for, were arrested. When such a capture is made, the name of the policeman making the arrest is circulated on the next alarm sheet, thus arousing emulation and encouraging an esprit de corps.

Reform has also reached the Fire Department. The firemen no longer tilt back lazily in arm chairs in front of the fire houses. They are now under a military discipline and are in better physical condition than ever before. There is a





HERMAN LOEB  
Director of Supplies

GEORGE W. NORRIS  
Director of Wharves, Docks  
and Ferries

MORRIS L. COOKE  
Director of Public Works

special fire school for the officers of the various fire companies where are taught the various methods and ways of attacking burning buildings, and training men.

Philadelphia has been enjoying a dollar tax rate for some years, whereas for 1913 after all the economies of Mayor Blankenburg, the rate should be between \$1.35 and \$1.40, unless of course, the assessments are raised. Mayor Blankenburg tried to solve the tax riddle by recommending the levying on occupations, automobiles, household possessions and upon businesses. Councils refused to adopt these suggestions. Mayor Blankenburg then pointed out that an increase in tax rate was necessary. Again Councils failed to act. This means that a temporary loan will have to be made again as has been the case for several years in order to pay current expenses. The usual amount of this loan has been \$1,200,000. During 1912 Mayor Blankenburg reduced this sum to \$600,000 by economical administration.

A low tax rate combined with low assessments has meant a low borrowing capacity which has brought with it scant funds for permanent improvements. Consequently there has been no further work upon the parkway, a boulevard running across million dollar lots from City Hall to Fairmount Park. This is one of the burdens which the "Organization" administration, with its ardent attention to the spectacular and its forgetfulness of the less showy institutions of honest government, bequeathed to Mayor Blankenburg. Since the parkway has been begun, it will have to be finished, but evidently Mayor Blankenburg, with a great many other citizens, feels that there are other far more important things which should come first.

Hitherto there had always been an amazing lack of system in the method of asking for appropriations. Mayor Blankenburg, with the co-operation of the Bureau of Municipal Research, has brought about the adoption of a businesslike system of requests for appropriations, so that hereafter if a proper amount of

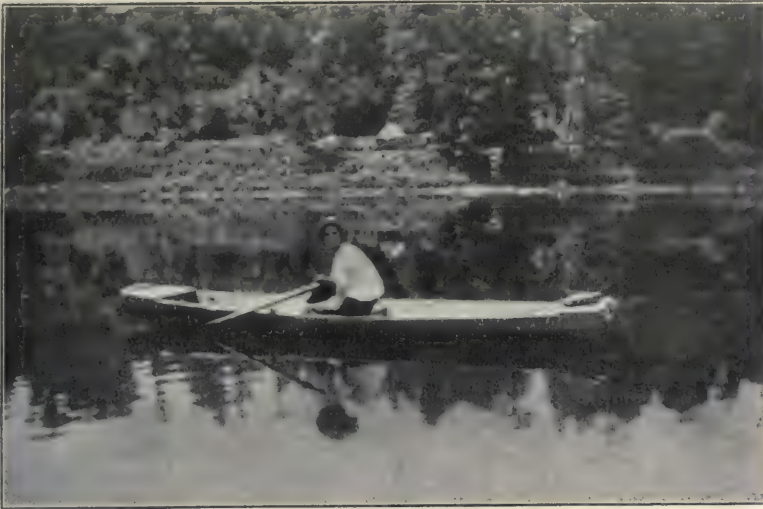
publicity is observed, the budget will become a real community program from which citizens can tell what the administration is planning for the coming year.

Philadelphians have been waiting with a good deal of interest to see whether Mayor Blankenburg would make good his campaign pledge of an eighty cent gas rate. At present gas is served to the people of Philadelphia by a private corporation at a rate of \$1.00 per thousand cubic feet, twenty cents of which is returned to the city's treasury in the form of a rebate. In a message to Councils on January 2, Mayor Blankenburg pointed out that by reason of one and one-half million dollars worth of economies which had already been effected, and by the rearranging of the present system of taxation through the inclusion of taxes on automobiles, occupations, amusements and personal property, it would be possible to bring about an eighty cent gas rate. It is now for Councils to decide whether they will assist the mayor in redeeming his pledge.

Reform administration should largely be an administration of education. The present regime has not lived up as closely to this ideal as might be desired. When Tom Johnson was mayor of Cleveland, he conducted a series of public mass meetings in which he and his staff explained to the people the needs of the city and the reasons for the policies which had been inaugurated. 'Some such plan could well be carried out in Philadelphia. Newspaper publicity could be used to great effect. Some departments, to be sure, have spoken to the people through the press, but as a whole the administration has been too quiet about its accomplishments. The citizens of Philadelphia do not realize what is being done for them.

The Blankenburg administration has made a remarkable beginning of efficient, honest management of city affairs. Politics have been done away with; the business code has been established and the future promises a healthier, happier better Philadelphia than ever before.





"HERE"

FRED BRUSH, M.D.

SUPERINTENDENT  
WINIFRED  
MASTERTON  
BURKE  
FOUNDATION,  
NEW YORK

#### ON THE SUSQUEHANNA

"Play has never yet lessened the work product of a community."

*[At the picnic of the home and invited granges at Hickory Grove, Pa., last summer Dr. Brush delivered to his old neighbors an address of unusual feeling and suggestiveness in its treatment of grave rural problems. The recommendations he made for rebuilding community life in this Pennsylvania town are for the most part applicable to almost any farming district and are here presented. Personal references to acquaintances in the audience are omitted.—Ed.]*

My subject is all in the word HERE. I would have you consider with me today this place—not Washington or Binghamton, but Hickory Grove and a few miles around.

Let us at once come at the Main Things.

First, this is one of the best places on earth to spend life in. Second, this was, up to about 1880-85, a first-class rural community. Third, it is now a second-class rural community. Is it desirable to go back to first ranking, and how?

But I see you thinking at me, keenly and justly, the question: "If this is a best place, why is Fred Brush not living here, and why should he come with advice?" Second thought will, I am sure, tell you that I never left you. I have been back for long vacations each year. You are getting my modest investments and educating my children. "Home to Pennsylvania," my folks have come to say, and it sounds good to me.

Main thing No. 1—we are alive, more or less, in one of the world's best places, here in the loop of the beautiful Susquehanna. The Fixer of Things has given here air, pure through all winds and seasons, and surely helping to better health and age. Water, for drink and power and pleasure, unexcelled. Land, not the best, but good enough to have attracted here the best farmers of New England and Europe. Timber, second only to that of the Pacific slope. Mar-

kets and accessibility, with three great trunk lines of railroad converging through our gap in the ranges. Scenery, ranking it with the five other rare scenic sections of the country—and to be appreciated and paid for beyond our conjectures as time goes on.

It is a fair part of earth. But we are here for truth and would know its drawbacks. Are they not,—First, too few people within touch; Second, poor roads; Third, too long and hard winters, as at present lived at least?

Despite these many advantages things went wrong with our community during the past three decades. It will be profitable to know and name the main heads of this wrong, that we may move straighter and speedier toward bettering conditions. It may be stated at once that the main trouble has been the deterioration and partial loss of the communal life—the co-operative life. Not failure in farming or money-making, but degeneration of our society in its broadest sense. Around this idea we must rebuild. If you get to believe it, we may lift back to first rank.

The past is ever acting part of us; on it we of necessity rebuild. Come back with me then a little time into the story of our countryside. Careful investigation reveals that four to five houses were occupied where is now one. This little stream turned six mills. There were full



churches, schools of thirty to seventy, bees, debating societies, picnics, singing schools, parties, quiltings, military drills, big hunts and fishes, shooting matches, fife and drum corps, sugar-making, and two goose-feather beds for every bride, however poor.

Why review this past? Because it is part of today and us; because early in that past there developed here what was stated at the outset, a first-class rural community—measured up with the country's best.

Then came gradually the bad times, not to be dwelt upon here, known but too well by you. Leaders gone, young folks leaving, schools almost closed, various neighborhood organizations closing one after the other, the humus and plant foods gone from the soil and the farmers wondering and waiting—and scarce a game of dominos or quoits to be had. Widespread economic causes can be laid thereto. Not all life neighborhoods sank so far. Records are of many that braced, thought, took community action—saved a part of the old good and prepared for its grafting on the new.

In this our darkest period, from '85 to late in the '90's, there appear a body of remarkable women who quietly took leadership and did important things. It was as if, seeing clearly with hearts more than minds, they flung a banner: "We can live with less incomes, decorations, equipment, new clothes, travel but not with less hope or religion or laughter or love." And they patched and rebuilt and held on till they gave over from their falling hands most of the good things that leave us what we are, as a community, today.

Well, we are on the up-grade again. — But there's a long way to go—years long. But it is not yet assured that this our community will rise to another class. A little betterment is often half failure. Sober thoughts, these, before having looked at the past, we take up the problems of the present. Most of all, the communal life, the co-operative life needs upbuilding here. Individualistic effort served well its time and place. But the magic success-word is now "get together."

Rules of action help.

Rule I. Use existing organizations; their mere survival proves many fitnesses.

Rule II. Have few organizations and keep them large. Small ones are racked and wrecked by passing circumstances, and by individuals; attaining a certain size, self-repair and renewal take place almost automatically.

Rule III. Use leaders. When a man can do something well set him at it, for all your good, and then give him fair credit and honor.

Rule IV. Try for a guiding principle or two—rules of action. Here's one particularly for you. Face every proposition with the question, "Is this good for the community and the long pull; or is it for an individual, or a clique, or a day?" And slowly, through ever lessening disputes and enmities, the habit of communal thinking will form, and action for the most good to the most of you will inevitably follow.

Let us inspect our machinery. Here are grange, school, church and Ladies' Aid Society (with its library illustrating the advisability of placing lesser things under few main heads). Now add one other—an athletic organization—and there are tools enough.

We would fairly view our resources—social and material. Ladies' Aid Society—the story of its achievement is known to you all. One thing, follow the law; keep large. Have branches if you will, but rally about one organization. Then dare more; you have never failed. Church, school, amusements, roads, forestry, moral standards, politics—these and more are clearly in your field.

Grange—the same laws of organization will advance or punish you. Size alone gives power and stability; work for larger membership and the uniting of the small. Then attempt more. "These are words," you say, "and don't bulge pockets or stomachs." But there are really wide zones of home effort that you have not entered. For example, suppose the chestnut blight necessitates wholesale cutting. Appoint a committee to get, with government assistance, markets, specifications, prices, contracts, etc., for the duly estimated large cut; make money and time for each of you, and save money and time of the buyers. And stand by your representatives. Openly praise good work.

School—better education in this section you must have. The old district school did great work, but it is failing now, and more each year, mainly because attendance is so small. The solution is the central graded school. I know the unusual obstacles and difficulties here—no logical center, isolated valleys, poor roads and all; but you cannot retreat in the education of your children.

Church—the church will go on here, doing its beneficent work; but whether in its present places and ways, or drawn to centralize by the same quiet forces, will be determined later.

Play—more play is needed. Some of you smile (while your husbands look perturbed) and I know why. But the greatest peoples have been the greatest players. No surer proof of degeneration in a community than lack of sports. The wisest people in this country, studying to know how to do the rural sections most good, decide that more play, in groups, is a pressing need.

Our community should not again go without a baseball team. The interim of the past ten years has been unfortunate. The team organized under unpromising conditions in '87 perpetuated itself fifteen years, and was a large factor in carrying us through those lowest sagging times.

We have been canvassing the matter and find that by next year there will be enough small boys for a junior team and arrangements have been made. This day shall not end with talk. Support it as you do your grange or church; it is not trivial. And remember the rules of success; go widely into all the valleys for this team, and keep it large with branches and substitutes.



More play for all, then. I know you will think on this, and will say: "But there's too much to do," etc. Play has never yet in this country lessened the work product of a community—has rather always increased and bettered it. Business men are providing for it in their plants. Sitting, hesitating, "kicking," waiting—the fog and smother life. Activity of any kind has intrinsic value. More picnics then, and camping parties, coasting and skating, house games, boxing, croquet, sleigh rides, quoits, and little trips away for mothers.

Sanitation—the villages and the farms are now acknowledged to be behind in sanitation. Surely little can be accomplished in this line save through wide co-operative effort. Your neighbor, who refuses modern treatment of diphtheria and sends abroad a germ carrier, or who disobeys the strict rules in care of typhoid, kills your child or your young husband, miles away, almost like a murderer with a gun. In this matter you cannot longer sanction carelessness or excuse ignorance.

You note that we have ignored the material things—the land, roads, forests, etc. Are they not of basic importance? Yes; but are we not comparatively strong in these? The land is being restored to fertility.

Let us review and see if we are sane and fair. We are a second rate rural community—and may about as readily become third rate as first—depending not on politics or distant governments but on ourselves for the next two or three decades. The rest of rural America is advancing rapidly; it is not enough to advance a little here. Here is proven ability in the past ten years to rightly develop the lands and forests, to arrange the way for good roads and these various material things—to make livings and lay by something. But the message today is that these alone will not bring high success. These are but parts; and the harder task here is the patient years-long upbuilding of the social co-operative community; one that shall not only educate the children, but be so full of the best things in American life that many of them will stay, or come back, and taking our thinning hands say: "I've been around, and seen, and I'll live here alongside o' you." For after forty we live for the children and it is intrinsically wrong for the individual and the nation to be so much separated.

Here in these hills, despite our dreams, ambitions and occasional outbursts—*here* nearly all of us will stay out life. Here we opened baby eyes to the clear sky. Here we shall go on playing, working, loving, marrying.

If there is any place on earth worth while for us it is **HERE**.



"HERE WE SHALL GO ON"

### SOUTHERN BOYS IN CIVIC WORK

LeROY HODGES

Secretary, Winston-Salem Board of Trade

Although it is not the first commercial organization in this country to stand out boldly and announce that it believes real city building is possible only through conscious and intelligent civic effort, there are few that accentuate this phase of civic work as does the Winston-Salem, N. C., Board of Trade. This organization is one of the first in the South to conduct its work on such a basis. Maintaining that a commercial organization does not perform its full legitimate functions unless it makes an effort to advance the social conditions of the people, the Winston-Salem Board of Trade has sought to organize the boys of the city into a militant body for the improvement of general civic conditions.

This has been accomplished by the formation of a department known as the Juvenile Club of the Winston-Salem Board of Trade, in which membership is restricted to boys between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years. To become a member of this club each boy is required to memorize the Athenian oath, which is as follows:

"We will never bring disgrace to this, our city, by any act of dishonesty or cowardice, nor ever desert our suffering comrades in the ranks; we will fight for the ideals and sacred things of the city both alone and with many; we will revere and obey the city's laws and do our best to incite a like respect and reverence in those above us who are prone to annul or to set them at naught; we will strive unceasingly to quicken the public sense of civic duty. Thus, in all these ways we will transmit this city not less, but greater, better and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us."

After a boy has appeared before the secretary of the Board of Trade and recited this oath he is presented with a certificate of membership, which states that the holder, having memorized



☐ WINSTON-SALEM BOARD OF TRADE ☐

## Juvenile Club

### CERTIFICATE OF MEMBERSHIP

*This is to certify that* \_\_\_\_\_

having memorized and subscribed to the oath of the patriotic youth of ancient Athens, which is recited on the reverse side of this Certificate, has been duly enrolled as a member of the JUVENILE CLUB of the WINSTON-SALEM BOARD OF TRADE and is entitled to all the privileges of such membership so long as he shall prove true to his obligations

Number \_\_\_\_\_ Pres. \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Sec'y \_\_\_\_\_

### JUVENILE MEMBERSHIP CARD

and subscribed to the oath of the patriotic youth of ancient Athens, has been enrolled as a member of the Juvenile Club of the Winston-Salem Board of Trade and is entitled to all the privileges thereof so long as he shall prove true to his obligations.

Regular meetings for the boys are held under the direction of the secretary of the Board of Trade where city problems are explained and debated. Members of the Juvenile Club also have the privilege of attending all the regular meetings of the Board of Trade and see at first hand how the work of the organization is carried on. They are assigned special committee work, and are encouraged in every way possible to take an active and intelligent part in the affairs of the city.

The popularity of this new departure in commercial organization work which is being undertaken by the Winston-Salem Board of Trade is only another indication of the economic revolution going on in the southern states. It is significant as indicating along what lines the new South is developing.

### JOTTINGS

#### HOUSING ASSOCIATION FOR PENNSYLVANIA

As the result of correspondence among charity and philanthropic workers in various cities and towns throughout Pennsylvania in regard to housing and sanitary conditions existing in the commonwealth, a state housing conference was held in Philadelphia last month. There were 135 delegates in attendance, of whom eighty-three were from societies outside of Philadelphia. Before the program, which consisted of two sessions with speeches by Lawrence Veiller of the National Housing Association, W. D. C. Bliss, Mildred Chadsey of the Bureau of Sanitation in Cleveland, J. Horace McFarland of the American Civic Association, and George W. Norris of the Philadelphia Housing Commission, was finished, speakers rose from the floor to present resolutions. One of the first of these provided for the organization of the conference into a state housing association and the appointment of a committee with power to elect the board of directors and other officers.

In response to the protest of a member of the general assembly, who was in attendance, that he had not received a definite suggestion as to

what the assembly could do to improve conditions, a resolution was presented and adopted calling for the presentation of an act to the legislature giving wider power to boards of health, to establish original sanitary inspection services, to condemn insanitary houses and to prevent their occupancy, to fumigate all houses after the tenants have moved before they could be re-rented.

The organization committee appointed by J. Horace McFarland, chairman of the second session of the conference, has taken the first steps for the strengthening of the State Housing Association and the act called for by the conference has been drafted and will be presented by the state association to the General Assembly.

#### A CIVIC REVIVAL IN PORTSMOUTH, N. H.

An uprising engineered by a Citizen's Committee against the lax enforcement in Portsmouth, N. H., of the laws relating to disorderly houses has borne quick results. Three months ago the committee undertook to rid the city of eleven notorious resorts which were operated within the city without the interference of the police authorities. The Bureau of Municipal and Social Service of the People's Institute was at the same time engaged to make a survey of some of the social problems of the community. The mayor of the city, who was also a member of the survey committee, undertook to call to the attention of the local police commission the facts relating to the unenforcement of the laws. The mayor's offer was ignored by commissioners, and the agents of the Bureau of Municipal and Social Service were instructed to secure evidence that "would hold in court" and which would reveal the local conditions. This evidence under the direction of Carol Aronovici, the director of the bureau, was secured and submitted by the committee to the governor of the state and the attorney general. An inquiry into the administration of the police commission, which is appointed by the governor and council, was ordered while the attorney general took steps to close the resorts and prosecute their keepers. As a result eight of the keepers of disorderly houses have been indicted, three have left the city, the city marshal and one of the police commissioners have resigned, while the chairman held over so as to be able to act on the marshal's resignation. The mayor, who undertook to improve conditions, running solely on the moral issue, was re-elected by a substantial majority.

#### LECTURE TOUR OF EWART G. CULPIN

Arrangements are being made by Edward E. Pratt, 225 Fifth Avenue, New York, in co-operation with George B. Ford, lecturer on city planning at Columbia University, and Flavel Shurtleff, secretary of the National Conference on City Planning, for a lecture tour by Ewart G. Culpin, secretary of the Garden Cities and Town Planning Association of Great Britain. Mr. Culpin will be in the United States until March 1.





THE PUNCHBOWL DISPENSARY AT HONOLULU, HAWAII

A public welfare exhibit which was conducted by the Palama Settlement with the co-operation of the thirteen other social service agencies showed the need of remedying such insanitary conditions as dark living rooms below the street level. Some of these children come from such homes.

## HEALTH

EACH fresh statement that some scientist has discovered a specific cure for tuberculosis is hailed with enthusiasm by the daily press and the statements made about it are as naively optimistic as if such announcements had not been made almost every year since Koch's discovery of the tubercle bacillus.

The principle underlying these professed cures—we are speaking only of the genuine efforts of scientists, not of fake cures—is that the body has the power to form substances antagonistic to the germs of disease, and that it is stimulated to do this by the presence of these germs. Now if there is in a diseased person an insufficient production of such substances—anti-bodies they are called—it may be possible to increase their production by injecting the special germs, but these last must of course be rendered as harmless as possible. Thus we may use the powdered bodies of bacteria or more often germs killed by heat or by chemicals. Such "vaccines," as they are now called, have been used successfully in the case of chronic suppuration. Even more numerous have been the efforts to ensure protection against infection through the formation of these anti-bodies.

Endless attempts have been made to produce the right vaccine for tuberculosis, a tubercle bacillus so modified that it will stimulate the formation of anti-bodies and yet will not light up a tuberculous process in a healthy person, or add fuel to the flame in a consumptive pa-

tient. Koch's original tuberculin was expected to do this, and the disappointment following its use was widespread. Since then many tuberculins have been tried and several of them are in use at the present day, having proved to be of decided, but never of universal value.

\* \* \*

NOW comes the announcement of a new tuberculin discovered by Dr. Frederick Franz Friedman of Berlin. Eight years ago he reported that he was having great success with a tuberculin made of bacilli from cold-blooded animals (turtles) supposedly harmless for man. His new tuberculin is said to consist of living bacilli—their source is unrevealed—rendered harmless by a secret process. Friedman and other physicians claim to have used it on 1,182 cases, including 325 children.

The Berlin Medical Society, before which the paper was read, criticized Friedman for his secrecy on the ground that it savors of charlatanism, and makes it impossible to check up his results. The society also scored Friedman for his inoculation of living germs in healthy children, because it is impossible, the members believe, to control the virulence of germs. What was once a harmless strain may at any time change to a virulent one. They found that Friedman's cases had not been carefully followed up, and that he had not proved that his tuberculin was more efficient than other varieties of tuberculin.



SENATOR Gore of Oklahoma, has introduced into the Senate, a resolution which, if passed, will enable the United States Public Health Service to send a small committee of scientists to Berlin to investigate and report upon Dr. Friedman's tuberculosis serum. A preliminary official examination of this "cure" has been ordered by the State Department, through Consul General Thackara. Senator Gore has stated his purpose as follows:

"It is my idea that our most competent medical authorities could look into this matter at once with entirely unprejudiced minds. If it is actually true that a tuberculosis cure has been discovered, the discovery is of the utmost importance. In my judgment the matter should not be left to theorists or be permitted to become the property of high-priced specialists. If there is a consumption cure within the reach of the world, the people ought to have it quickly, and it should be brought within the reach of the poorest and most unfortunate."

\* \* \*

DULUTH has recently passed an ordinance to regulate the sale of narcotic drugs, which aims to embody the best features of the ordinances in force in other cities, and to correct their mistakes. The draft of this ordinance was passed upon by Dr. Harvey W. Wiley and Dr. George W. Goler. It is expected to serve as a model for cities or states which are contemplating legislation to control this evil.

Some years ago Hull House was drawn into a campaign against the illicit sale of cocaine because of the discovery of a number of youthful cocaine habitués, and was obliged to carry its cases into court under a faulty ordinance. It may be of interest to mention the admitted weaknesses in the Chicago act, which has since been replaced by a state law, so that the advantages of the Duluth ordinance may be better appreciated. In the first place the Chicago law did not make clear the responsibility of the druggist for his clerk's actions. For the druggist to be convicted he must have made the sale himself, which he very rarely did. The Duluth law forbids a pharmacist to make the sale through an agent. The Chicago law did not attempt to control in any way the writing of prescriptions for narcotics or the filling of such prescriptions. The Duluth law requires that the prescription be kept on file, filled only once and that no copy of it be furnished. This makes it expensive for a drug fiend to obtain cocaine or morphine through unscrupulous physicians. An attempt is made to exert some control over the doctor by a section forbidding him to give such prescriptions save as legitimate practice requires.

Hull House had endless trouble trying to convict runners and street peddlers, who would be arrested with dozens of boxes of cocaine on their persons, but who could not be convicted unless it could be proved that they had actually tried to sell it. Mere possession of any narcotic drug under the Duluth law is *prima facie* evidence of a violation of the ordinance, unless the person can prove that it was legitimately ob-

tained. Another feature of the law is that requiring a permit from the health commissioner, good for one year only, for hospitals, sanatoria and nurses, to keep narcotic drugs for medical purposes. This is not because such persons are likely to misuse the drugs but the issuing of a permit to them makes it easier to convict people who have no permit.

One great difficulty which Hull House experienced came from the fact that the Chicago law did not cover the more recently discovered narcotics, even by a blanket clause. This led the defendants to insist that the material found was alpha- or beta-eucain, and not cocaine, which of course necessitated the services of an expert in court. One particularly clever druggist used to testify that what he sold was a mixture of eucain with atropine and benzoate of soda, a compound calculated to make the experts' work much harder, for the benzoate of soda would account for the principal chemical reaction given by cocaine, and the atropine would account for the dilatation of the pupil. Eucain does not dilate the pupil, while cocaine does. All this meant that every specimen had to be carefully tested on the human eye, and a note made not only as to the anaesthetic effect, which might be caused by eucain, but also the blanching of the lining of the lids, not caused by eucain, and the rapidly disappearing dilatation of the pupil, in contrast to the more lasting effect of atropine. Such expert testing and testifying are quite unnecessary under the Duluth law, which includes the cocaine-like bodies, chloral hydrate, and the derivatives of opium, such as heroin, that new habit-forming narcotic.

Another effective provision is the inclusion of catarrh remedies marked for external use only, and containing cocaine, for it is well known that the cocaine habit has often had its beginning in the innocent use of catarrh remedies.

The only feature which physicians and social workers, who are anxious to see effective anti-narcotic ordinances passed, are at all inclined to criticise is the lack of a severe penalty for frequent offenders. A fine of \$100 they fear may be found to be a trifling matter to some of the druggists and they urge that while it is right to prescribe a light punishment for the first offense, which may have been inadvertent, the penalty for repeated offenses should be not only a fine, but a jail sentence.

\* \* \*

IN a recent 'number of THE SURVEY' an account was given of two cases of wood alcohol poisoning in workmen who had been engaged in varnishing the inside of beer vats. One man died, the other became totally blind, and this after only three days' exposure.

In 1903 Dr. Casey A. Wood of Chicago and the late Dr. Frank Buller of Montreal, published the history of the cases of alcohol poisoning which had occurred up to that date. There were in all 275 instances of death or blindness or both directly traceable to drinking wood alcohol or inhaling its fumes. In an article for the *Journal of*

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, November 23, 1912, p. 211.



the American Medical Association for November 30, Dr. Wood reviews the subject afresh and favors legislation forbidding the use of "purified," that is deodorized, wood alcohol, "because it serves no purpose that denatured grain alcohol will not serve and because its existence is everywhere and at all times a menace to public health. It looks, tastes and smells so much like grain alcohol that its very existence must ever be a challenge to life and sight."

Thirty years ago poisoning from wood alcohol was almost unknown because the taste and odor was so repugnant that no one thought of drinking it, but in 1890 the deodorized product was put on the market under the names "Columbian Spirits," "Colonial Spirits," "Purified Wood Alcohol," "Eagle Spirits" and others. Various claims were made for it. It was declared to be a cheap and harmless substitute for grain alcohol, absolutely non-poisonous. The first cases of poisoning that appeared in medical literature were of men who had drunk wood alcohol in cheap whiskey for which it was used as an adulterant. Such cases are still reported from time to time.

We all remember the instance of wholesale poisoning from adulterated "Schnapps" which occurred in Berlin last Christmas in a municipal shelter involving 161 inmates, seventy-one of whom died from the effects. So unfamiliar were the German physicians with this poison that they attributed the trouble to decomposed sausage and the cases were so reported at first.

Later on instances of industrial poisoning began to be reported in which blindness had resulted from inhaling the fumes of wood alcohol. The dealers in "Columbian Spirits" and other forms of the deodorized product receded from their first position as to its harmless nature when taken internally, but they and the makers of varnishes in which this is the solvent still deny that poisoning can come from the inhalation of fumes. However, the evidence of physicians on this point is unanimous.

\* \* \*

**I**N addition to the cases already reported in THE SURVEY Dr. Wood gives the following four instances:

"Gustav K., twenty-one years old, went to work for a contracting varnisher in New York the week before Thanksgiving, 1911. He worked Thursday, Friday and Saturday, November 23, 24 and 25. He was then laid off until Monday, December 4.

"An older brother of Gustav was also hired, beginning Monday. Two other men and these two brothers were the only men working on the job. They had to crawl through a small opening into the vats, which were twelve or fifteen feet high, closed, dark and airless, except for slight ventilation through the small openings. The former employer of the two brothers had used a small machine run by a dynamo for blowing out bad and sending good air into the vats. Such an engine costs about \$65 and, in the opinion of Gustav K., he became blind because the employer would not spend anything on ventilators.

"Gustav K. worked Monday and Tuesday, December 4 and 5. On Monday, after coming out of the vat, he felt dizzy. On Tuesday, after arriving home, his mother remarked that he walked as if he were intoxicated. Wednesday morning he tried to go to work but had to come back before getting on the car. A physician was consulted twice but because he could not afford to pay the fee, the patient went to the Ophthalmic and Aural Institute on Tuesday, the 12th. When he entered the hospital he could not see at all. On Friday, the 15th, he could see just enough to get about the room in the hospital.

"The older son worked through Wednesday, the 6th (one day longer), and then showed some of the symptoms of poisoning, reeling, headache, etc., but no more serious effects.

"The two men who had worked with the brothers continued through Wednesday. Both were poisoned; one died on Thursday and the other on Saturday."

Dr. Wood insists that our deodorized wood alcohol possesses no advantage over the British "methylated spirits" or our own denatured grain alcohol, which is as cheap or cheaper. Methylated spirits is a combination of grain alcohol with 10 per cent. of wood alcohol. It is extensively used in Great Britain, and not a single case of acute poisoning or blindness is recorded from its use. The German *Brennsprit* is a grain alcohol made undrinkable by the addition of disagreeable substances whose fumes are harmless.

\* \* \*

**I**T is very difficult to give a novel, dramatic, interest-awakening tone to an appeal for proper birth registration. In spite of cartoons and moving pictures, it seems impossible to get rid of the slight mustiness and dryness which clings to this subject and makes people turn from it to the more varied and obviously fascinating branches of child study. Dr. Cressy L. Wilbur put the matter picturesquely before the American Statistical Association.<sup>1</sup> "Vital statistics is the Cinderella of modern public hygiene. She sits in the chimney corner and sifts the ashes of dusty figures while her proud sisters, Bacteriology and Preventive Medicine, go to the ball and talk about the wonderful things they have done. But the prince's slipper fits no other foot and when we descend to facts, and not mere empty bombast about the results of administrative work, vital statistics and accurate vital statistics are our sole dependence. What do we know about infant mortality which we are all so anxious to prevent, when not a single state or city in the United States has the data for a correct statement?"

A recent report on vital statistics and health reports of New York City by the Public Health, Hospital and Budget Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine gives a depressing picture of birth registration in one of our few registration cities. Not only is it criticized as incomplete as to numbers but the system is declared to be altogether imperfect. "The demographic

<sup>1</sup>See quarterly publications of the American Statistical Association, Vol. 10, p. 419.



tables of this city present the minimum of information necessary for general administrative purposes. They are utterly inadequate as a guide for social or legislative action and are of little use for scientific purposes.

"The unique opportunity scientific men have for medicosociological studies in this city with its large variety of racial elements, diversity of occupations, and habits of life, has never been exploited. In spite of the much discussed question of so-called 'race suicide,' no numerical studies of this phenomenon have been made in this city. The fecundity of marriage among the various racial and economic elements of the population; the distribution of stillbirths among the various social classes; the effect of illegitimacy on infant mortality; the influence of

the age of the parents upon the vitality of their children; the effect of consanguinity upon the fertility of marriage; infantile diseases in relation to the age and occupation of parents; births in relation to occupation of mothers; the relation of mortality to the density of population; the proportion of males and females at birth in relation to the ages of parents, their race and economic status; all these and many other matters of vital interest have never been studied nor current beliefs regarding them put to a statistical test."

These are questions we should all like to hear authoritatively answered, but this is impossible without that fundamental necessity, a proper system of birth registration. Dr. Urie's paper on the subject on this page is timely.

## BIRTH REGISTRATION

JOHN F. URIE, M. D.

HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO

We are living at a time of unusual endeavor for the rebuilding of our social structures. Everywhere there is evidence of a slow but general awakening to the fact that the old edifices no longer shelter all men with equal protection. Philanthropy, politics, and business are all tinkering with the remodeling. But unfortunately, though humanly, we more often than not direct our efforts to the parts of our structure most in evidence, without investigating all the adjacent supports upon which its stability depends.

The effort to safeguard child life is a conspicuous example in point. We are justly proud of our public school system. As a part of this system we have compulsory education laws, and every law, as a fundamental provision, establishes a minimum age under which a child may not enter school and a maximum which fixes the period at which he may cease going to school. But unfortunately for the operation of the law, there is no way throughout our broad land of authentically establishing the age of the child. Practically no law exists in any state whose provisions are adequate to bring about a registration of all its births. Of what use then is it to fix the limits of age for compulsory education unless we first build a foundation of effective birth registration?

Co-ordinate with educational laws are the laws regulating child labor. Again, of what avail is the best planned law possible, if there be no previous legal provision for establishing the age of the child. An effective birth registration law is the foundation upon which all regulation of child labor must rest. Only a few days ago, a little lad came before me for physical examination. He gave his age as eighteen years, but his appearance was that of a boy of twelve. There was nothing in his physique to suggest a retarded development. Three years ago when he had been put to work, the word of his mother established his age. He was then probably not much over ten, and was taken from school and

made to work in defiance of two laws. Think of the struggle it has taken to place the child labor laws we have on the statute books and how easily that effort may be nullified for want of a little forethought about birth registration.

The International Congress of Hygiene and Demography met a few weeks ago in Washington and its proceedings were given unusual notice by both the newspaper and magazine press of the country. How many readers caught the significance of the title of the society? We are all familiar with the word hygiene and what it stands for, but demography is quite an unusual term. Jane Addams, in an address to some of the foreign delegates of the congress who were visiting Chicago, said that the word made her feel that something would be accomplished under such a title—it sounded as if it stood for big things. And so it does, for demography is the science of vital statistics, and is the base on which we must build much of our structural work for social betterment. The first and most important division of this science of demography is birth registration.

The federal government has lately added a Children's Bureau to the Department of Commerce and Labor to safeguard child life and welfare in the United States. The very initial activity of this bureau must necessarily be retarded for want of efficient birth registration throughout the states, for all effort to guard the rights and welfare of the child must have behind it authoritative evidence of the child's age and a record of the number of children born. Almost nowhere in this country is this evidence and record available. Some few cities, such as Boston and New York, obtain through the administration of their health departments an enforcement of their state laws which brings in a fairly large percentage of births to the registrar's office. But no state or municipality can boast of a complete registration of its births. The map shown on page 517 illustrates the practical absence of real birth registration in our country. Even





#### REGISTRATION AREA FOR BIRTHS

In 1911 the states shown in black on this map had registration acceptable to the federal Census Bureau but they possessed no machinery for collecting the records of all their births. The almost unbroken expanse of white stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific shows the practical absence of real birth registration in this country.

the states depicted as having registration that is acceptable to the federal Census Bureau have not the machinery to collect the records of all their births.

In the administration of many of the laws and provisions devised to safeguard the individual in the affairs of life, mere statement is accepted where official documentary evidence should be required. If this evidence were required—and by such action only is efficient administration possible—an individual in the process of physical and social development would need a birth certificate at the following important milestones of his career: the christening, entrance into school, leaving school, beginning work, becoming of age, voting, getting married, possibly holding public office, death and burial. Questions of inheritance and identity, the proof of citizenship, the establishment of the age of consent are incidents of life in which birth registration would have a practical value, and to meet the requirements of travel, education and residence in a foreign country a birth certificate, if not always necessary, is frequently a valuable aid.

It would be interesting to know why we, as a people, should be so indifferent to a subject that is of such vital importance to our offspring. In most of the older countries of the world, and in some younger than ours, birth registration has been so long an established institution of government that their people cannot realize a condition without it. With us, a want of understanding of the value of registration and a belief that it is peculiarly an affair of the medical profession is probably at the bottom of our apathy. To arouse public interest in the subject and to teach that it is purely a social and not a medical one should be in the program of every movement for public welfare. We owe that much, at least, to the success of our efforts as a nation for child welfare as expressed in the establishment of the Children's Bureau of the Department of Commerce and Labor.

#### AMERICAN RED CROSS RURAL NURSING

FANNIE F. CLEMENT  
Superintendent Red Cross Rural Nurses

The Red Cross has recently entered a new field of work by undertaking to establish a nursing service for rural districts in the United States. Hitherto there has been in this country no adequately organized service of nursing to cover fields such as are reached by the Queen's Jubilee Institute in Great Britain, and the Victorian Order of Nurses in Canada, and in only a few instances have the advantages of city nursing associations been extended to farming communities.

The organization of the Rural Nursing Service is made possible by a generous gift of \$5,000 annually from Jacob H. Schiff, and another of \$1,000 from Mrs. Whitelaw Reid. These sums are to meet central administrative expenses. The plan of the service outlined is tentative and the extent and ultimate policies of the work will be determined by future developments.

The following have been appointed a Committee on Rural Nursing: Mabel T. Boardman, chairman; Jane A. Delano, vice-chairman; Lillian D. Wald, head worker Henry Street Settlement, New York; Mrs. William K. Draper, New York; Mrs. Whitelaw Reid; Annie W. Goodrich, inspector of training schools for nurses in New York state; Wickliffe Rose, administrative secretary Rockefeller Sanitary Commission; John M. Glenn, director Russell Sage Foundation; Dr. Winford Smith, superintendent Johns Hopkins Hospital.

The service aims to provide nurses for the sick in rural communities, to carry instruction along sanitary and humanitarian lines into the homes and to deal with environment in a way to improve living conditions. It stands ready to furnish all possible assistance to communities which are looking for qualified rural nurses, to those which realize the advantages of a nurse but need



advice as to ways and means for her support, and to those regions where it will doubtless appear necessary to demonstrate more fully the need of a nurse. It hopes to co-operate with all organizations relating to questions of individual and public health.

The unlimited opportunities for humanitarian and educational work to be found in rural communities will appeal to nurses who understand and enjoy country life and people, and who are interested in public health movements and social service. It is hoped that a response to a call for this work will come from visiting nurses throughout the country, from enrolled Red Cross nurses, from private duty nurses who look for a broader field of activity, and from undergraduates whose choice has not yet been made.

Red Cross rural nurses must in general meet the requirements of the Red Cross for enrollment, and must also have had training or experience in a visiting nursing association or some other form of social service. As preparation for the work, arrangements have been made for a short course of training with certain visiting nursing associations, and a loan fund is provided by the Red Cross in connection with this course, available to a limited number of nurses.

In order to establish and maintain a high standard of nursing, the Red Cross will retain general direction and supervision of its rural nurses, but this will not interfere with their responsibility to the local committee or organization representing the Red Cross in the community, under which the local work will be conducted.

#### SEWAGE POLLUTION IN NEW YORK HARBOR

After a thorough canvass of the question of the permissible limits of sewage pollution in New York harbor, the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission has adopted recommendations, which allow for a limited amount of sewage in the upper harbor, provided such discharge is not offensive to the senses, nor dangerous to navigation or health.

In the current number of the *American Journal of Public Health*, Dr. George A. Soper gives the results of the findings of a symposium of experts and the recommendations of the commission.

Practically all of the eight experts agreed that so far as sickness was concerned the present condition of the harbor was not a serious menace to health. The epidemiologist stated, however, that in his opinion strong reasons existed for keeping the harbor clean. He considered that the amount of disease and death directly produced would not be a proper measure of the objectionable state of the harbor's waters but conditions which offended the senses, of the existence of which he saw abundant evidence, should also be taken carefully into account, for such conditions indirectly lead to disease. The civil engineer pointed out that while many lives probably could be saved and much ill health alleviated by reducing the pollution, it was possibly still more important to consider the question

of a clean harbor from the standpoint of what was suitable and appropriate on the score of cleanliness. It was a case where civilization demanded a remedy on the score of what was necessary for the comfort, happiness and welfare of the public.

There was a preponderance of opinion among the experts that it would not be practicable to keep the waters of the inner harbor clean enough to make bathing entirely safe, but it was held to be both feasible and desirable to maintain bathing places near the sea, and within easy reach by the public, in satisfactory condition. Because some bathing was likely to occur in the populous parts of the harbor in spite of any restrictions which might be made, and because the shores were certain to be crowded with human beings engaged in gainful occupations or seeking the water-front for relaxation and fresh air, the hygienists and others thought the water along the shores ought to be kept as clean as practicable.

On the strength of these various opinions, the commission has officially recommended the following specific requirements:

"Garbage, offal or solid matter recognizable as of sewage origin shall not be visible in any of the harbor waters.

"Marked discoloration or turbidity, due to sewage or trade wastes, effervescence, oily sleek, odor or deposits shall not occur except perhaps in the immediate vicinity of sewer outfalls, and then only to such an extent and in such places as may be permitted by the authority having jurisdiction over the sanitary condition of the harbor.

"The discharge of sewage shall not materially contribute to the formation of deposits injurious to navigation.

"The quality of the water at points suitable for bathing and oyster culture should conform substantially as to bacterial purity to a drinking water standard. It is not practicable to maintain so high a standard in any part of the harbor north of the Narrows, or in the Arthur Kill. In the lower bay and elsewhere, bathing and the taking of shell-fish cannot be considered free from danger of disease within a mile of a sewer outfall."

#### JOTTINGS

##### FOREST CAMPS FOR TUBERCULOSIS PATIENTS

Forest camps in the heart of the public reserve for persons convalescing from tuberculosis or threatened with that disease, were suggested recently by E. M. Griffith, the state forester, in an address before the Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association. Mr. Griffith proposed that the state board of forestry should set aside several thousand acres of dry, pine clad land bordering on one or more lakes where patients might spend the greater part of the year and be provided with light work which would make them at least partially self-supporting.

The forestry board, Mr. Griffith said, might employ the patients in its nurseries and in planting trees. This work could be graduated to suit the strength of convalescents in accordance

(Continued on page 536.)



# CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

## SEEING CLEVELAND

E. S. CLAFLIN

The old Greek proverb, "Know Thyself," so long applied intensively, is getting a wider application in our modern social awakening. If it is important for the individual to know himself, it is also important for the city to know itself. A city is not a big, inert lump of humanity, but a living organism with a will and a purpose. Such self-conscious direction can only come through a knowledge of itself. First of all, the facts must be scientifically dug out of the general blur and massed before the people. Getting these facts into the heads of the citizens is the first step toward intelligent community action.

### 200 SALOONS INVESTIGATED



63.5 per cent had family entrances.



93 per cent had small tables about which men could sit and read.



89 per cent offered some social features, and 11 per cent were merely drinking places.



12 per cent of saloon keepers act as bankers for the people of the community.



Women and girls found in 37 per cent of the saloons.

THE SALOON AS A SOCIAL AGENCY IN CLEVELAND  
January 18, 1913.

## "Seeing Cleveland"

—at, the—

**Presbyterian Exhibit**

—in the—

**Chamber of Commerce  
Auditorium**

**ADMISSION FREE**

Experts have been studying the forces at work for human betterment in our city. Their findings, in an amazing array of photographs, diagrams, charts and statistics, will be on free Exhibition Today and Tomorrow in the Chamber of Commerce Auditorium. Every alert citizen, regardless of religious affiliations, should see this informing and interesting display.

THE FACTS about the foreigners.

THE FACTS, good and bad, about living conditions.

THE FACTS about the children.

THE FACTS about Churches, Schools, Theaters, Saloons, etc.

THE FACTS about Cleveland as compared with Seventy other American cities.

Popular, yet scientific; interesting, yet accurate.

ALSO THE FACTS—in the large and in detail—concerning the Presbyterian Church in Cleveland.

**500 Men at a  
Supper Tonight**

**500 Women at a  
Luncheon Tomorrow.**

Exhibit open Wednesday from 9:00 to 3:00. Thursday, 9:00 to 11:00—3:00 to 6:00.

**Chamber of Commerce Auditorium**

A NEWSPAPER AD.—HOW CLEVELAND WAS TOLD:  
"KNOW THYSELF"

The first large scale work of this sort to be done in Cleveland has been accomplished by the Federated Churches, a federation of the Protestant forces in Cleveland organized two years ago. Charts and maps were prepared by experts showing the constant drift of foreign populations from one district to another, the living conditions in the congested sections of the city, the religious and social organizations at work, and the numbers and ages of the criminal and delinquent classes. These charts and maps were studied and discussed by ministers, laymen and social workers.

Another exhibit on a larger scale was prepared as a feature of church and city week by the Extension Committee of the Presbyterian Church in Cleveland. This exhibit presented a great array of facts, not only concerning the social conditions, but also statistics presented in an attractive way showing the history and status of every Presbyterian church in the city, with photographs of buildings, pastors, and officers.



The exhibit was given in the Chamber of Commerce Building situated in the heart of the city. Six by ten inch advertisements were run in the newspapers for two days with the headline "Seeing Cleveland," the largest advertising space ever taken by a church in that city.

It is evident that at least one denomination is beginning to find itself, like the ship in Kipling's story. Cleveland has turned foreign, to the extent of 76 per cent. The Associated Charities last year aided families from no less than seventeen foreign countries. The Public Library circulated 142,206 books printed in foreign languages. Foreign mission work is right here in Cleveland at our very doors. The changing population has affected the church so that 30 per cent of the Presbyterian churches report less members now than at some time in the past. The reason given is the "influx of foreigners." The city is growing rapidly; there was an increase of 52 per cent in the last decade, and the population is now about 700,000. It is evident that the church must change its methods to meet these new conditions.

One of the interesting features of the exhibit was a large number of photographs of children of the streets, tenements, back yards, etc., which are not to be found on picture postal cards.

As to results, this exhibit has certainly done something to help the church to know the city and to help the city to know the church. They should know each other in order to co-operate. The church cannot retire to some sheltered suburb and save its own soul. Its main business is to redeem the city, foreigners and all, from everything that makes living hard and goodness difficult. The church must cease the idolatry of the accession column, think less about building up itself and more about building up the community.

Among the results of the survey so far attained are a campaign of education now being conducted in different churches with the help of the exhibit charts; the raising of \$20,000 for church extension and work among foreigners, for the support of which an equal amount is to be secured annually. Other denominations profiting by the example of the Presbyterians have begun to hold similar exhibits, the Methodists being the first to follow.

#### RE-POSSESSING AN OLD CITY PARISH I

It is refreshing to have a halt called in the flight of parish churches away from their original parishes, by such a high hearted summons as the Rev. Henry Mottet issues to the Church of the Holy Communion to re-possess its old down-town field in New York. Of that changed field he thus frankly speaks:

"Our immediate vicinage supports lavishly three distinctly immoral theaters, a score of nickel and dime shows—all of them bad, dancing academies so-called, pool rooms, family entrance saloons and 'Raines Law Hotels.' It is the comforting and pious fashion among some religious people to sit in

judgment on all who give any kind of support to these dens of iniquity. For one I refuse to be reckoned among these critics. All these condemned people crave change. Probably they need change a thousand fold more than do their condemners. I am satisfied that the Master would not stand aloof and ignore such conditions, and that he would not, as a *preliminary*, demand of the municipal authorities to withdraw the licenses from each of these places. He would study that social craving—that heaven-instilled instinct—and he would satisfy it with meat for the people.

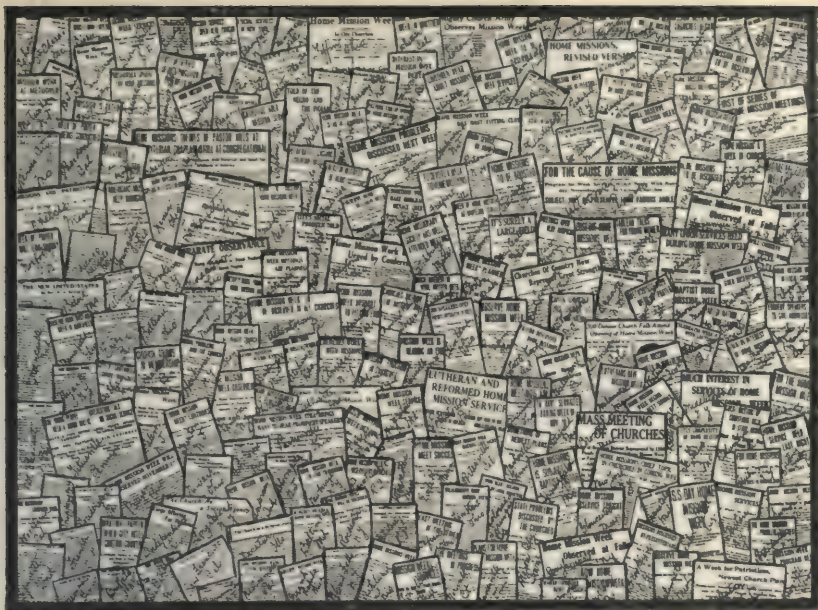
"I realize sometimes with humiliation, that many of the untoward conditions of my neighborhood might at least be modified, if not even very greatly improved upon, provided the church under my care were in such relationship to the people as would be the Father's were he now among us. As the result of a house to house canvassing comes the revelation of the fact that the church is, in deplorably many instances, a negligible quantity. On the other hand, I am convinced of the fact that if these self-same people came in direct contact with the personality of the Master, he would command the best of their interest and their attention. They are not bad, they are only waiting for the quickening touch of a divine hand. If a certain type of man comes among them—one who unconsciously convinces that he is disinterested—who can read, and interpret the yearnings and aspirations of the people—who impresses them as being one with them—who inspires and wins their confidence and affection and reverence—all the people involuntarily flock to him—heed him and follow him."

Like Dr. Chalmers, when looking down upon the district which needed him most in all Glasgow, Mr. Mottet seems to regard this situation as "a glorious prospect." Instead of lamenting its location as a mistake in the past or at the present, he asserts that

"had its great founder, Dr. Muhlenberg, been endowed with a divine vision, he could not have chosen the site of the church with greater wisdom. Excepting perhaps Trinity and Grace Churches, there is none today on Manhattan Island so favorably situated to get hold of the greatest number of people every day and every night throughout the whole year."

To assure "the permanency of the church for all time in its present location," is the foremost step in the four-fold plan of the rector. And he is grateful for "the privilege granted to this generation to determine the permanency of the church." Instead of substituting a mission for a church, in order by the sale of its site, to build a fine new edifice elsewhere, the second feature of this plan for permanency is to make the present church site finer in order to meet the greater needs of the changed population. He says:





#### A BIT OF RELIGIOUS ADVERTISING

How the Home Mission Campaign, culminating in Home Mission week last November, bore striking testimony to the public function of religion, was described in this department at the time. Here are a few of the clippings from the campaign. Six hundred thousand posters 22 x 28 inches were sent to Protestant ministers. A weekly bulletin was furnished to leaders in every city. The central office corresponded with 2,500 cities of 2,500 or over.

"The undertaking now nearly completed the church in its appeal to the sense of the beautiful and in its interpretation of the majesty of God, the very noblest and most uplifting that can be devised by the heart and the art of the most skilled, backed up by a commensurate generosity. The men of this generation will pass on to the people of our part of the city a church edifice that should stand forever as the best they could devise."

It is also planned to have the church thrown open every week night throughout the year, in order that the people may hear the most beautiful music. As a pledge of faith in this project, which will be consummated as soon as there is sufficient endowment to maintain it, a new organ has recently been placed in the church. It is the rector's belief, based upon some tests already made, that the church can be filled every night, "provided the organist is one of God's prophets, who speaks God through the organ."

A social service house is another feature of this plan. The great auditorium is to offer nightly counter attractions to the immoral theater and moving picture show; its educational and recreational facilities, crowned by a roof garden, enclosed with glass and heated for winter use, are "to interpret the church to the people in such a manner that the church will command a respectful, kindly, and reverent hearing." Mr. Mottet goes on:

"Adding all this to the Sunday ministrations of the church—with its frequent services—none of them as a rule exceeding one hour in length—maintaining a high standard of efficiency in a staff of consecrated, devoted clergy and sisters—all of them con-

stantly in and among the people—utilizing, as the case may demand, the hospital, the asylum and the orphanage, the house for the aged and the fresh air work—helpful whenever and wherever the Master would prove helpful among the self-same people, it is my profound conviction that the church will advance toward the attitude that must win back the respect and reverence and affection of all those whom Jesus loved and for whom he died."

Although in good part realized already, Mr. Mottet calls the plan in its entirety a dream, yet he reminds himself and his people that sixty-five years ago St. Luke's Hospital was nothing more. For then it was that Dr. Muhlenberg outlined his dream plan for it to his parish and in response got a collection of only \$30. And yet there stands "the first and greatest church hospital." So may this new vision for an old parish soon stand realized as "the bond between God our Father and all his children."

#### ONE CHURCH FOR SEVERAL CONGREGATIONS

The multiplication of denominational "houses" and church buildings at or near universities is arousing new fears and new hopes. Some are beginning to fear that the community of religious interests so long and so well established by the college departments of the Young Men's and the Young Women's Christian Associations may thus be divided within university circles as badly as are outside communities. Offsetting this, it is said, that unless the student's attachment to his or her own religious fellowship is maintained while in college, it will not be re-asserted after graduation. At most of the large educational



centers the several denominational college pastors co-operate so well with each other and with the Christian association workers that the unity of spirit is still unbroken.

New hopes are also arising out of this situation. One of them, as recently outlined by a far-sighted student, is that several denominations may yet unite to build one large church edifice, each of them with an assistant pastor to have the care of students within his own fellowship and to conduct week-day services, the main preaching at the Sunday services to be done by the most capable representatives of each denomination in turn.

This plan has the merit of providing a better building at less expense for erection and maintenance than each of three or four denominations could possibly build and equip for its own exclusive use. It would make possible such enrichment of worship by the better music and preaching thus obtained that the combined religious resources and attendances could not fail to impress the whole body of students more effectively than the best that could be done by the same personal and financial resources if divided. While each denominational fellowship could maintain its distinctive features among its own adherents, all of them together would impressively exemplify the unity of the spirit and the bond of peace.

And why would not such a single civic church building in other than university towns, or in distinct districts in larger cities, obviate the waste of resource in the needless multiplication of church edifices, and yet provide cathedral-like structures for the use of each in turn, which could be supplemented by parish houses, or even by chapels, for the family use of each fellowship? Would not this co-operative unity concentrated at one civic or social center serve the interests of each denomination as well, and yet serve the religious interests of the whole town far better? If such centers began to be established by the voluntary efforts of the churches, it might not be long before towns would erect such civic sanctuaries, for the common use of each and all, just as some cities now build opera houses, or assembly halls for other purposes. By the gown at the university the town may thus be helped, but as never before. What have you to say, reader, *pro* or *con*? Let us hear.

#### CHINESE STUDENTS AND AMERICAN EDUCATION

One of the American leaders of the Chinese Y. M. C. A. at Shanghai reports that notwithstanding the disturbances due to revolution and financial depression, all concerned are surprised at the heavy gains the work has scored. The membership has risen to nearly 2000 and the number of young men in the day and evening classes to over 800. The educational success is due to the broad view of the evangelistic purpose with which these courses of lectures and teaching are conducted—"to combat the tendency towards materialism which seems to have spread

over the entire country and give the thinking man the correct scientific attitude towards religion, especially towards Christianity, and then to follow up these lectures with addresses of a purely religious nature." To this end such far-reaching and timely subjects were treated as The British Constitution by a judge of the British Consular Court; The French Constitution by the Principal of the *l'Ecole Francaise*; The Constitution of the United States by Dr. S. Hornbeck; A System of National Education by President-Emeritus Eliot of Harvard University; The Revolution by Bishop Bashford, and Aviation by Z. Y. Lee, the first Chinese aviator to fly in China. A series of lectures on constitutional government was also given by a number of law students recently returned from abroad. Nearly 100 men took a course in first aid to the injured, a large proportion of them successfully passing the examination for the diploma of the St. John Ambulance Association of Great Britain.

Formerly Christians were supposed to be unpatriotic. That charge is never made against them now, while patriotism is receiving its first birth in the hearts of millions. The self-sacrificing patriotism and great ability shown by Christians who have been in office have given the cause a great impetus. Toward the \$27,000 to buy the land for a new boys' building such leading Chinese men of affairs contributed as the governor-general of Shanghai, the admiral of the Chinese navy, the commissioner of foreign affairs, General Hsu, the hero of Nanking, and Dr. Wu Ting Fang.

Michigan University is contributing its share to the same educational religious influences among the Chinese students enrolled there. There are sixty of them, the largest number in attendance at any American university. Many of them have won government scholarships in competition with thousands of other students in their native provinces. Some come on their own private means, but practically all are from the most brilliant and progressive of the young men in China. About half of them are either professed Christians or openly sympathetic toward Christianity. All, however, are eager for western ideas, which they are said to adopt with astonishing facility and therefore are sensitive to influences wisely given to inspire religious interest. The non-Christian Chinese are puzzled mostly by the inconsistencies they observe in our failure to apply Christianity to life. With a reticence due to their inborn courtesy they hesitate to come directly to their American friends with these perplexities, which they bring to the Christian Chinese for discussion. To get help in meeting these problems the Chinese Students' Christian Association holds weekly conferences for all their fellow Chinese students, with distinguished men to discuss the essential content of Christianity, its historical, theological and philosophical problems, and such practical problems for the Chinese as What constitutes a Christian life? Does Modern Civilization Need Christianity? Of What Importance is the Christian Life to a Man Who is to Help Build a Country Like China?



### THE FAMILY AND SOCIAL WORK

The intersphering of religious and social thought and work is freshly demonstrated by the preparation of Edward T. Devine's little hand-book<sup>1</sup> bearing the above title, written at the request and for the use of the college department of the International Y. M. C. A. It is, however, not more indicative of the extension of religion into the social sphere, than of the intensive tendency of the social movement to find its rootage and source of power in religion.

The directors of the Y. M. C. A. college work are farsighted in choosing the family as the common ground on which to bring these two tendencies together. For, there is no better test of the true and the false in religious and social theory or practice than the effect of either upon the family. Moreover, there is no social theme, which is in such vital contact with so many things that the college student is studying about, as the family. Biology, psychology, economics, political science and administration, sanitation, physical culture, philosophy and religion, one and all, and many more branches of knowledge, are readily shown by Dr. Devine to be involved in any study or observation of family conditions and life. Skillfully all these academic interests are interwoven with the social ideal, the religious motive, and the practical purpose in a way to appeal to the college student's mind.

Squarely is the author's aim—"to make clear the essentially religious character of social work"—brought to bear at just those two closest points of contact with the student's intellectual inquiry—the biological and economic interpretations of life. Degeneration and progress as involving either the elimination of the unfit by the struggle for existence, or the redemption of the lower to the higher life by social and religious forces, are the negative and positive poles of thought to which the whole discussion is keyed. Together they state the fundamental religious and social problem of our time. In its solution "social workers and economists have come to terms; with biologists, on the other hand, social workers have hardly yet reached such an understanding." But beyond these adjustments, "the fact is that social work, while welcoming support and criticism from both economic and biologic science, is something more and better than applied biology or applied economics. It is fundamentally applied religion."

From this basis the study of the family proceeds with a method as scientific as its aim and application are practical.

Although in the brief space at command, the actual conditions and tendencies of family life could only be lightly touched, they are practically all included either in the broad discussion or in the incisive questions following each chapter. Reaching after an insight to be gotten only through wider reading and independent thought, these questions lead the student out into the field to see facts for himself, and into the practical work to co-operate with manifold movements and agencies to improve existing conditions. But

<sup>1</sup>The Family and Social Work. By Edward T. Devine. The Survey Associates. Price 60 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 68 cents.

the original and strongest motive for all this interest and endeavor is steadily held "to come from our religion, from our inherited and trained instincts of love and compassion, from our instinct for justice, our inbred passion for fair play and decency." And this is shown to be not more the religious motive than it is the attitude of social work.

### CATHOLIC CO-OPERATION IN KANSAS CITY

The Catholic churches of Kansas City joined heartily with the Protestant and Jewish congregations in taking a religious census of the city. The fellowship that grew up among the representatives of these different faiths while engaged in this common work led to further results. The Rev. Father Scanlon, pastor of St. Stephen's Church, responded to a circular letter sent out by the district superintendents of the Board of Public Welfare, asking for an opportunity to present various lectures in church buildings. These addresses on social topics were given for three months every Sunday evening in the hall connected with his church. The same building was equipped with a gymnasium, shower baths and game rooms for the use of boys' clubs and a young men's club. The Rev. Charles Delbecchi, pastor of the Holy Rosary Church, in response to the same official appeal, arranged numerous lectures and social entertainments and personally co-operated with the district superintendent in social work for the whole population. In a recent address at the City Club he charged the city with neglecting his district and made a forcible plea for the improvement of the housing conditions and for the erection in his community of a large new public schoolhouse fully equipped for social center meetings. At such neighborhood centers in other districts he frequently speaks. His translation into Italian of a little manual of legal suggestions for the ordinary man was printed with the English original by the free legal aid bureau of the Board of Public Welfare for the use of the Italian population. His assistant conducts a class in Italian for about a dozen of the social workers in Kansas City. He attends a normal class in recreation, conducted by the superintendent of the recreation department, in order the better to initiate Italian boys' clubs in some of the public social centers.

Some Catholic ladies have recently started a girls' hotel for the working girls of their faith. One of them serves on the board of directors of the Florence Crittenton Mission. A prominent Catholic layman is a member of the Board of Public Welfare and another is attorney for the board. Several others are active in the anti-Tuberculosis Society and in the board of directors of the Provident Association.

This city-wide co-operation of the churches and other voluntary agencies with public officials is very effectively promoted by L. A. Halbert, general superintendent of the Board of Public Welfare. Inviting such co-operation are such departments of practical work as cannot fail to be directly tributary to the work of the





A Y. M. C. A. ON WHEELS

Interior of Y. M. C. A. car, two of which were used in the Des Chutes Canyon following the grading and track-laying crews.

## INDUSTRY

### THE INDUSTRIAL OUTREACH OF THE Y. M. C. A.

CHARLES R. TOWSON

INTERNATIONAL SECRETARY, INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT, Y. M. C. A.

"The Y. M. C. A. is going too far," said the president of a coke company. "I believe in it and think it has its place, but when it comes to working among these people who can't speak English that is going too far."

But this is just what makes the organization move in its ever-widening circles—the *all-men-our-field* policy. It has limitations of means surely, imperfect methods, of course; its leadership has decidedly human limitations—but there is one respect in which there is no limit—men and boys of all colors, creeds and conditions are its field.

#### *Extension of Work*

This has not always seemed to be so. Organized by a group of London dry goods clerks, its first buildings located in commercial centers, its privileges appealing especially to men and boys of the clerk type, its natural growth was toward the commercial group. But with this growth came also an instinctive outreach toward other groups. This growth has been of an opportunist rather than of a studied nature. A conversation between a New York business man, William E. Dodge, some Princeton students and an association secretary led to the organization of the Student Department. A railroad official's request to the Cleveland association for service to his men made way for the railroad work. The tent work with the National Guards carried on

by the various state committees developed into the present army and navy work, and the colored department resulted from the plea of a southern white man who caught up a gleam of prophecy and focused it until it became the vision of an international convention. His wildest imagination could never have pictured what is history today.<sup>1</sup>

At every outreach there have been those who thought "that is going too far," but the progressive spirit has led.

#### *Entering Industry's Realm*

The time came when the association saw a new field in the world of industry where the workers were massing and the industrial work was begun. Night classes for artisans were started, shop meetings were held, physical and social activities were inaugurated. Now there are 30,000 industrial workers in night classes; last year 1,500,000 attended shop meetings, while first aid and prevention of disease are themes in shops and factories throughout the country. This carrying the association outside of the building and without regard to membership has been accompanied by the same question "Is this not going too far?" Five years ago many ques-

<sup>1</sup>Julius Rosenwald, president of Sears, Roebuck & Co., Chicago, has agreed to give \$25,000 to any city erecting a \$100,000 Y. M. C. A. building for colored men within the next five years. Six cities have already accepted this challenge.



tioned the wisdom of attempting work for immigrants, yet 150,000 were personally served last year at the ports and in English and citizenship classes.

A secretary helping in the annual outings and field sports of an organization of working men was cautioned by a director of the conservative type: "You had better not spend too much time with that kind of work. They are a lot of booze histers." But now outings, field days, athletic meets and playgrounds are a part of the regular program. The circle of service has continued to widen, until only a few associations are confining their service to their buildings and to their members, and in the isolated industrial places not only the men and boys but the entire community are the modern association's field.

#### *International and State Promotion*

This industrial movement which had begun in the local associations demanded special promotion, and the International Committee was asked to give it special attention. The industrial department was organized. Its field is North America and the emigration zone of Europe. Its commission is to help relate the association to industrial workers. It is composed of five laymen with twenty-five others on special committees and a staff of ten secretaries—all of whom are specialists. One studies new methods of industrial work in city associations, two promote

the scheme of immigration work which is in operation at European ports, on ships, at ports of entry, at railway stations and at destination. One conducts a school of training in southern industry and agriculture; four specialize in the mining, textile and lumber fields and construction camps respectively and another promotes the association in miscellaneous industries. One enlists students in engineering schools to engage in forms of service that bring them into relation to industrial workers, learning to know and understand them and their needs, so that when these students become engineers they will have more intelligent regard for the welfare of the workers.

As the work progresses the various state committees employ specialists for full or part time promotion of various phases of industrial work, and the international secretaries co-operate with them.

#### *Progress*

Including railroad men, 35 per cent of all the members of the North American associations are from the ranks of the industrial workers. Besides the industrial work of the city and railroad associations there are in miscellaneous industries 70 association buildings costing a million and a half dollars erected at the cost of the employers and maintained by the joint efforts of employers and employees: 12 in cotton mill villages, 6 in coal mining communities, 12 in lumber



NOON-HOUR EDUCATIONAL SHOP MEETING, EASTERN DISTRICT, BROOKLYN

A common type of association extension work—talks on health, travel, civics, industry, self-improvement, religion, etc., given by secretaries, business and professional men at any point in an industrial plant where a group of working men can be conveniently brought together.





TEACHING WORKERS HOW TO MEET INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS

First aid teams among miners and railroad men developed on an extensive scale.

towns and camps, 12 in construction camps, 11 in metal mines and nearly a score in manufacturing centers. There are 153 secretaries at work in industrial fields.

#### *Welcomed by Employers and Employees*

The employees always share in the support and control. For example, one company employing 4,500 men and boys has provided a building and gives \$10,000 annually and the men give as much more. The association has 2,200 members and its management is in their hands. All of the apprentices of that company are taught in the educational class rooms of the association. The playgrounds of the community are operated as an association feature; the building is the social center for the community, and a special branch with a building and secretary is provided for foreign employees. The police authorities say the association is one of their best allies, and the company say it is one of their best assets.

Contrasting in size with this, another is doing successful service in a lumber center where there are less than 100 white employees. It pays the company to provide the building and to contribute an amount equal to the salary of the secretary. Here, also, the employees do their part and the work is a success notwithstanding the prediction that it would fail because of the small number and the differences in race and religion. In both places the association deals successfully with the non-English speaking population.

Where its work is clearly understood, neither racial nor religious differences are a bar to success. Men of all creeds and no creeds are enrolled in the nearly 600,000 members in the 2,100 associations in North America. For example, there are many Hebrews in the membership and there are more Roman Catholics in many associations than from any other denomination, and in some cases, more than from all the others combined. The proselyting spirit is absolutely out of place in the association.

Employers and employees both approve its co-operative basis. It works in the zone of their agreements. While it is not blind to issues between employers and employees, it does not assume the responsibility for adjusting them; but

it does help to develop that spirit which is calculated to prevent disputes. It helps to allay irritation; creates the right state of mind and begets that good will which finds the basis for the friendly adjustment of differences. In the midst of a strike in a coal field where the feeling ran high, the striking miners and guards were seen swimming in the same Y. M. C. A. pool. In another place the strikers and strike breakers occupied beds on different floors in the same Y. M. C. A. building. These incidents may be unusual, but they illustrate the association

spirit and attitude.

The association enjoys an increasing measure of confidence and co-operation from both organized labor and organizations of employers. There is little ground for the fear sometimes expressed that "the good may be the enemy of the best," that the association may interfere with the betterment of industrial conditions by serving as a salve to the conscience of employers on the one hand, or, on the other hand, as an anaesthetic to the workers. It is not installed by employers as an industrial lightning rod to avert strikes, nor is it regarded by workers as a sop to induce silence.

The employers who approve the association as a welfare agency are in the forefront of both thought and action concerning industrial betterment; no wage scale is lower and no worker less free because the Y. M. C. A. exists in industry. It does, however, help to draw the line between the progressive and the reactionary employer. For example, an employer connected with a western plant said to another: "Here is a plan for betterment of foreign employees—it looks good to me." The other answered: "Oh, the first thing they will do is to teach those foreigners English and then they will get together and raise Hell." Evidence is not wanting to show that if this super-heated condition is to be raised, it might better be in English. The association is proving that such work raises not "Hell," but happiness, efficiency and production and that at the same time it lowers the accident, disease and death rate.

#### *Meeting Individual and Community Need*

The association stands not only for character based upon religious convictions but for an environment in which character may develop. One association induced a great railroad company to change the method of paying off so that the men got cash for their checks in the pay car. This was a blow to the saloons where the checks were formerly cashed. Another association submitted facts upon which a great industry increased the wages of the boys. Scores of companies have been induced to co-operate in giving better educational advantage to their employees, young and old. Other associations have pioneered the



health movements of the community. One mill president says that his machines were idle less during the past summer because of the association leadership in cleaning up the village, draining swamps and teaching hygiene. At the suggestion of the association secretary that company spent thousands of dollars to screen windows and closets, carry away garbage, employ visiting nurses, etc.

Many associations lead in clean-up days. One cotton mill village gave up 250 cart loads of trash in a single day; one iron manufacturing center furnished 95,000 empty tin cans in a day; playgrounds and physical examinations are promoted as religiously as shop meetings and Bible classes. The association secretary in charge of the welfare work in sixteen mill villages reports that the school teachers in calling the roll not only have the pupils answer "present," but also whether they have used the tooth brush.

One of the latest advances is the instruction in English and citizenship for non-English-speaking workers. Seventeen thousand were in English classes last year and many more attended lectures on citizenship. In the beginning this was done on the men's time only and at the cost of the association. Some thought this was going too far, but the initiative had to be taken; today some of the largest industries pay the cost of this work for their employes and in some cases they are willing to give company time for it.

The service rendered at European and North American ports helps to make the work done at the immigrants' destination more effective. For example, two Hungarians who had been met by the emigration secretary at Liverpool and again at Ellis Island, and then at their destination, were so much pleased by the help received and by their reception at a quarry men's association in Vermont that they went out among their fellow countrymen and brought in twenty new members.

A weaver in South Carolina said: "I gave up a job paying the same money to come where I could find a Y. M. C. A.," and a logger in the Mississippi woods said: "This place means home to me." Both these men appreciate the outreach of the association into industry. The same is true of the citizens in a community in West Virginia, where, "the express liquor business has been cut in half," and in the far West where in construction camps secretaries are driving away lonesomeness and vice with friendship that will do anything from teaching English or a Bible class to putting a drunk to bed; or from writing a letter for an illiterate to becoming a deputy sheriff and closing up the dives of a whole district. Such service expresses religious motives in sane terms and is finding a constantly widening field.



TRAVELING SHOP LIBRARY, EASTERN DISTRICT, BROOKLYN

Encouraging working men to read good books by taking the books to them at noon hour in the shop. Books are loaned by the local public library.



# THE EFFICIENCY OF PRESENT FACTORY INSPECTION MACHINERY IN THE UNITED STATES

EDWARD F. BROWN

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE, NEW YORK

The phrase "factory inspection" is a misnomer. The inspection of factories is merely incidental to the duty of enforcing a body of labor laws, and inspection takes place simply that labor laws may be better enforced.

Broadly speaking, two of the most glaring defects in the present machinery for administering labor laws are:

1. The inadequacy of legislative appropriations, and
2. Antiquated customs, chiefly political, and inefficient organization in many states for the carrying out of the legislative intent insofar as the meager appropriations permit.

On the first point consider that in 1911 thirty-nine states appropriated for the use of labor departments approximately \$1,544,073, the largest single grant being \$324,384, made by Pennsylvania, and the smallest being \$2,400 in Tennessee.

The aggregate appropriation of a little more than one and a half million dollars for the whole country was intended to serve the health, comfort, safety and welfare of twenty million toilers in the land.

Edson Lott estimates from the federal census that the average wealth created by each wage-earner in the United States (exclusive of the material he uses, supervision of his work, and his own wages) is about \$630. In return for stocking this store-house of national wealth, society doled out by way of labor department grants for the conservation of its wealth producers .013 of one per cent of the wealth so created. In other words an average of 8.1 cents per annum is spent on each factory wage-earner in this country for the prevention of accidents, sanitation, preventing the illegal employment of children, providing for out-of-works, studying occupational diseases, etc.

Clearly, from this presentation, it is obvious that our legislatures provide very deficient machinery when they expect that we shall conserve the human resource of the land on eight cents a year or seven mills per month, for each factory wage-earner.

The federal government spent in one year in the Bureau of Animal Industry \$1,654,750, or \$110,677 more than thirty-nine states spent for the health, safety and comfort of their workers.

The Bureau of Plant Industry spent in one year \$2,061,626, or \$517,613 more than thirty-nine states invested in the welfare of their toilers.

While the federal government was spending in one year these vast sums of money on animal and plant life Nebraska, with 24,000 workers to be protected, spent \$56,000 for the conservation of

its cattle, and \$4,840 for the conservation of its workers.

The legislature of North Dakota in 1909 realized the necessity of establishing a stallion registration board, but not the need for a department of factory inspection.

Of the following fifteen states Texas alone employs a factory inspector—one inspector to 73,000 employes. The others have no machinery for the protection of workers.

Arkansas	with more than	45,000	workers
Georgia	" "	105,000	"
Florida	" "	58,000	"
Mississippi	" "	50,000	"
North Carolina	" "	121,000	"
Vermont	" "	33,000	"
Texas	" "	73,000	"
Nebraska	" "	24,000	"
Montana	" "	11,500	"
Idaho	" "	8,000	"
Arizona	" "	6,400	"
New Mexico	" "	4,000	"
South Dakota	" "	3,500	"
North Dakota	" "	2,500	"
Wyoming	" "	2,500	"
In all	" "	547,400	"

More than half a million wage-earners practically without legal protection. In these states unscrupulous business may, unmolested, maim the body and mar the mind while the sovereign state stands by in apathy looking upon the ruin it might have minimized, if not averted, by the exercise of its constitutional authority.

Yet in a few of these states it is a high crime to molest the young oyster or lobster. Business demands that they be permitted to prosper until with maturity comes a higher selling price. But men, women and children are, through lack of proper legislation and improper enforcement of existing laws, crippled and incapacitated and stunted. The men and women are taken in the prime of life—the children before they are strong—and after spending their energies they are roughly cast in the scrap heap of an exacting and inexorable industrialism. The question then arises, is it the part of wisdom to continue spending more money on bugs, bees and beasts than in an endeavor to prevent the accidents and diseases of industry?

The bare fact that we have approximately 425 factory inspectors in the whole country to care for nearly seven million factory workers, spread over an area of three and a half million square miles, establishes, I believe, my first premise, that the efficiency of present-day factory inspection machinery is impaired, first, through the inadequacy of legislation appropriations.

Let us consider now what, in spite of the niggardly grants, we may expect from our labor agencies. At the outset we are struck with the fact that except for two or three states, the most undesirable brand of politics permeates the administration of labor departments.

In twenty states the head of the labor depart-



ment is designated by the governor, and his term of office depends usually on the political fortunes of his chief. The absence of a permanent character in this important post makes it possible for politics to play no uncertain game, both in the choice and character of the man who is sworn to enforce the labor laws. The best type of man is not always attracted to the position. To my mind, no state, except possibly Massachusetts (under its plan of reorganization) and Wisconsin, have entirely freed their labor departments from a destructive political influence. And even in the two mentioned states, the system is still pregnant with possibilities if the chief magistrate of the state is not all that is desired in the man. It is, I think, the one cloud which hovers over the otherwise successful administration of labor laws by commissions. It is not politics that is objected to, as much as the kind of politics. Democracy demands that politics take a prominent place in our national life, but the word has become odious to those of us who have watched the kind of politics many of our communities tolerate.

Not alone is it necessary to have a capable and trained man at the head of the department, but the inspection staff should be made up of men equally trained and capable in their separate fields. In only five states in the United States (New York, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Wisconsin and Illinois) are inspectors required to qualify after a civil service test. And unfortunately, even in some of these elect five, the test does not appear to be the last word in the selection of able and honest assistants. In Kentucky, Minnesota, Ohio and Indiana some practical experience is required of inspectors. In not a single state, perhaps, is the standard as high as that apparently required in Prussia, Saxony, France, England, Russia, the Netherlands, Spain, Finland, Hungary or Norway. Inspectors, as well as the head of the department, should be required to devote all of their working time to the business of the state.

In Pennsylvania, where I recently made an investigation of the administration of the department, I found that many of the factory inspectors were conducting private business enterprise while holding commissions in the department. One is alleged to have sold fire insurance to the establishments he was sworn to inspect impartially. Another kept a saloon. Still another was in the coal business. Let us trace the effect of such a system. Last year Pennsylvania spent approximately \$105,000 for factory inspection. The staff of forty-one inspectors in 1911 is reported to have inspected 16,725 establishments. This, as will be seen, is an average of less than two establishments per day for each inspector during the year.

In the same state, from 1906 to 1911, Chief Delaney, who was dismissed recently by Governor Tener, reports 16,477 violations of the unguarded machinery law. During the same period there were reported 14,444 accidents of all kinds, nearly 1,200 of which were fatal. With all this gruesome record growing on him, Delaney instituted only two prosecutions on this provision of

the factory act. Since 1908 there were no prosecutions at all, although between 1908 and 1911 the reported accidents more than doubled in number.

In another state where the chief factory inspector divides his time between conducting a livery stable he owns, and the business of caring for some 30,000 factory wage-earners, I found him contributing a remarkably concise annual report consisting of exactly fourteen words. It reads, under date of July 1, 1911, as follows: "I have visited the same factories as last year and find conditions the same."

The foregoing sidelights tend to emphasize the second premise with which I started out—that antiquated methods, chiefly political, and inefficient organization in many states render many of our labor laws ineffective.

Finally, the most dangerously unguarded machinery I have known is the machinery of factory inspection in the United States, exposed to a most pernicious political influence, and the parsimony of legislators, rendering possible the industrial diseases and accidents which a provident nation would promptly make impossible.

## ANNOYANCES

PAUL U. KELLOGG

At the meeting last month of the American Association for Labor Legislation in Boston, Prof. Robert E. Chaddock of Columbia University discussed needed legislative changes with respect to the registration and reporting of trade accidents and diseases. Few states have anything like complete reporting; few have blanks that contain all the significant facts. He raised the question whether the point had not been reached where general labor reports should not be required quarterly of all employers.

This suggestion, advanced by a statistician in a matter-of-fact way, took on a fine edge when it was heard in connection with the protestations on the part of two members of the Massachusetts Industrial Accident Board. At the previous session, James B. Carroll, chairman of the board, spoke of the annoyance of the manufacturers of Massachusetts at multifarious reporting. At a later session, E. F. McSweeney, member of the same board, made the same point as to the annoyance of the manufacturers of Massachusetts. This annoyance of the manufacturers of Massachusetts seemed to be the most vivid impression these two gentlemen gathered from their official work. There was no intimation in their remarks that possibly there were other people in Massachusetts who might be provoked or annoyed. It is annoying, after a workman has had a leg fractured in a certain way, or in a certain process, or has had an eye pierced, to have another workman suffer a similar injury in a similar process in another part of the state; and another workman, and another workman—merely because there has been failure to report accidents precisely and quickly so that all managers in all parts of the states may know where the danger lies, and so that the ways of prevention can be spread equally broadcast. Such a re-



currence is annoying all his life to a man with a wooden leg or a withered eye. It is annoying to the decent self-respect of a state. The Massachusetts system of reporting accidents may be faulty; there may be need for simplification and co-ordination of reports. But it would seem that the Industrial Accident Board has a larger job before it than to act as a society for the prevention of unnecessary annoyance to manufacturers.

That the spirit shown in these two addresses is not fairly representative of the manufacturers of Massachusetts, is illustrated by the work of the mutual insurance organization which some of the leading manufacturers of the state have organized under the new compensation law. One of the most experienced safety experts in the country has been employed, every accident of every member is at once studied, the experience pooled, and methods of safeguarding elevators, electric wiring, gears—each of the danger zones—are distributed to the constituent members. These manufacturers are definitely enlisted in a campaign to cut down accident risks, in the same way that the Massachusetts mutuals have cut down fire risks. They are getting rid of the annoyance of reporting accidents by getting rid of accidents.

#### STILL ROOM FOR A FEW HUSKY REFORMERS

The other day a well-known educator, in the course of an address delivered before a body of teachers in New York, stated that less attention than formerly need be paid by good citizens to the subject of the prevention of industrial accidents and industrial diseases because these things have now become objects of vigorous state activity! This, in spite of the fact that there are only eight states in the Union where the reporting of industrial diseases is required by law. And now comes the Bulletin of the New York State Department of Labor with some accident figures that may justify even the average citizen in doing some thinking. There were reported to the department in the second quarter of 1912, just three months, 19,567 accidents in factories, mines and quarries, and building operations; that is, 136 more than were reported for the entire year of 1907, which at that time was the high-water mark in the history of the department. Only two years out of the four since then have exceeded the record of 1907, but these have shown a tremendous swelling of the figures. In 1910, 25,390 were reported, and in 1911, 44,551. There were 15,371 reported for the first quarter of 1912, making a total of 34,938 for the first half of the year. If the same rate was maintained in the second half, the year's record will be nearly 70,000.

But this does not mean at all that more men are being hurt than formerly. On the contrary, the bulletin points out that "this increase should be interpreted only as an evidence of more nearly complete reporting, and no inference can be taken from it as to the increase or decrease of the actual number of accidents in the state." The proportion of fatal accidents appears to be

very much higher in building operations than in factories, for although less than half as many accidents were reported, there were seventy fatal cases in the building industry as against forty in factories in the second quarter. It is further pointed out that since accidents have been reported in the building industry for only two years, while for upwards of twenty years there has been a law requiring the reporting of factory accidents, it is likely that the proportion of fatal accidents occurring in the building industry and unreported is very much greater than the proportion of unreported accidents for factories.

It may fairly be assumed that the public may still concern itself with the problem of industrial safety.

#### A NEW STEEL TOWN

In the 1912 report of the Crucible Steel Company of America, it is announced that, owing to an expansion in operations at the works of the Pittsburgh Crucible Company, a subsidiary, at Midland, Pa., the working force will have to be largely increased and that there are not enough houses in the town to provide for the expected increase in population. Consequently, the company has purchased 500 acres of land adjacent to the town and will divide it into lots, some of which will be sold to employees while houses will be built upon others.

The company recognizes that since the new town is a consequence of its own activities, it has a responsibility concerning the sort of town that it is to be, and it has definite plans for discharging that responsibility. It has employed an architect to work out a plan with a view to combining beauty and utility, which should rank with two other steel towns in America where similar forethought is manifest—Vandergrift, Pa., built some fifteen years ago by the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company; and Corey, Ala., the new town of the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company.

The plans for this new development in the Pittsburgh district are described in the report as follows: "To modernize the improvement, it was decided that a large portion of this new purchase should be laid out as a model town for the company's employees, following in a general way the development of some of the workmen's settlements in England and Germany, where the streets are laid out in curves, with parks and recreation grounds at intervals, planned to make the most attractive place for the establishment of workmen's homes and for the rearing of their families. Here a filtration plant is already in course of construction for the purpose of supplying pure water. The location for these improvements is one of the most beautiful natural sites in the Ohio Valley, high above the highest water, and where an old growth of large trees will add much to the beauty of the surroundings. The company has, since the property was purchased, made contracts for an initial construction of thirty houses, and as the plan develops the number will be largely increased. All houses the company builds will be most modern in construction, having the best improvements, keeping in



mind the desire to uplift the whole moral tone of the wage-earner."

Herbert Du Puy and C. C. Ramsay, respectively chairman of the board of directors and president of the Crucible Steel Company of America, and J. W. Dougherty, president of the Pittsburgh Crucible Steel Company, are actively directing the work.

#### BUREAU OF MINES REPORT

The second annual report of the Bureau of Mines for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1912, which has just issued from the government printing office, contains a large amount of very interesting material.

The bureau has through its investigations proven the danger attendant upon the use of black powder and has at the same time demonstrated that other explosives may be used having a short and "relatively cool flame." In spite of the fact that there is no power to compel the use of those so-called permissible explosives, nevertheless the use of them "has increased from a small beginning a few years ago to more than 13,000,000 pounds during 1911."

At the same time the bureau has been studying and promoting safety. Six mine rescue stations are maintained and seven rescue cars are scattered over the country in those districts where mine accidents are most likely to occur. More than 200,000 miners in different parts of the country attended the safety lectures and demonstrations conducted by officers of the bureau and certificates were granted to 2,000 miners who had received training in mine rescue and first aid work.

The report states that the appropriation acts which have given the bureau power to make investigations into coal mine accidents have strangely limited such investigations to "inquiries concerning the causes and prevention of mine explosions" although the investigations carried on by the bureau, handicapped as it is, have demonstrated that "more than one-half of the fatalities in coal mines result from falls of roof, slate, or coal, and injuries from mine cars and locomotives." The brief review of miners' circular No. 9, published elsewhere in this issue, shows to what an extent the general public has been misled as to the causes of mine accidents on account of the spectacular character of mine explosions.

It is pointed out also that the bureau has no power at the present time to make investigations as to health conditions in and about mines. A third defect is that the work of the bureau is at the present time confined to coal mines. The report urges that "mine investigations should be extended to include the collection of complete and reliable data concerning the character and number of accidents as well as the methods of prevention in all branches of the mining industry, metal mining as well as coal mining and in metallurgical and miscellaneous mineral industries." Attention is called to the fact that mine fires and other accidents have occurred during the past few years in metal mines to such an

## Legislative Program for 1913

¶ The American Association for Labor Legislation opens the New Year with a **definite program** of eight parts for the 42 states having legislative sessions.

¶ For the first four parts of the program it is initiating legislation and **supplying standard bills**.

¶ For the second four parts it **supplies the essential facts** for securing effective legislation and co-operates with other organizations.

The program is:

1. Provide for one day of rest in seven, no matter how continuous the industry.
2. Secure sanitary regulations for the protection of workers exposed to the dangers of lead poisoning.
3. Extend the uniform reporting of industrial accidents and occupational diseases and urge the adoption of the standard schedules for such reports.
4. Secure a revision of the federal employees' compensation act, including extension of the compensation principle to embrace occupational diseases as well as industrial accidents.
5. Aid in the enactment of additional state laws providing just systems of compensation or insurance against industrial injuries.
6. Encourage the investigation of industrial accidents and occupational diseases by state and national authorities, and urge upon the federal government proper provision for the study and advancement of industrial hygiene and safety.
7. Co-operate in securing effective legal safeguards for working women.
8. Prepare for the supreme test of law enforcement by helping to develop machinery for more efficient factory inspection and better enforcement of labor laws.

Each of the eight parts in this program forms the subject of a chapter in the December issue of the **American Labor Legislation Review**. Each represents months of work by an expert. The whole forms a **legislative handbook** for the year 1913, illustrated with colored maps and charts, tables and bibliography. Invaluable to those wishing to write their representatives in Congress and State Legislatures—gives the concrete information to make such letters effective.

This December issue of the **Review** sent postpaid for \$1.

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## Laws to Protect Women Who Work

Will be proposed in most of the **42 states** whose Legislatures meet this year. Do you want to help? Keep track of the movement? Learn what other states have done? Know where **your state stands?**

The simple way, to have all necessary information conveniently at your fingers ends, is to send for the new edition of **Fatigue and Efficiency**, by Josephine Goldmark, one of the latest and most useful of the **Russell Sage Foundation Publications**.

Miss Goldmark, as publication secretary of the National Consumers' League, spent several years in preparing this book which gives a complete compilation of all American legislation regulating women's hours of labor. It gives not only extracts from the **statutes of all the states**, but also comparative schedules in tabular form, showing at a glance the **standing of each state** in regard to the extent of protection afforded. A separate schedule is given for each important **place of employment** covered by the laws—manufacturing establishments, mercantile establishments, laundries, telephone service, etc. A final schedule summarizes the whole.

Most important of all—the scientific basis for protecting women in industry—is Miss Goldmark's remarkably lucid interpretation for laymen of the findings of physiologists in regard to the **toxin of fatigue**—the poison of overwork—how long hours, speed, overstrain affect women and their children.

Jane Addams says: "A most masterly assemblage of the very material we all need."

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extent as to show the necessity of first aid and mine rescue work in this field.

Among the other activities of the bureau investigations into the quality and efficient use of fuels has resulted in the saving of a considerable sum of money to the government in the purchase of fuel. The government purchased \$8,000,000 worth of fuel during the year, based upon the analyses and examinations made by the Bureau of Mines. Beside its importance to the government, "the benefits to the general public resulting from this work may be indicated by the fact that more than fifty of the larger cities, a number of states and a large number of private corporations and business concerns in different parts of the country have adopted the general plan followed by the government in the purchase of its coal."

Another field of activity in which the bureau might be able to render great service is, it is pointed out, in the conduct of investigations with a view to the prevention of mineral waste. It would be difficult for any body other than a bureau of the federal government to carry on investigations that would have the required scope and authority, to the end that proper legislation may be enacted.

The report, which covers 87 pages, is crowded with information that is of utmost importance and interest not only to the mining expert or to the investor in mining properties but to the workers and to every public spirited citizen.

### AN IMMEDIATE LABOR PROGRAM

The American Association for Labor Legislation, in the December issue of its quarterly publication, announces what it calls its "immediate legislative program." This program consists of eight propositions which are as follows:

1. One day of rest in seven.
2. Protection from lead poisoning.
3. Uniform reporting of accidents and diseases.
4. Revision of the federal employees' compensation act.
5. State workmen's compensation legislation.
6. Investigation into industrial hygiene and safety.
7. Effective legal safeguards for working women.
8. Factory inspection and labor law enforcement.

The association has brought together under each one of these eight heads in a compact and summarized form most of the best arguments in favor of the propositions. Under the one day of rest in seven proposition is to be found conveniently summarized all of the available information that has been gathered to date with regard to the amount of seven day labor in the United States. A table is presented showing the half dozen rest day laws that have been enacted so far in this country and, as in the case of each one of the other propositions presented, a bibliography is appended giving some of the most readily available and useful books and articles that have been written in support of the proposition.



Under the plank calling for the uniform reporting of accidents and diseases, the accident schedules of nineteen states are tabulated in order to show how many states ask each specified question in a list of fifty-eight which in one or another of these states the employer is required to answer. Illustrating perfectly the need of greater uniformity, this tabulation shows that one question only, the name of the injured person, is asked by all of the nineteen states. The date of the injury is desired by eighteen states. From these the list tapers down until at the end there are twelve distinct questions, each one of which is asked by only one state out of the nineteen.

None of the sections of this review is presented more strikingly or more effectively than the one dealing with the efficient enforcement of labor laws. It is shown that there are four different general schemes of organization which are themselves again subdivided to a considerable extent in the states—which have departments of labor, that there are at least nine different ways of selecting the chief officer of such departments, that there are no two states which agree in the proportion between wage-earners and inspectors while none of them have an adequate force, and that in a majority of the states no training whatever is required of inspectors.

### JOTTINGS

#### THE NEW LABOR LAW OF NEW YORK

This is to be a memorable year in the annals of labor legislation in New York. After two years of work the Factory Investigating Commission is prepared to recommend legislation going far toward that protection to industrial workers which the public is at last demanding. Protection against fire was the first and particular concern of this commission called into being as a result of the Asch Building fire, and the commission's last year's bills were the subject of much adverse criticism. Their tentative proposals this year have been subjected to long and careful scrutiny and their final bill is awaited with interest. The problems of home work, the better regulation of canneries, the organization of a bureau of industrial hygiene and the practical reorganization of the Labor Department so as to make it an efficient organization for the enforcement of the labor law, are some of the other subjects upon which the Wagner-Smith Commission have been taking testimony and upon which they are now about to make final report.

To secure such support for this commission's final bills as they promise to deserve and to furnish opportunity for public discussion of what has been done—and perhaps left undone—the New York Association for Labor Legislation has arranged to devote its annual meeting to the one subject—the New Labor Law and Its Enforcement. President pro tem Wagner, Speaker Smith and Abram I. Elkus of the commission with Samuel McCune Lindsay and I. M. Rubinow will deliver short addresses and then promises to follow, what is rare in annual meetings, real

discussion of the principal papers. Among those who will lead in the discussion will be Dr. George M. Price, Dr. W. Gilman Thompson, Prof. Henry R. Seager, Josephine Goldmark, Edward T. Devine, Frances Perkins, Mornay Williams, Thomas I. Parkinson and Owen R. Lovejoy.

The meeting which will be open to the public will be held in the Assembly Hall of the United Charities Building at 3 o'clock Saturday afternoon, January 25.

#### THE DANGER POINT IN MINES

The United States Bureau of Mines in its vigorous campaign for safety, is appealing directly to the miner himself. Miners' Circular 9 by George S. Rice, issued recently, dispels some current impressions as to the greatest source of danger. It is not explosions of gas or dust.

"Great mine explosions shock the public," says the report, "but in 1911 falls of roof and of coal in the coal mines of this country killed over three times as many miners as were killed by explosions, and as many as were killed by all other accidents underground. Very few recover from the injuries they receive in an explosion; usually it is a matter of either life or death. On the other hand, each year thousands of coal miners are caught by falls of roof and coal, and hundreds are killed or are crippled for life."

In the period of 1907 to 1911 inclusive 13,874 men were killed and although this period includes some of the worst mining disasters of modern times—such as the Cherry mine in Illinois, the disasters at Monongah, W. Va.; Primero and Starkville, Col.; Banner and Palos mines, in Alabama, and Briceville, Tenn.—yet nearly half of all fatalities, 6,024, were due to falls of roof and coal. The circular is designed to promote methods that will reduce this danger.

#### BAY STATE A BOYCOTTER?

"Massachusetts Protects the Boycotter" is the caption over a gleeful editorial that is going the rounds of the labor press. The reference is to the Minimum Wage Commission law which gives no authority to the commission to enforce its findings but in order to bring public opinion to bear, provides that "the names of employers who refuse to accept the recommendation of the commission shall be published in at least four newspapers in each county of the commonwealth in type not smaller than that in which ordinary news is printed." This, says the labor editorial, sounds a good deal like an unfair list, the logical use of which has brought down upon the heads of the hatters' union a fine of \$240,000 and has brought the president and two other executive officials of the American Federation of Labor in dangerous proximity to the inside of jail cells. Rather pertinently the editorial further asks the question why the state of Massachusetts can do this when labor men trying to establish a minimum wage for themselves cannot do it.

#### ARBITRATION IN SWITZERLAND

A law of Basel passed this year established a permanent board of three non-partisan members for the settlement of labor disputes and con-



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tained a clause, making appearance in court compulsory. Zurich has a similar board, which settled about 75 per cent of the disputes with which the court was besieged. As the appearance of litigants could not be forced, however, the more important cases never came up for conciliation or arbitration. A new code has recently been brought before the assembly by representatives of employers and employed, including a clause like that in the Basel law, making trial or arbitration compulsory before strikes or lockouts can be declared. The board consists of a president and one employer and one employe, and an award only goes into effect if both parties are willing to accept it.

Surety may be required from both sides for its executing.

SOME PROPOSED LABOR MEASURES IN MICHIGAN

Last month a group of union labor men, college professors, women and lawyers gathered in the Michigan state senate chamber at Lansing to discuss measures of various sorts which it was thought important to press upon the attention of the public. The meeting was called by Perry F. Powers, whose friends describe him as a labor commissioner "with a large view of the functions of his office. A resolution was adopted asking the governor-elect to appoint a minimum wage commission and asking the legislature to make an appropriation sufficient for its investigation.

It was voted that no exceptions should be made to the industries which come under the law limiting the work of women to fifty-four hours a week. At present this law excludes hospitals, telephone exchanges and canneries. Several of the union labor men wanted amendments to the law which would prohibit women from working in particular occupations, such as core rooms in foundries. The commissioner of labor was asked to appoint a committee to draw up a bill which would provide means for finding out what occupations are dangerous to the health of women and for prohibiting them from working therein. The conference favored a pension for mothers and an eight-hour day for both men and women, especially for those in the continuous industries where the 12-hour day now obtains.

At present Michigan has no law restraining children from street trades. The bill which this body proposed prohibits boys under twelve from selling papers and those between twelve and fourteen from doing so except when they have a permit from the school authorities. It is also designed to regulate other street trades. No one is to be allowed in night messenger service until twenty-one.

CHARGE 199 VIOLATIONS OF CHILD LABOR LAW

The Diamond Match Company is the defendant in a suit brought by the state of Wisconsin to recover \$19,900 fines for 199 violations of the Wisconsin Child Labor Law. The so-called "match trust" is alleged to employ a large number of children between fourteen and sixteen years of age and to keep them at work beyond the hours permitted by the Wisconsin law.



## CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

(Continued from page 523.)

churches. In addition to its municipal farm, women's reformatory, parole department, factory inspection and labor statistics, the Board of Public Welfare conducts a legal aid bureau, a welfare loan agency, a social service department for family rehabilitation and hospital social service, a department for the homeless and unemployed, with employment bureau, meals and lodgings and a municipal quarry; a recreation department covering inspection of dance halls, investigation of commercial recreation and social center work; a research bureau for housing and special investigations; charities endorsement and registration and vacant lot gardening.

### JOTTINGS

#### CO-OPERATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH

The present administration of the Michigan State Board of Health went to work believing that it could do more for health conservation through awakening public interest and co-operation than in any other way. It is succeeding by varied and persistent efforts in enlisting the county commissioners of schools, school teachers, the rural folk, commercial travelers, insurance companies, the newspapers, the railway managers and the ministers and churches. The railway men promptly co-operated. Although slower to respond the ministers are gradually coming into line with this enlightened public policy. Foremost among them is the Rev. M. L. Fox, district superintendent of the Niles Methodist Episcopal Conference, who has organized sanitary, civic Christian leagues for practical lines of work in every community in his district.

His response to the board's public appeal for co-operation is noteworthy. It reads:

"I like the tone of your letter. I am quite anxious to experiment a little along the line of better working conditions in my rural charges. I shall want to plan some *Institutes of a Day* in country churches, giving a program of talks and lectures on farm life sanitation and allied topics of interest. My plan will be along the line of applied science and Christianity to make the churches lead. I would be glad for any suggestions you could and would proffer."

#### AUTHORSHIP OF TOLEDOAN'S CREED

That Toledoan's Creed published in the last number of this department failed to be accompanied by the statement which would have added interest in it to every reader that it was written by the Rev. Ernest Bourner Allen, pastor of the Washington Street Congregational Church of that city, for a competitive contest inaugurated by the Toledo Commerce Club.

#### DISCUSSIONS OF FEDERAL COUNCIL

The summary of discussions and actions at the Quadrennial session of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America which was described in the last number of this department, can be secured at 215 Fourth Avenue, New York.

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The Journal publishes monthly articles by leading public health workers in America, dealing with such topics as food, clothing, rest, exercise and sane methods for outdoor living and sleeping. It is an invaluable aid to anyone interested in the treatment or prevention of Tuberculosis.

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**JOURNAL OF THE OUTDOOR LIFE**

289 Fourth Avenue, New York

## HEALTH

(Continued from page 518.)

with the instructions of physicians. The forestry board he suggested could also lease small tracts of land to patients who might raise garden truck and chickens for the neighboring public resorts. A number of physicians who have made a special study of tuberculosis have declared that they strongly favor Mr. Griffith's plan.

### THE HYGIENE OF SWIMMING-POOLS

The care of swimming-pools in educational institutions, athletic clubs and public playgrounds has of late years attracted considerable attention. Notable studies have been made, among which may be especially mentioned those at Brown University, and by Dr. William J. Lyster at the University of Pennsylvania. In New York, H. F. J. Porter, secretary of the Efficiency Society, has led in calling the attention of the health authorities on this subject. Dr. M. P. Ravenel, director of the State Hygiene Laboratory of Wisconsin, has recently investigated conditions in the bathing-pools in the University of Wisconsin, and in a recent issue of the *Journal of the American Medical Association* he reports his findings. It seems possible that a swimming-pool with a limited supply of water, when used by a large number of persons, may convey disease from one to the other.

The danger from typhoid fever is the one chiefly considered by Dr. Ravenel and he thinks that there is no doubt that contaminated water may produce this disease in swimmers as the water is not infrequently taken into the mouth. The men's gymnasium at the University of Wisconsin is much overcrowded. The swimming-pool has a capacity of 97,000 gallons. The tank is emptied, cleaned and filled with water from Lake Mendota once each week. Approximately 275 men use the tank each day until Saturday, when the number is much increased. All must take a shower-bath before entering the pool.

But in spite of this precaution examinations made during 1910, 1911 and 1912, have shown that the number of bacteria gradually increases, the maximum being reached about the middle of the week, followed by a decrease until Saturday, when a considerable increase is again apparent. The chemical examinations show the presence of considerable organic matter in the lake water.

Experiments were carried out on the action of hypochlorite of lime in purifying the water in the swimming-tank. When one part of chlorin to a million parts of water was used, the water became practically sterile. To obtain entirely satisfactory results under the conditions as they exist at Wisconsin, hypochlorite of lime must be added to the swimming-pool twice each week. Dr. Ravenel concludes that contagious diseases can be spread by means of artificial swimming-pools, and that if the water contains the germs of typhoid fever they can be taken into the system. With ordinary water and with a pool of good capacity, the change once a week keeps the water in fairly good condition. The addition of hypochlorite of lime, however, is a simple, cheap and safe procedure which insures absolute safety.



# THE SURVEY

## *The Be-nighted States of America*

*In the black states below women can be worked as long by night as by day*



*Forty-two state legislatures will be in session this year.  
How does your state stand in the roster of night work?  
Turn to Josephine Goldmark's statement on page 552.*



## THE PITH OF IT

**A**S a result of last week's strikes, another segment of the garment trades has been brought under a protocol of peace—the dress and waist making industry.

**T**WO days after the publication of a report charging him with inefficiency and violation of law, Frederick H. Mills resigned his position as sales agent of the Department of State Prisons of New York. It is charged that his connection with private manufacturing concerns has been responsible for many of the shortcomings of the state use system of production. P. 537.

**I**F you were a policeman, with nothing to do all day but walk a beat, how much time would you spend in saloons and other places where you could keep warm and have somebody to talk to? Samuel S. Fels ventures some suggestions on how to make a "copper's" life less "dull and stupid." P. 544.

**T**HE German government has recently published a draft code for the procedure against juvenile offenders. One of its provisions is that the public attorney shall decide in individual cases whether the principle of prosecution is to be abandoned in favor of educational measures. P. 540.

**H**OW the uncared-for epileptic fares in Illinois. P. 540.

**T**HOSE who urged the removal of Capt. Delaney from the chief factory inspectorship of Pennsylvania are not feeling sure whether his dismissal will result in improved law enforcement or not. His temporary successor, it is said, is not likely to do much better than he. The proposed child labor bill has wide backing throughout the state. P. 541.

**"A** GROWING tendency to regard the business of insurance a proper adjunct of government" was described recently before the Association of Life Insurance Presidents. P. 538.

**T**HE gaudy advertisements which lure unemployed men into the United States army do not mention the possibilities of contracting disease. But the secretary of war says that the record of our troops in the matter of venereal disease is "shameful beyond that of the army of any other civilized nation." P. 539.

**T**HAT laws can make men better by affecting the conditions of living is declared by the law officer of the Bureau of Insular Affairs to be a conviction today with many persons. How far, he inquires, does the American Bar Association share this and similar views. P. 542.

**C**OOK County, Illinois, is a great agency for social work. Working in the same field are many private philanthropies, and to effect a better understanding and co-operation between them a joint committee has been created. P. 538.

# THE SURVEY

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JANUARY 25, 1913

## THE COMMON WELFARE

### THE SHADOW OVER NEW YORK'S STATE USE SYSTEM

The resignation of Frederick H. Mills, sales agent of the Prison Department of New York state, was tendered to Governor Sulzer last week. Mr. Mills' displacement would bring to an end a situation first made public by *THE SURVEY*.<sup>1</sup> Since the "state use" system of prison production was established in New York it has been under the shadow of Mr. Mills' dual allegiance. His private enterprises have been selling goods to the same institutions with which he has had to deal as a public official.

Mr. Mills' resignation came two days after the publication of the report by John D. McMahon which charged him with having "not been efficient in the discharge of his duties and loyal to the interests of the state." This report on the position of sales agent was filed with Governor Dix September 3, 1912, but was not then made public. Shortly after Governor Sulzer took office he received from the United Garment Workers of America a request for an examination of the case against Mr. Mills. Governor Sulzer instituted a search for the McMahon report but it could not be found. Mr. McMahon was then asked to produce another copy and this was given to the press.

The main points in the evidence against Mr. Mills were presented by *THE SURVEY* in the editorial referred to above. Chief among them is his organization of the Hamlin Supply Company early in 1911. As sales agent it is Mr.

Mills' duty to provide a market for articles manufactured in New York prisons. This market is limited to the state and its political divisions. The chief purpose of the Hamlin Supply Company, says Mr. McMahon, was that of

"supplying articles to the charitable institutions of the state, particularly its state hospitals. He himself was the Hamlin Supply Co. \* \* \* For a year following the organization of this company Mr. Mills did a large business with state institutions, principally state hospitals. His bills which passed through the lunacy commission amounted to several thousand dollars each month. He testified that he made money by these sales; that the object of establishing the business was to make money."

Vouchers in the comptroller's office, Mr. McMahon charges, show that Mr. Mills violated the law by selling to these institutions even articles which were advertised by him in the prison catalogues as goods manufactured in the prison.

Mr. Mills' friends have claimed that he brought singular abilities to the administration of an office which could only command a fraction of his time; his critics, that under such confusion of public and private interests the prison industries could not develop to their fullest extent. It is further claimed that the state use system which, its advocates hold, represents "the most broadly conceived plan to conserve trade education and self-sustaining labor as elements in a system of prison industry" could not demonstrate its highest usefulness in the state of its birth.

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, April 13, 1912, p. 94.



## PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CHARITY CO-OPERATING

A step has been taken in Cook County, Illinois, to bring about a more effective co-operation between the county commissioners, who administer public charity, and the private philanthropic agencies of the city.

The county government involves an annual expenditure of about fourteen million dollars, which is nearly equal to that of the state government of Illinois. The public charity service of the community is almost wholly under the county board. Every year the work grows in volume and in social importance. The election of last November gave Cook county a president and board of commissioners which promises an efficient, business-like and constructive administration of these important affairs. It is in striking contrast to the inefficient, chaotic, demoralizing regime of the past two years.

The office of county agent, which is one of the divisions, has a budget of over \$3,000 and deals with something like 20,000 families a year. The Cook County Hospital, another branch, is the great charity service for the poor of the city and county. Over 30,000 patients pass through this hospital in one year. Oak Forest, the infirmary, has a population at all times of upwards of 3,000. Dunning, another branch, has a population of about 3,000.

The compensation for truant officers, the expense of the detention home, and the conduct of the Juvenile Court, comes through the county commissioners.

There are many other important phases of this work. These activities interlock at almost every turn with the work of the various private charitable and civic organizations. Indeed, the work of the county commissioners outside of making the budgets and collecting the taxes is a large charity organization in itself, with the welfare of the unfortunates of the city and county depending upon the honesty and efficiency of the commissioners.

In order that these relationships may be better understood, the president and commissioners have been in consultation with the representatives of the charitable and civic interests of the city. A committee has been formed for the purpose of studying and bringing about a more complete and satisfactory understanding and working arrangement between these forces, which are, after all, seeking to accomplish the same end.<sup>1</sup> This committee will meet from time to time with the commissioners. Sub-committees, with a representative of the central committee as chairman, will furnish the means of studying and effecting better understanding and co-operation.

<sup>1</sup>This committee consists of Sherman C. Kingsley, chairman, Mrs. James F. Kennedy, Mrs. James A. Britton, Minnie Low, Edna Foley, Eugene T. Lles, and Joseph Meyer.

A co-operative working agreement, with possibilities of suggestion and constructive criticism, is needed as much by the private agency as by the public, and the committees aim to represent both forces.

It is believed that this move augurs well for a thoughtful study of the many problems which are quite free from political considerations.

## STATE SUPERVISION VS. STATE INSURANCE

Last year William H. Hotchkiss, then New York state superintendent of insurance, urged before the Association of Life Insurance Presidents at their annual meeting, government supervision of premium rates as the only means of staying the tide that is setting toward state insurance. At this year's meeting, a few months after the Wisconsin State Insurance Law had gone into effect, the present New York state superintendent of insurance, William T. Emmet, speaking on the need of more progressive supervision of private insurance companies, said:

"In the background of this whole subject of insurance supervision stands the larger problem of governmental or state insurance. We are living in a time of intellectual and political upheaval, and in the forefront of every progressive program throughout the world today we find, in crystallized form, this demand that the state shall take over the business of insurance and conduct it. We find, indeed, that in several of the European nations elaborate systems of state insurance are now in force, and that similar projects, differing from each other in details but not in principle, are being inaugurated in some of our own states. There has as yet been no prohibition against private capital going into the insurance business in competition with the government, although this may well follow if the experiments which have already been started in the direction of state insurance prove in the least successful.

"Splendid as have been the results of private enterprise in building up this great business to its present state of efficiency, I am not one of those who believe that the movement in the direction of governmental absorption of the insurance business is likely to die out very quickly. The undercurrent is setting the other way. The people in their organized capacity feel surer of themselves than they ever felt before—surer of their right to invade the realm of private business to its uttermost limits, and surer of their ability to produce better results through governmental agencies than have ever been produced through private enterprise. The growing demand for state insurance is based, of course, on the fundamental proposition that insurance is a universal need, an absolute public necessity. All the campaigns which the companies have themselves waged to establish that view of insurance in the mind of the average man are now bearing their inevitable fruit in this grow-



ing tendency to regard the business of insurance a proper adjunct to government. . . .

"I am bound to say that if the present drift toward Socialism continues, it is not likely that even the upbuilding of great supervisory departments such as we are now trying to maintain in New York will have more than a temporary effect in quieting the demand for state insurance. In the end it may even be advanced as the final argument in favor of it, just as the companies' contention that insurance is a universal commodity has been used to the same end. Once a department of insurance supervision reaches a point of efficiency where it has attracted to itself talent and capacity equal perhaps to that which is found in the service of the insurance companies, the question is certain to be asked why all this elaborate and efficient machinery should not be utilized by the people in the direct transaction of the insurance business. There are answers which can be made to that question, of course, from the companies' standpoint, but when a revolution is on those answers sometimes do not carry very far. So that, while I may exaggerate the situation somewhat, it seems to me that at the present time those who are interested in keeping the business of insurance in private hands face rather a critical condition. If, in addition to opposing state insurance, they also seek to avoid strict and efficient supervision, they are entirely lost, because there is nothing plainer to me than that for the moment strict supervision is the one thing which stands in the way of state insurance. On the other hand, if conservative insurance men should now co-operate strongly in the creation of a system of strict state supervision—hoping that this will quiet the demand for state insurance,—they are apt to find that the structure of supervision which they have helped to build up will, by reason of its very efficiency, serve perhaps as the final strong argument for the taking-over of the business of insurance by the state.

"The truth is, the situation is completely and entirely beyond the power of any group of men to materially control. It is in the lap of the gods, and none can say now what the final answer will be. I am enough of an optimist to believe that, whatever the outcome, no disaster will ensue. If the drift toward Socialism continues,—involving necessarily the ultimate taking over of insurance by the government,—it will at least be a gradual process, and, by the time it has been completed, the world will doubtless be ready for it. In that event, other generations will have much to be grateful for to the men of this generation who have educated the world to the value of insurance as an institution and who have established for all time the basic principles upon which the business must be managed. If, on the other hand, the drift toward governmental ownership stops before it sweeps the business of insurance away from its present moorings, into the control of the people in their organized capacity, that result will be largely due to a recognition of the fact that the insurance which people are now able to get from the

great companies is amply sufficient for all their needs—that it is as safe as the Bank of England and administered with just as much fiduciary responsibility now as it would be by any public officer.

"Here and there, in some of the nooks and crannies of the insurance world which I have to look into, I find that that condition is still far from existing. Here and there, even among great companies, I find sporadic departures from the ideals and standards which should prevail. But, broadly speaking, I can say with absolute truth—and it gives me the greatest possible pleasure to say it—that the strongest impression which my work so far in the field of insurance supervision has left upon my mind is one of unqualified admiration for the courage, the capacity, the integrity, and the breadth of vision of the men who are leaders today in the insurance business in the United States. No men have been more responsive to the progressive thought of the time. None have labored more effectively and faithfully for the public good."

#### VENEREAL DISEASES IN AMERICAN ARMY

There is some plain speaking in the annual report of Henry L. Stimson, secretary of war, about venereal diseases in the army—a subject not mentioned in the gaudy advertisements which lure unemployed men to the ranks. "Shameful beyond that of the army of any other civilized nation" is the way in which Mr. Stimson characterizes the record of the American troops, and this record he believes to be due to "our own shortcomings as a nation in dealing with this matter."

He continues:

"So long as in our civil communities, and particularly in our larger cities, we continue to close our eyes to the magnitude and extent of the evil and refrain from attacking it with all of the weapons which modern scientific knowledge places in our hands, it can not but be expected that the younger men in our army, leading the abnormal life of the soldier, will show the effect of the evil to a marked degree. In this respect I believe that the so-called anti-canteen legislation has been responsible for much vice."

It appears that the percentage of venereal disease continues to be higher than that of any other disease. The medical corps has introduced careful methods of inspection and diagnosis during the past year, and one result has been that there has been a larger percentage of hospital admissions for syphilis than in former years. This is owing, it is stated, to the detection of cases heretofore latent and unsuspected. Lectures and instruction are now given throughout the service to the men, and Congress has lent a hand by enacting legislation which stops the pay of officers and men "during periods of disability caused by such misconduct." The pocket nerve responds quickly to discipline.



## EUROPE AND THE JUVENILE COURT

Almost every week one or two foreign experts sit next to an American juvenile court judge so that they may learn by observation how the court works. It would seem as if everyone familiar with the children's court would know that the idea of punishment has given way to the conception of reformation by educational measures. But, as was recently shown at the second congress of juvenile court judges and workers in Munich, punishment for the commitment of crimes is still advocated by a large majority.

America's example and the efforts of German workers induced the German government lately to publish a draft code for the procedure against juvenile offenders which, it is expected, will bring order out of the existing chaos. According to this code juveniles are people under eighteen years of age. In each judicial district there is to be established a juvenile court consisting of a learned judge and two laymen, chosen from educators and teachers. The principle of prosecution is to be abandoned, if educational measures are preferable to punishment. The public attorney decides this question. In such cases the court of guardianship places the children under probation or in institutions. The accused juvenile may be defended by a lawyer or by some other person interested in the case. While awaiting trial, the juvenile is not to be imprisoned, but may be temporarily confined in a reformatory. At trial and in prison, juveniles must be separated from adults.

The court must consider the mental and physical development of the juveniles over fourteen years before passing sentence. Germany has been obliged to adopt the system of paid probation officers, assisted by volunteers. The cities, in a few instances, private societies in most, pay their salaries.

It was brought out at the conference that even Russia has made some progress and lately has adopted the suspension of sentence in cases of minors. Minors are placed under the care of probation officers (*Kurators*) but with little success. A story was told of 667 minors who were placed under probation in St. Petersburg. Seventy-seven disappeared, forty-six had to be placed in reformatories and of the rest fifty-four stole again and were held to the criminal courts.

France and Italy, it was declared, have not made much headway in the treatment of delinquent children, though the criminality of minors increases in both countries at an alarming rate. Private societies there care for accused minors, defend their cases in court and take charge of them if they are released on parole. The work

of such societies, found in nearly all large cities, is especially successful if good judges co-operate with them.

## THE PLEAS OF 10,000 EPILEPTICS IN ILLINOIS

A singularly human document is a little pamphlet entitled *How the Uncared-for Epileptic Fares in Illinois*. It is issued by the volunteer committee of fifty, which includes some of the most representative and influential men and women of the state. Through pictures and descriptions of personal experience, epileptics tell their own pathetic needs for public care. The titles under which these stories are told tempt one to read further. Here is one of them.

### UNITS FROM AN ARMY OF TEN THOUSAND

"Doctor, I can't get work. No one will have me when they find out. My friends avoid me. I am less of a man than I was six months ago. I can feel myself going. This can't go on. I know that there is no place in Illinois for any one with epilepsy. But, doctor, I've got to do something. For God's sake, can't you help me? Can't I be arrested and sent to the bridewell?"

The doctor, a citizen of the seventh senatorial district, saw the young fellow walk out of the door and into the street without a shadow of a promise of help which he hoped to get. The interview was one of those tragic human contacts, a great need revealing itself to a big heart and an able, sympathetic mind, but nevertheless, as helpless as it was big and able. It left one man with a little less courage to hold himself from slipping, the other sick at heart to sit impotent in front of an appeal like that.

Many such stories are arranged in the pamphlet under senatorial districts, whose citizens and representatives in the legislature are thereby made to feel responsibility for the existence and continuance of such conditions. A map shows the population of each district and is accompanied by a table giving the number of epileptics in each—10,000 in all.

When such concrete personal facts have driven home their appeal the contrast is drawn between what Illinois fails to do and what nine other states are succeeding in doing for these afflicted people. Over against the Illinois almshouses, insane asylums, station houses, jails and distracted homes which house many of these wretched people, the epileptic colonies of those other states are effectively pictured and their results and costs tabulated. In planning a colony for Illinois, it is estimated that provision should be made at once for 2,500 epileptics, with an acre for each patient. A program for the campaign tells what each one can do and how to do it. Enough public sentiment has been aroused to secure the passage of bills for the establishment of a colony, but never enough to secure an appropriation to carry the act into effect.



## CHILD LABOR IN PENNSYLVANIA

CHARLES L. CHUTE

Executive Secretary, Pennsylvania  
Child Labor Association

There are unmistakable signs that Pennsylvania is thoroughly aroused to the fact that among the states of the North today it occupies a backward position in the protection afforded to its toilers in factory, store and mine, especially its women and children. The Pennsylvania Child Labor Association has met with powerful foes—"machine" legislatures and administrations unresponsive to the will of the people. Truly significant, therefore, was the summary dismissal by Governor Tener on January 5 of Captain John C. Delaney, chief of the Department of Factory Inspection. For years Mr. Delaney and his department have been the target of criticism and attack by civic organizations and organized labor throughout the state. These have hitherto failed to result in action on the part of Governor Tener or any of his predecessors. The chief factory inspector has had the backing of the glass manufacturers and other powerful industrial interests. Towards the close of 1912, the child labor association, following a searching investigation into the history and personnel of the department, sent written charges to the governor. These had to do not only with bad factory inspection, but also with letters calling on subordinates to contribute to campaign funds. In presenting charges and asking that the governor take action the association was joined to this end by the Consumers' League and the Central Labor Union of Philadelphia.

Governor Tener said he would take the matter under consideration. Just as the association was growing impatient at the governor's delay and was considering the advisability of going before the courts with its charges, an alleged interview with Delaney was published in a number of Pennsylvania papers. The gist of this interview was that Delaney had in his possession the confession of John H. Sanderson, the contractor who furnished the state capitol some years ago, and was convicted in the famous graft cases. By means of this confession, so the interview ran, Delaney could involve in serious misconduct men high in the state's administration and party politics in Pennsylvania.

This was on Friday. On Sunday Governor Tener summarily dismissed Delaney. The governor's explanatory statement to the press contained this sentence:

"If he [Delaney] has any information which should be made public and which he withholds because of his position, I want to relieve him of that embarrassment."

Later Governor Tener wrote a letter to the Child Labor Association in which he said that he would look for the best man in the state to take Delaney's place. This followed the appointment of the Rev. C. V. Hartzell, chief clerk in the Department of Factory Inspection since 1903. A number of the organizations which opposed Delaney would probably be just as much opposed to Mr. Hartzell, were it not for an explanation from the governor that his appointment was temporary and would continue only until the legislature took action on the proposed re-organization of the enforcement of labor laws in the state. This proposal was made by Governor Tener in a message sent to the legislature a few days after Delaney's removal. The governor urged the creation of a Department of Labor and Industry, which should include the Department of Factory Inspection and the Bureau of Industrial Statistics. The duty of such a department, said Governor Tener, would be "to enforce fearlessly and honestly the laws of the state protecting labor and to collect statistics which would result in wiser and more efficient labor laws."

All who have worked for social reform through legislation are counting on the next legislature. Independent in its make-up and progressive in its personnel, it is confidently expected to enact a series of advanced laws. Throughout the political campaign the demand for better child labor laws was prominent. Every party, even the so-called organization leaders, declared for them. Both the Republican and Democratic parties, reorganized and controlled by the so-called Progressives, are for them. Throughout the state the press has voiced the demand for better laws and also for reorganized and efficient factory inspection.

Furthermore, the child labor association has been reorganized, with a strong fighting body in both the eastern and western ends of the state co-operating in a state-wide campaign. Early last summer the association prepared a comprehensive child labor bill or code. The "uniform child labor law" was adapted to the peculiar conditions in the state. The act was submitted to the Republican Legislative Committee and, with some improvements, was adopted as the committee's bill. Since then it has undergone other changes, all, it is believed, for the better. It has been printed in several editions and circulated through the state. Public hearings have been held by the legislative committee in Philadelphia, Williamsport and Pittsburgh.

Its principal provisions are:

1. A fourteen year age limit for all employment or work excepting "work on a farm, in a



private home and in street trades." The present law leaves many loopholes even in this elementary restriction.

2. A sixteen year age limit in all dangerous and injurious work. Lists of such occupations were compiled from all other state laws. Here the signal advance for Pennsylvania would be the exclusion of more than 5,000 boys from the dangerous and injurious work of the coal breaker and about mines.

3. An eighteen year limit in extra hazardous employments.

4. The Factory Inspection Department is given the right to add to these lists of dangerous occupations from which minors should be excluded after a public hearing.

5. The eight-hour day, forty-eight hour week and no work after 6 p. m. for all children employed under sixteen. A ten-hour day, fifty-eight hour week is now allowed and night work except in "continuous industries" forbidden after 9 p. m. The new provision will do away with the notorious "glass exception" which now allows more than 2,000 boys under sixteen to work nine hours on night shifts in glass factories.

6. A nine-hour day, fifty-hour week (after September 1, 1914) for all boys under eighteen and girls under twenty-one. If a companion bill advocated by the Consumers' League regulating the employment of women passes, this provision together with no work in factories after 10 p. m. will apply to all women and after 9 p. m. to all girls under twenty-one in all industries.

7. All minor boys to be excluded from the night messenger service with its moral hazards throughout the state. Pennsylvania allows boys of fourteen and fifteen in this work today.

8. A twelve-year age limit is fixed for news-boys throughout the state, and work on the streets after eight at night forbidden under sixteen. A system of badges is introduced. Regulation of street trades is entirely new to Pennsylvania.

9. A greatly improved system of employment certificates is proposed. It provides:

(a) One issuing office in each school district. (b) Compulsory medical examination. (c) Completion of at least the fifth grade in school. (d) Reliable evidence of age. The parent's affidavit will no longer be accepted. (e) Statement of the intention of employer to give work and the return of the certificate upon the child's leaving his job. This is known as the Ohio plan. It has proven successful in Wisconsin also. The present law imposes no physical test and only the reading and writing requirement educationally.

10. Improved enforcement and penalty sections are included.

Besides being actively supported by the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association and the Republican Legislative Committee, the bill has been favorably received by leading Democrats in the state. It has received the endorsement of the State Federation of Labor, the State Educational Association, the Federation of Pennsylvania Women, the Interchurch Federation of Philadelphia and other organizations. It is believed that every organization in the state seeking better child labor laws will be back of this bill upon its introduction in the legislature this month. If the bill passes it will bring about a very great reform in a state which today numbers in its industrial army more than 40,000 child workers.

## THE ZEITGEIST AND THE JUDICIARY

FELIX FRANKFURTER

Law Officer of the Bureau of Insular Affairs,  
United States War Department

The American Bar Association, at its recent meeting, adopted a vigorous report condemning the recall of judges. Giving full weight to the force of this report and the public spirit that conceived it, one is yet compelled to the conviction that the American Bar Association fell short of its responsibility in not going beyond negative criticism and suggesting much needed procedural reforms to an inquiry concerning the causes of the deep social ferment that partly expresses itself in the proposal of the judicial recall.

The tremendous economic and social changes of the last fifty years have inevitably reacted upon the functions of the state. More and more, government is conceived as the biggest organized social effort for dealing with social problems. Our whole evolutionary thinking leads to the conclusion that economic independence lies at the very foundation of social and moral well-being. Growing democratic sympathies, justified by the social message of modern scientists, demand to be translated into legislation for economic betterment, based upon the conviction that laws *can* make men better by affecting the conditions of living. We are persuaded that evils are not inevitable, and that it is the business of statesmanship to tackle them step by step, tentatively, experimentally, not demanding perfection from social reforms any more than from any other human efforts.

This hopeful experiment is world-wide, but in this country it encounters a unique factor, for in the United States, social legislation must pass challenge in the courts, it must have the *visé* of our judiciary.



The exercise of this power by our judges is so elementary a feature of our constitutional system that until recently we little considered the true nature of the problems involved in it. Social legislation concerns itself with economic and social conditions, and aims at their conscious readjustments. For social legislation deals with the stuff of life. And, in so far as they have the last word on this legislation, our courts are concerned with economic and social questions, which can be rightfully solved only by a due regard to the facts which induced the legislation. For instance, in passing upon the constitutionality of an eight-hour law for bakers, just what principles of jurisprudence are to be resorted to for guidance? Questions of hygiene, of health, of the present conditions of the industry, the occasion for protecting this particular class against its employers, and the public against both employer and employee—these are the considerations, it would seem, which ought to be vitally in the minds of the judges. Is it really to be doubted that in passing upon the validity of a workman's compensation act, a court cannot get at the heart of the question without concerning itself, whether avowedly or implicitly, with economic and social questions? It involves a consideration of the vital changes produced by modern industrialism, the bearing of such legislation to the fair adjustments of the inevitable risks of modern industry, the promotion of harmonious relations between capital and labor and the resulting peace to the community—in a word, its promotion of the social welfare.

When the Supreme Court sustained the validity of legislation restricting the hours of work for women, it may have invoked legal principles and resorted to law books, but predominantly it considered the facts of life, marshaled with overwhelming force by Louis D. Brandeis, drawn from medical data, industrial reports, and the experience of the world. And so, as the minimum wage bills, the first of which has already been passed by the Massachusetts legislature, come up for judicial determination, the decisive considerations that will inevitably confront the courts will be the facts of the particular industries, and the right of the community to insist upon a social wage as the first condition of human welfare over against the claim of the individual's unrestricted industrial enterprise. Facts, not general principles or well-worn phrases, must of necessity be the determinants.

The viewpoint here urged has, fortunately, during the last few years, received increasing application from the Supreme Court of the United States. Far in advance of any state court, our Supreme Court recently has come to realize time's change of emphasis, that new conditions bring new problems and press for new solu-

tions. Social legislation, under our constitutional system, must rest upon the exercise of the police power. Only the other day the Supreme Court said that "in a sense the police power is but another name for the power of government," and "that it extends to so dealing with the conditions which exist in the state as to bring out of them the greatest welfare of the people." But "the power of government" is a living power, constantly changing and developing to meet new conditions and to accomplish new purposes. And the conception of the people's welfare varies, according to the dominant opinion, with time and place. Necessarily, therefore, the police power as the power of government is no more stable than the conditions which induce its exercise. If facts are changing, law cannot be static. So-called immutable principles must accommodate themselves to facts of life, for facts are stubborn and will not yield. In a word, may not one venture the suggestion that constitutional law, in its relation to social legislation, is not at all a science, but applied politics, using the word in its noble sense?

It is important to recognize this not only abstractly, as an intellectual proposition, but to make it a dynamic part of the professional equipment of the legal habits of thought.

"The felt necessities of the time, the prevalent moral and political theories, intuitions of public policy, avowed or unconscious, even the prejudices which judges share with their fellowmen, have had a good deal more to do than the syllogism in determining the rules by which men should be governed."

Thus wrote Mr. Holmes more than thirty years ago. And because he has so vitally felt this, Mr. Holmes has been a powerful influence in the changed attitude of the Supreme Court. Speaking of the English bench, Professor Dicey, himself a distinguished conservative, says, while the judges

"are swayed by the prevailing belief of a particular time, they are also guided by professional opinions and ways of thinking which are, to a certain extent, independent of, and possibly opposed to, the general tone of public opinion. The judges are the heads of the legal profession. They have acquired the intellectual and moral tone of English lawyers. They are men advanced in life. They are for the most part persons of a conservative disposition."

It is because of this natural tendency of the legal profession, and because of the far-reaching power enjoyed by the bench in this country, that it is essential that a correct appreciation of the problems raised by social legislation should become a vital part of professional thinking. It is not only a delicate but an infinitely difficult human function which our



courts discharge in passing upon the limits of their own power. In so far as these questions are, necessarily, questions of fact, dealing with actual conditions of life and current dominant public opinion, it is essential that the stream of the *Zeitgeist* must be allowed to flood the sympathies and the intelligence of our judges. With a just and sympathetic appreciation of the social issues before them, it is safe to say that courts generally will reach the conclusion which one may gather from the recent Supreme Court decisions, namely: that which is reasonably defensible on economic or social grounds, whether or not it accords with our individual notions of economics, cannot be offensive on constitutional grounds. Otherwise, it necessarily follows that the constitution definitely incorporated an economic theory prevalent over a hundred years ago that may well be inadequate and unsuited to modern conditions, whereas, in truth, "a constitution is not intended to embody a particular economic theory . . . it is made for people of fundamentally differing views."

A distinguished statesman, seeking for a deeper explanation for the present widespread unrest than one generally hears, attributes it to our failure to make, through our legislation and constitutions, the readjustments demanded by the new conditions incident to the extraordinary industrial development of the last half century. One ventures the suggestions that it is demonstrable, as Prof. Roscoe Pound has shown, that one of the prime factors contributing to the current dissatisfaction is the fact that judges have thwarted legislative efforts at just such readjustment, not because of any coercion of the constitution, but by reason of their constitutional conservatism. Therefore, as to legislation of this character, the suggestion of constitutional amendments does not meet the situation, for back of the constitutional amendment is the construing power of the courts. Unless the profession, from whose ranks the courts are recruited, has the right attitude of approach to these questions, human ingenuity cannot frame language specific enough, even if desirable, to meet the situation. Mere words cannot induce insight and right sympathies or appreciative interpretation. On the other hand if our courts generally will have the attitude that the Supreme Court now has, it is safe to say that all social legislation which has the commanding facts of life behind it will be allowed to justify itself by experience.

The standards here suggested in dealing with the constitutionality of this class of legislation are broad, but not indefinite. The limits of the life of a people cannot be charted by easy rules of thumb. We are dealing with considerations as flexible and complex as the public welfare. The constitutional limitation upon the

law-making power is as definite, but not more so, as a reasonably possible view of the public welfare. This leaves us still unimpaired the benefits of the reviewing power of the judiciary in our governmental system, for the reflex action of the *existence* of this power on the part of the courts to set aside legislation restrains unwise legislative action and induces the scientific attitude of basing legislation only upon adequately ascertained facts. On the other hand, it does not make of the constitution a mere charter of negation upon the power of the state. The courts should be a restraining, but not a hampering force. Doubtless, grave mistakes in legislation will thus go unchallenged through the courts, but legislation is essentially empirical, experimental, and the constitution was not intended to limit this field of experimentation. Think of the gain of having experience demonstrate the fallacy of a law after the supreme court had sustained its constitutionality! For, as a wise man has truly said, to fail and learn by failure is one of the sacred rights of a democracy.

## THE POLICEMAN

SAMUEL S. FELS

Some time ago on a rainy day, I met a policeman in a factory office situated in a fair neighborhood, and on inquiry found that he was there simply to keep out of the wet. This led to a talk as to what he did on clear days, and his frank answer left a strong impression on my mind. He said in effect: "If your duty was to walk a beat all day, with nothing to do, with nothing to think about, you would spend as much time as I do in saloons and other places where you could keep warm and have somebody to talk to. The life is a fearfully dull and stupid one, and in this neighborhood there are few criminals and few drunks, and I think under the circumstances you would go wrong as often as I do, if you had my job."

The fact is, that the average policeman of today needs more work—work which will make him think—and the major part of the trouble with him is not having it. By filling this need, I believe some of the problems that beset every police force would be overcome.

Our American idea of the city policeman is largely tainted with the military spirit because the policeman is an evolution from the soldier—a civic soldier, it is true, but still a soldier—and he has not gotten very far away from his model. We still think of the policeman largely as a fighting man who ought to inspire fear.

Every body of soldiers that the world has ever known, unless it was kept in constant drill and action of some kind, deteriorated and became a menace in time of peace, and the same thing happens to a body of policemen. Graft, dis-



loyalty and laziness creep in and ruin the force.

Our ideas of the policeman's duties largely are that he shall walk his beat most of his time, see that law-abiding citizens are protected and criminals captured and punished. These ideas are the same as when the first policeman was put on a beat. We have never broken away from them. They came from the past, when the number of criminals in proportion to population was far greater than now.

It has been said that at the beginning of the nineteenth century, one in every twenty-two inhabitants was of the criminal class. Times and men have changed, but the idea of a policeman's work has not, though the American city of today has a much more law-abiding population than ever before.

Those of us who have lived in a large city for many years can remember the time when it was not safe for a man to go alone in many districts at night, and in some of the worst districts even in the day time. Now there are very few spots where even a woman would be molested.

The spread of intelligence, better street lighting, the work of the policeman, etc., have evolved a different and better community. The old gangs which brutalized so many neighborhoods have largely disappeared. Notwithstanding this change, the policeman is still the same class of man, set to do the same work, though this work has partially been wiped off the slate.

A policeman is selected now as in the past because of his size and build. He is supposed to have good character, but the requirements are largely physical. We are, therefore, in 1912 just as in the years gone by policing our cities with a lot of big, fine-looking men, untrained, except in a half-hearted military way, though the job that they are engaged to do has changed materially.

The force in large cities is composed of:

Day policemen and night policemen, who have regular beats to cover.

Special policemen, or detectives, who work at large on any case that comes to the department.

The traffic squad, which handles traffic in crowded centers. This is the only real development that has come to the force, and its existence is due to the increasing numbers of persons and vehicles in certain sections.

It would be interesting to make a list of the work done by other city employes within the limits of every policeman's beat, such as looking after truant and other children for the schools and for the compulsory education department; getting information of different kinds for the bureau of health and charities, serving notices, etc.; serving writs and notices for the law department of the city and for the courts; inspecting street cleaning, seeing that garbage and ashes are properly removed; inspecting street repairs and the condition of the pavements and streets

which may need repairs; collecting delinquent taxes, etc.

None of this work requires a high degree of skill and any fairly intelligent man can, in a short time, be trained to do it. The amount of it all in any policeman's beat is not great on any one day, and if it was added to the policeman's task would not in any way overwork him.

It seems to me that all such city work as this should be done by the day policeman. It would bring to the force a better class of men who would be brought in close contact with the people on their beats. Many of the men now on the force could be trained to do it, and such men would become practically social workers, knowing every family and house in their district, and would be of great aid in many directions—for instance, to those societies seeking out the poverty stricken and separating them from the frauds.

If the policeman was doing these things, it would make him no less a brave man when his bravery was needed. In some of the worst districts, he might require a smaller beat than now. By having this work done by the policemen, the city would be enabled to drop a considerable number of constables, inspectors, and similar officials who now do little work and get salaries far out of proportion to the services rendered.

The scheme is perfectly practicable and could be easily handled. Each afternoon the different departments of the city would send to the police or district headquarters the work for the policemen in these districts for the next day. Each night the policemen would make a report of the work performed, and these reports would be forwarded the next morning to the different departments. An officer would keep in touch with his central office by telephone, and arrangements could be made by which he could be reached very quickly by telephone in case he were needed at any time. At present a policeman can usually be had more quickly by telephoning to one of the stations than by going on street and hunting one.

The result of this scheme would be better work done for the city than now, a steady development of the policeman himself, making him an extremely valuable public servant, rather than as now offering every opportunity for deterioration.

The policeman would practically be the neighborhood representative of the government; he would have responsibility on his shoulders. He would have work to do, standing in the something to think about, and his position in the community would be infinitely high, because he would be looked on as a public official with important duties, rather than as a brutal man who loafs most of the time. The change would be a great advantage both to the city and the man.



## BOOKS

### HEREDITY AND EUGENICS

By CASTLE, COULTER, DAVENPORT, EAST and TOWER. The University of Chicago Press. 315 pp. Price \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.70.

This book puts in permanent form a course of nine lectures summarizing recent advances in knowledge in variation, heredity and evolution and its relation to plant, animal and human improvement and welfare, delivered during the summer of 1911 at the University of Chicago. As the lectures were not intended for those trained in biology their form is intended to be popular and they contain little new material. The lectures were given by five lecturers. This has naturally led to some overlapping of material. What little overlapping there is, however, more than compensated for by the printing of each lecture complete in itself as delivered.

John Merle Coulter, professor and head of the Department of Botany, the University of Chicago, delivered the opening two lectures discussing Recent Developments in Heredity and Evolution, and The Physical Basis of Heredity and Evolution from the Cytological Standpoint. The first lecture serves as a general introduction to the course, providing an historical background as a setting for the succeeding lectures, which are devoted to the work of today. In his second lecture the author raises the question whether there is any physical basis for the transmission of like and unlike characters; whether there is any substance or structure by means of which the phenomena of heredity manifest themselves.

Next follow two lectures by William Ernest Castle, professor of zoology, Harvard University, on The Method of Evolution and Heredity and Sex respectively. There are two schools of thinkers on the method of evolution: the one with Darwin believes that new species usually arise as the result of "a slow and gradual modification of the race, constantly in one direction"; the other school, the Mutationists, believe in a "Minerva-like method of evolution, the birth of new races in a day." The position of the lecturer is clearly stated in his own words: "Now I am inclined to think that Darwin was on the whole nearer the truth than the Mutationists. They have perceived a half-truth and perceived it more clearly than did Darwin, but in scrutinizing this they have lost sight of the larger picture which he saw. Darwin saw that new races arise in two ways." The remainder of the lecture is devoted to a justification of the author's position.

Two lectures by Edward Murray East, assistant professor of experimental plant morphology, Harvard University, follow—one on Inheritance in the Higher Plants and the other on The Application of Biological Principles to Plant Breeding. The lecturer makes clear the fact that the general acceptance of the theory of organic evolution made necessary a new botany as well as a new zoology.

The seventh lecture, delivered by William Lawrence Tower, associate professor of zoo-

logy, the University of Chicago, presents the Recent Advances and the Present State of Knowledge Concerning the Modification of the Germinal Constitution of Organisms by Experimental Processes. The lecture reviews at length the two schools of thought explaining the nature of variation: the one believing that personal peculiarities developed in life are transmitted to the progeny, through being in some manner incorporated into the germinal constitution of the race; the other school upholding the hypothesis that changes in the race arise primarily in the germinal substance itself and appear later in the soma or body cells. As between these two schools the author's position is clearly seen in his statement that "as far as experience warrants a conclusion, there is at present no escape from the general proposition that all variations that are productive of permanent germinal changes, arise primarily in the germ and appear secondarily in the soma" (body).

The two closing lectures of the course, on The Inheritance of Physical and Mental Traits of Man and Their Application to Eugenics, and Geography of Man in Relation to Eugenics, were delivered by Charles Benedict Davenport, Station of Experimental Evolution, Carnegie Institution of Washington. Dr. Davenport's studies lead him to believe not only in the inheritance of feeble-mindedness, deaf-mutism, etc., but in the inheritance of marked gradations of ability of many types. It is the lecturer's contention that one must look closely to the life stream of a nation, to its germ plasm, to secure progress and prevent decay. His lectures stress the importance of considering all marriage from an eugenical point of view.

In view of the high standing of the lecturers, each well qualified to speak on his subject, it would be difficult to take exception to the data presented. If one, however, is in the habit of approaching some of the cases cited in the last lecture, from the point of view of the environmentalist, he has a feeling that the author in his enthusiasm for eugenics, has claimed too much for heredity in the cases that he cites to prove the inheritance of mental ability. The author seems on much surer ground when discussing the inheritance of mental defect, such as feeble-mindedness. One is tempted to wish that since the lectures were intended primarily for a general university audience, and the book for a still more popular audience, that the methods of presentation had in some places been more popular. Nevertheless, the course of lectures is stimulating and will doubtless have its influence in popularizing a field of science rapidly assuming great social significance.

FRANK D. WATSON.

### YOUTH AND THE RACE

By EDGAR JAMES SWIFT. Charles Scribner's Sons. 342 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

Scourging the public schools has become a popular pastime. Some critics wield the lash wisely; many do not. To this latter class ap-



parently belong Edgar James Swift, professor of psychology and education in Washington University, St. Louis, a man whose keen mind and years of experience should save the making of unjust statements for which slight foundation exists.

Dr. Swift's latest book, *Youth and the Race*, is a study of the racial instincts of children, to determine how the school may utilize those primitive impulses to instill knowledge and to develop social consciousness. He deals with the spirit of romance—the desire to wander, to live in camps, secure booty, investigate, and fight. He says "A boy *will* be active, he insists upon adventures, and he is bound to show off." He tells of the growth of "gangs," the desire to be consulted, the tendency to exercise control. He makes a plea for the utilization and direction of these forces, and declares "If allowed to mature without control, these (racial) instincts retain all their primitive non-social or anti-social characteristics."

As an analysis of boy nature *Youth and the Race* is interesting if not new. The word "children" evidently means "boys" to Dr. Swift, for with one or two exceptions, and those slight ones, his illustrations and deductions ignore girls altogether.

The chief error of the book—and it is a very grave one—is that except in a few specific cases the author adopts an attitude of scornful condemnation for all schoolmen (especially superintendents) other than himself. He makes a strong plea for social centers, pupil government, individual teaching, but insists that progress along these lines is systematically blocked by the reactionary prejudice of school authorities. He says, for example, "Nearly every important duty beyond instruction which the schools have assumed has been undertaken only after long agitation by laymen. Not until the demands of the community have become irresistible have the authorities yielded. This was the case with medical inspection of pupils and with school nurses. The establishment of special schools for backward children was delayed until the popular demand became a menace. . . . When the public will no longer brook refusal, reforms are instituted and the next decade is spent in extolling the progress."

Anyone familiar with the history of education in this country knows that each of the reforms cited above was put in operation by schoolmen, who recognized an existing evil and insisted upon a remedy in the face of popular opposition. Let anyone who wishes light on this subject study, for example, the history of medical inspection legislation in America. Dr. Swift has only to search the educational records of his own city—the famous "St. Louis reports"—to learn how educational authorities are continually pleading with the people for the privilege of giving to the people better schools. In education at least, enlightened public opinion is the result of, not the cause of, educational reform. Reforms are instituted by individuals, not communities. The people are now receiving and always will

receive just as good schools as they are willing to stand for and to pay for.

This fact is so evident, so clear to anyone who takes the pains to study the field of education in America, that it is surprising to find a book written upon the assumption that school teachers are incompetent, principals cowardly, and superintendents time servers to their superiors and bullies to their subordinates.

Dr. Swift is not consciously unfair. He has made a mistake which is becoming increasingly common. What he seems to have done is to visit not the ordinary but the extraordinary schools of the country—the educational experiments; recognize their good work; and then, without taking the pains to find out what the rest of the schools are really doing, he compares what he has seen in the exceptional schools with what he assumes about the others. The grammar school of to-day is not the same as the grammar school of twenty years ago. There is room for improvement in the future; but there is already improvement over the past.

No matter how interesting a book may be, no matter how well written (and this book of Dr. Swift's is both interesting and well written) if it fails to recognize the keen interest, the enthusiasm, and the underlying sincerity of purpose among the school men and women of to-day, it cannot fail to place another stumbling block in the way of educational reform.

MAY AYRES.

#### PRESENT FORCES IN NEGRO PROGRESS

By W. D. WEATHERFORD, PH.D. Association Press. 191 pp. Price \$5.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$5.57.

#### THE NEGRO IN PENNSYLVANIA

By R. R. WRIGHT, JR. A. M. E. Book Concern.

#### THE NEGRO AT WORK IN NEW YORK CITY: A STUDY IN ECONOMIC PROGRESS

By GEORGE EDMUND HAYNES, PH.D. Longmans, Green and Co. 158 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.32.

When an author, and particularly a southern author, starts to write upon the Negro, we expect to find a considerable portion of his book devoted to his theories on the race problem. Dr. Weatherford's volume, however, wholly departs from this practice. He gives us not theory but facts; facts regarding Negro population, the Negro in agriculture, the rural schools, and the work of the southern white church and Young Men's Christian Association for the Negro. Some part of this information is compiled from the latest census publications, but another part is secured from state and county reports and from the writer's own careful observations. The book is scarce two hundred pages in length, but it is full of important matter written in a simple and interesting style.

Dr. Weatherford shows clearly some of the disadvantages under which the Negro labors in the South. He describes the crop mortgage system, still common, by which the tenant mortgages his crop in advance, and starts encumbered with debt. The manager's store, with its high prices and ready credit eats up that part of the crop that the worker was to have called his own, and the tenant finds himself at the year's end as poor as when he started.



The author is evidently a prohibitionist, and he cannot at first understand why many planters who condemn the Negro as worthless, unambitious and thriftless, and swear at him for getting drunk, yet give him whiskey. "I at length," he says, "found the real reason. The planter of this type prefers to get, as rent, one-fourth of what a Negro can make working four days in the week, and then get for whiskey nine-tenths of the remaining three-fourths." This method keeps a tenant continually in debt so that he must stick to the land.

Dr. Weatherford speaks with frankness regarding the backward condition of the colored rural public schools. The Negroes, he says, have adequate school buildings, the teachers are poorly paid, and the county superintendent often fails properly to supervise. The school term is short and the curriculum unsuitable. He scouts at the idea, advanced by some southerners, that the Negroes should receive for education only such funds as they pay in direct taxation. "The purpose of public education is to help those who cannot pay. The state has absolutely no business in educational work save to make better citizens of all."

While he is not afraid to show the dark side of Negro life in the South, the author devotes an equal amount of space to the hopeful aspect; the progress of the Negro farmer, the interest and support the Negroes themselves give to their schools, and the improvement in conditions in the Negro home. He dwells also on the awakened interest in Negro education on the part of the white man. He tells of a new type of county superintendent in Virginia, the young, highly educated gentleman, who devotes his entire time to supervision of Negro schools. And lastly, he describes the college man who studies Negro conditions with an open mind. This study is bringing its results in service.

He ends with a call for service, for sympathetic workers among the Negroes.

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Mr. Wright's book is an economic study which deals chiefly with the Negro in Philadelphia, though Pittsburgh and some other industrial centers receive mention. We hear nothing of the agricultural Negro whose numbers are too small to make a study of his condition seem important.

We learn that slavery began with the founding of Pennsylvania, but that it was early criticized, the German Quakers of Germantown in 1688 making the first recorded protest against slavery in the United States. We follow the colored man in Pennsylvania through the period of emancipation to the days of the abolitionist and the underground railroad, and see the important part the Pennsylvania Negro took in aiding the southern runaway and his acumen in at once denouncing the colonization society, a society that was only interested in ridding the land of free and intelligent Negroes like himself.

The Negro in Pennsylvania today suffers still from the desire of the white man to be rid of him. Even this Quaker colony gives him scant

welcome, but this volume tells us that despite his handicaps he is improving in industry and morality and means to remain and to increase.

Dr. Wright's story is familiar today to students and careful observers of the city Negro. It has, however, many interesting side lights. Some of the figures regarding property holding are important. For instance, the assessed valuation of Negro property throughout Pennsylvania may be estimated at between twenty and twenty-five millions, and the property of the Negro church at three millions. Where else in the country would we find proportionally such immense church holdings, and holdings that are free gifts! The growth within one generation of a professional class in Philadelphia is elaborated.

Dr. Wright for years has studied the Negro skilled worker, not only in Pennsylvania, but in Illinois and in the South, and he discusses carefully the position of the Negro and the trades union. In Philadelphia, few Negroes attempt to enter unions; they feel confident of refusal and work is possible without a union card. But among the iron and steel workers in such a center as Pittsburgh, the situation is different. There unionism, at various times, has been strong, and unions have been organized among the Negroes by white men, to prevent their acting as strike breakers. "The whole history of the situation, however, has been an attempt of white workmen to use Negroes to their advantage without giving corresponding advantages." It is small wonder, then, that the Negro doubts the doctrine of brotherhood when it is preached only on the eve of a strike.

The ostracism of the Negro from the best in the white world and his free admission to the worst Dr. Wright, who has been a social worker in both Chicago and Philadelphia, well understands. His chapter on crime shows that added to poverty and long hours the Negro child has the handicap of immoral surroundings. The white world very occasionally shows any sense of responsibility for the temptation it sets before him. Indeed, the book leaves us with a profound sense of the neglect of this great race problem by the people of the North.

And yet, after all, the one thing the Negro asks is that he cease to be a problem and be given a man's chance: "The greatest need of the Negro is economic freedom, economic justice; a state of public opinion that will give a fair field to struggling individuals identified with a submerged minority." And if he obtains this, will he not then see that he is still with the great mass of individuals struggling for "economic justice?" But at least it will be better and braver to struggle with the many than to repine with the few.

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Dr. Haynes is the director of the National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, and is thoroughly at home in his subject of the New York Negro as a wage-earner and in business.



The material for the chapters on the Negro as a wage-earner is derived from the national census of 1900 and the state census of 1905. The investigation of the Negro in business was done by Dr. Haynes personally and is minute in its details. The writer finds the Negro wage-earner in New York moving slowly away from domestic service into other positions; in some cases falling to the rank of unskilled labor, in other cases obtaining important tasks. His figures show, for instance, a large increase in the number of stationary firemen, and of such skilled mechanics as masons, plasterers and carpenters. He believes that "slowly the walls of inefficiency on the one side and prejudice on the other which confined Negroes to the more menial and lower paid employments are being broken down."

The chapters on the Negro in business are the best in the book. We learn, among other matter, that 20 per cent of New York's colored business enterprises are conducted by West Indians while the city's West Indian colored population is but 10 per cent. Dr. Haynes believes this high percentage is due to the excellent general education of the West Indian Negro and to the large freedom which he enjoys in his home and which gives him independence and initiative when he reaches a new land.

The businesses conducted by the Negroes of Manhattan are chiefly outgrowths of domestic service. They comprise barbers' shops, restaurants, dressmaking establishments, tailor shops, grocery stores, hair dressing and manicure parlors, and employment agencies. Oddly enough, we learn little regarding real estate firms, the one Negro business which subway advertising has forced upon the attention of the average New Yorker. Perhaps this has become so important as to leave the classification of "Negro" and become simple New York business. Dr. Haynes's study is of the small shop catering to the Negro customer and we are given such minute information as the number of square feet the store occupies, the valuation of tools and fixtures and the number and character of the account books kept. The book contains a mass of well arranged material of interest to the student of small economic beginnings within a segregated race.

MARY WHITE OVINGTON.

#### ECONOMIC BEGINNINGS OF THE FAR WEST

By KATHARINE COMAN. The Macmillan Co. 418 pp. Price \$4.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$4.30.

Four years of travel and research have gone into the making of Professor Coman's study, which fills two volumes of more than 400 pages each and traces the gradual transformation of the land beyond the Mississippi from a theater of adventure and conquest into a land of plenty. In the long struggle for possession Miss Coman sees the gradual working out of conflicting economic systems and the final triumph of "the American ideals of free land, free labor, and equal opportunity." The retreat of the Spanish grandee and the clerical despots of early California before the homestead farmer was the inevitable outcome of the economic contest. By

the law which decrees that the fittest shall survive, the American occupier was bound to win from the beginning.

Starting with the Spanish explorers of the early sixteenth century, the author gives an account of the unsuccessful Spanish occupation; the growth and decline of the fur trade under the *laissez faire* system; the transcontinental migration; and the stormy events which culminated in the passage of the Homestead Act in 1862. The actual economic awakening of the Far West, as Professor Coman sees it, was destined to await the arrival of the farmer from beyond the Mississippi. "The long struggle between forced and free labor," she says, "between land monopoly and the self-employed land owner, had ended in the triumph of the ideal American type—the homestead farmer."

Throughout the work Professor Coman maintains an extremely open-minded attitude in preferring local to distant authorities and contemporary to historical commentators. She quotes liberally from the letters and journals of the men who helped to make the West. Thus her book is singularly free from prejudice and is not likely to encounter the kind of sectional resentment which is so often aroused by historical studies of our country. Indeed, it is likely to be most appreciated in those quarters from which its material has been drawn.

KATHARINE ANTHONY.

#### MEDICAL BENEFIT: A STUDY OF THE EXPERIENCE OF GERMANY AND DENMARK

By I. C. GIBBON. P. S. King & Son, London. 290 pp. Price \$1.70 (including duty); by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.82.

This is a full, practical and well arranged study of one aspect of health insurance, as administered in the two countries which have had the longest experience, the one under a compulsory, the other under a voluntary, system. Each country is dealt with separately and conclusions are carefully summarized. The curative side of the medical benefit alone is treated, prevention being left for a later volume of a thorough study by the same author of the whole subject of national health insurance,—a study to which this volume is preliminary.

In view of the strained relations between the doctors and the government in England at the present time, the chapters of detailed conclusions on medical service and remuneration drawn from the experience of two countries which have profited by long experience are especially valuable.

M. B. S.

#### MAN OR MACHINE—WHICH?

By AL FRIDY. The Pilgrim Press. 111 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 83 cents.

Man or Machine—Which? is in no way unusual except in its confusion of ideas. It begins with an attack upon modern industrial methods as exemplified in the increased use of machinery, goes on to a discussion of the effect of the machine upon the workman and upon the employer, and ends with a dissertation on the manner in which society is to be saved from the machine.



The effect of the machine upon the workman the author shows to be loss of skill, lessening of esthetic pleasure in work and a general lowering of self-respect. The effect upon the employer, he declares, is to stimulate his greed, to make him lose interest in his employes and so be willing to pay low wages and generally to make him incapable of altruistic thought or action. Although this scathing indictment contains a great deal that is undoubtedly true, yet, after such an arraignment, the reader would have difficulty in grasping from it the deeper meanings of present-day social unrest. And he would hardly be prepared to have the efforts of workmen to escape from this bondage by class action lumped as "anti-social," "anti-moral," an evidence of "anarchistic philosophy," of "irreligion and unsocial mind." What, then, are the author's proposals for a regenerated humanity? He sees three ways of escape.

The first he terms the practical method. The employer may invent a better machine.

The second is the economic, the more efficient handling of the machines. Here he praises the Taylor efficiency system as the means by which advancement, moral and economic, is to take place, and through which, while the employer gains from 100 to 400 per cent in profits, the employe is to get 50 to 100 per cent more in wages.

Finally, through efficient management is to come what the writer terms the moral mastery over the machine, which he declares, through a train of reasoning that cannot be taken very seriously, is to come inevitably with the increased use of machinery.

J. A. F.

#### PRISON MEMOIRS OF AN ANARCHIST

By ALEXANDER BERKMAN. Mother Earth Publishing Association. 512 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

Alexander Berkman, the author of this book, is a Russian Jew who as a youth emigrated to the United States. A disciple of Bakunin, he was a fiery member of the Nihilistic group. A Russian revolutionist, he found in America fuel for his Anarchistic zeal. As a working man he came under the power of what seemed to him a despot industrial system controlling the political, social, intellectual and religious life of what he had supposed to be the land of freedom and equality. He was subject to a ruling class, even more irresponsible than the ruling class of Russia. To the intense Jewish nature of Berkman this state of things was horrible. It was the abomination of desolation in the holy place.

With his Anarchistic faith and revolutionary training Berkman was from the first, even as he is now, a rebel against the existing order. He consorted with the Anarchistic group in New York; his poverty compelled him to live in the poorest tenements and sometimes to sleep in the street. His devotion to his cause was absolute. He starved himself that he might give the more to his propaganda. He quarreled with his comrade, when that comrade spent twenty cents for a meal, when in the estimation of Berkman five cents was enough.

In the Homestead strike, Berkman thought he saw a way to show his faith by his works. Leaving his home in New York he went to Pittsburgh for the purpose of killing Henry Clay Frick, then head of the Carnegie Steel Company. Berkman made his way into Frick's office, shot at and slightly wounded him.

In the philosophy of the school of Berkman this was not murder; it was an act of war. He says: "In truth, murder and *attentat* [that is, political assassination] are to me opposite terms. To remove a tyrant is an act of liberation, the giving of life and opportunity to an oppressed people."

For this attempt on the life of Frick, Berkman was condemned and sentenced to a term of imprisonment of twenty-two years at hard labor. This book is a record of his prison experience. He commences his narrative with an account of the great Homestead strike and gives in detail an analysis of the thoughts and feelings which prompted him to commit the act of violence for which he was condemned. Berkman has the story-telling power of his race; his style, the vividness and intensity of the Bible narrative. He carries us through his jail experience while he is awaiting his trial. He portrays the rotting effect of that period of idleness. The description of the trial itself has all the qualities of the drama.

The incapacity of the Anarchist to judge of the effect of his words and actions upon the outside world is painfully evident in the bitter disappointment which came to Berkman when he found that the declaration which he had prepared with great care to make before the court fell flat, making no impression upon the court or the outside world.

His prison life is told in a manner to make us fairly see his version of what goes on within those gloomy walls. We know warden and deputy and "trusty," and a hundred other of the officers and convicts as he paints them, as well as we know our next-door neighbors. The narrative is terrifically realistic.

Berkman spent nearly two years in solitary confinement. His description of his mental condition during that time appals us. Only because he was a man of strong will and, apart from his Anarchistic philosophy, of a well-balanced mind, did he escape insanity. Again and again he charges that he was thrown into the "black hole," and put for days upon a diet of bread and water. He testifies to daily brutalities behind prison walls by wardens and keepers whom he depicts as degraded equally with those they themselves degrade. He describes the pathetic endeavors of the prisoners to communicate with one another. Naturally the book dwells in detail upon the beginning and the ending of the long fourteen years of prison life.

This book ought to be, but will not be, widely read. One would as soon court a nightmare as to voluntarily go through this chamber of horrors.

One lays down the book with the conviction that Berkman, so far as his Anarchism is con-



cerned, was insane; his judges stupid tools of a still more stupid tyranny; his jailors brutes, delighting in cruelty for the mere love of cruelty; his fellow prisoners, the victims of an absurd system the effect of which is to kill the body and the soul. The moral lesson derived from the reading of the book is that our whole criminal system must be reformed out of existence and a curative method be substituted for the present method of punishment.

ALGERNON SYDNEY CRAPSEY.

#### PENAL SERVITUDE

By E. STAGO WHITIN, Ph.D. National Committee on Prison Labor. 162 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

Mr. Whitin's book is perhaps most interestingly read in connection with the reforms now urged or needed in the various states. In the author's own words, it is a "brief summary of the findings of the National Committee on Prison Labor," of which Mr. Whitin is secretary. It draws value, however, from the author's economic training and his personal acquaintance with actual conditions in many parts of the country.

For example, a dozen states or more will be struggling this year with some phase or another of prison production under private enterprise. In Connecticut, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Indiana, Wisconsin and Iowa, the issue of forever abolishing the contract system will be squarely joined. In Alabama the legislature will be petitioned to discard the lease system. In North Carolina many persons will seek to show why convicts should not be hired out to railroads at so much per convict. For all of these states there should be suggestion in Mr. Whitin's argument for the "state use" plan of production and distribution. Under the lease and contract systems of prison labor, the author shows, the prisoner becomes an economic slave; his body is owned; he is given no choice of occupation and is paid practically nothing.

Society will not much longer endure, thinks Mr. Whitin, the existence of such "slavery" or involuntary servitude, even as punishment for crime. Instead, the state will take over its prison industries, and will sell their products back to its own departments (a system already adopted by several states).

To this argument the practical objection will be raised that the "state use" plan of employing prisoners and distributing the product "does not pay." But it has never been proved that the "state use" system *can not* be made to pay, and even if that were proved, the answer would be: It is a greater financial failure to waste human life as private exploitation of prisoners wastes it; let society tax itself, if need be.

The ideal system of state controlled prison industry will allow each convict to pursue work suited to his own capacities or educational needs, and will pay him a just wage. Mr. Whitin urges that in assigning individual prisoners to this or that kind of labor, account should be taken of the character of the industries in the prisoner's home locality. He should be given training in some trade which he can profitably follow

after release. The requirements of education should be met also; the interest and hope of the prisoner should be enlisted and he should be enabled to work to some definite, attainable end.

Not only in the matter of system of production, however, does this book contain valuable hints to legislators and reformers. In Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Wisconsin, Minnesota and Kansas the question of paying wages to prisoners has been or is likely to be definitely raised this year. More than any other single factor, Mr. Whitin thinks, the payment of wages tends to break down the condition of penal servitude. It is not only an incentive to greater labor; it is a restorer of self respect and makes easier the path of reformation.

In other states other changes are being considered. The question of control over penal institutions by the state is being debated in New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, North Dakota and Maine. Mr. Whitin argues strongly for centralized authority, so definite in form that responsibility can be accurately located. There should be also, he thinks, some method of recall by which prison administrators can be made to respond to the highest standards of moral action of the community.

Owing partly to the nature of his subject and partly to method of treatment and peculiarities of diction, Mr. Whitin has not written a book that will attract the general reader. He has written one that undertakes to answer the question, What is the best punitive system now obtainable? The book is therefore a necessity wherever penal reform is in the air.

W. D. L.

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#### BOOKS RECEIVED IN JANUARY

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PATHFINDERS IN MEDICINE. By Victor Robinson. Medical Review of Reviews. 317 pp. Price \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.67.

MY LIFE IN PRISON. By Donald Lowrie. Mitchell Kennerley. 422 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

FOOD IN HEALTH AND DISEASE. Nathan S. Davis, Jr., A.M., M.D. P. Blakiston's Sons. 449 pp. Price \$3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.70.

EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES OF MENTAL DEFECTIVES. By J. E. Wallace Wallin, Ph.D. Warlick and York, Inc. 155 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.32.

THE TEACHER'S HEALTH. By Lewis M. Terman. Houghton Mifflin Co. 136 pp. Price \$.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.66.

VOCATIONS FOR GIRLS. By Mary A. Laselle and Katherine Wiley. 139 pp. Price \$.85; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.91.

UNTIL THE DAY BREAK. By W. L. George. Dodd, Mead and Co. 366 pp. Price \$1.30; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.43.

MY LITTLE SISTER. By Elizabeth Robins. Dodd, Mead & Co. 344 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.

THE SALE OF LIQUOR IN THE SOUTH. By Leonard Scott Blakey, Ph.D. Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law. Longmans, Green & Co., agents. 56 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

THE MORTAL GODS. By Olive Tilford Dargan. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 303 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.63.





## LABOR LAWS FOR WOMEN

**JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK**  
**NATIONAL CONSUMERS LEAGUE**  
Maps by Christina C. Merriman

NIGHT WORK  
THE WORKING DAY  
THE WORKING WEEK  
IN  
FACTORIES  
AND  
STORES

## DO YOU LIVE IN A BLACK STATE?

The maps here reproduced<sup>1</sup> are designed to show at a glance the standing of each state in the protection afforded to working women from excessive hours of labor.

The desirability of these laws is taken for granted. No arguments are given to show that industrial overwork is dangerous to health and that a community must protect itself by providing in its statutes a reasonable working day.

What then is a reasonable day of work and what states provide it?

The goal of working people themselves throughout the world is the eight-hour day. Eight hours is the daily period which many communities—city, state and national—as model employers set for the labor of adult men in their employ.

The statutes shown in these maps may be found in *Fatigue and Efficiency* by Josephine Goldmark. The Survey Associates. Price \$2.00. They also appear in a *Handbook of Laws Regulating Women's Hours of Labor*, containing also a standard law and a summary of arguments in defense of such legislation, published by the National Consumers' League, 106 East 19th Street, New York. Price 15 cents for single copy; lower rates by 50 or 100 copies.

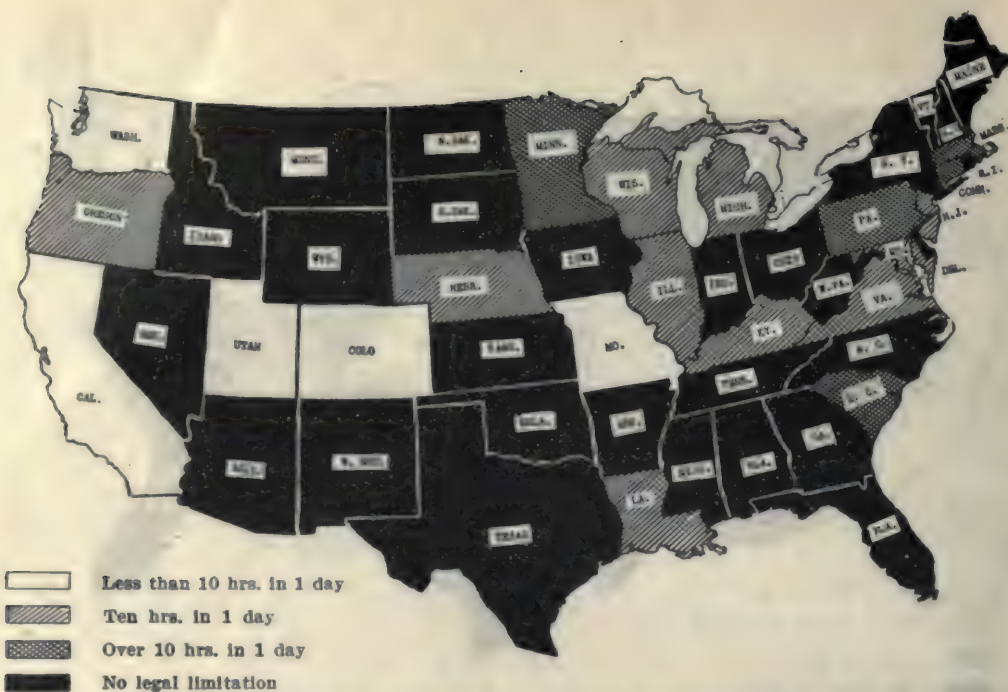
Granting that this limit cannot be set at once even for women in private employment in all the states, it should yet be the recognized goal for ordinary industrial occupations. Even the eight-hour day involves, with the noon hour and the journey to and from work, in most instances ten hours' absence from home. And at home there awaits the working woman, married or unmarried, in most cases unavoidable home work—washing, mending or cooking—which she performs in addition to wage work. From the standpoint of health, therefore, eight hours of employment leaves a small enough margin of time for rest and leisure.

For practical convenience, the states are divided into four grades in the maps, as shown by their captions. Map 1. makes plain the number of hours allowed in one *day* for women employed in factories. Six states are marked white or first grade because they lead the others: California, Colorado and Washington provid-









LEGAL HOURS OF LABOR FOR WOMEN IN MERCANTILE ESTABLISHMENTS: BY THE DAY

A second point is to be noted regarding the black states. It is only just to point out that many of them have not yet legislated to protect working women from excessive working hours because the need has not yet arisen. The census of 1910 reports that, excluding Colorado, less than 2,000 women were employed in manufacture in the whole Mountain Division, comprising eight states.<sup>1</sup> Naturally, then, the need of legislation has not been pressing. Yet bitter experience has shown the wisdom of obtaining such laws *before* industry is present to oppose them. If the Mountain Division of states will legislate now before the overwork of women assumes its appearance of "necessity," all manufacture will grow up under the same conditions and will be able to compete upon a higher level than in the older states.

Certain incongruities in the maps stand out sharply. Why, for instance, has Vermont alone in New England been content to wait until the year 1913 before granting any legal protection from excessive hours to the working women in her mills and factories? In 1910 there were over 4,600 so employed. Evidence brought out before the Vermont legislature this winter showed that women have been employed up to eighty-four hours in the week.<sup>2</sup>

Again, Pennsylvania—third only to New York and Massachusetts in number of female wage-earners—has been content to rank at the very

foot of the list, when measured by the number of hours of work allowed in one day; twelve hours are still provided in her law for women employed in factories and stores.

Maps 3 and 4 show the legal day's and week's work allowed in mercantile establishments. Here, too, the five states which lead in Map 1 are again white. Doubtless many readers will be surprised at the greater prevalence of black in these maps. Most of New England, New York and Ohio stand out in dark contrast to their appearance in the first maps. Even Massachusetts, the pioneer of legislation in America, still leaves the day's work unlimited, provided the week's work be not more than fifty-eight hours.

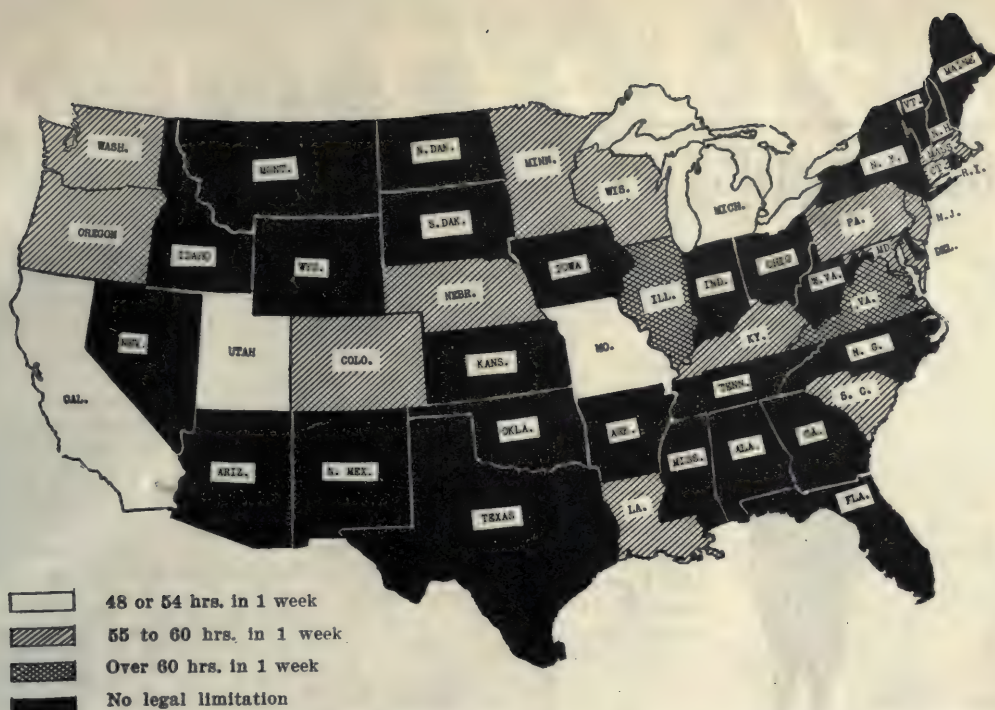
The discrimination against the women employed in stores is the more unreasonable because the strain of their work is being more and more clearly recognized. It is true that they are not subjected to the speed, the monotony, and complexity of machinery, but the girl behind the counter suffers greatly from the constant standing, continuing at any rush season or special sale literally throughout the day. Many girls complain of broken arches and varicose veins. There is also unmistakable nervous strain in being always on their good behavior, of an even temper, suiting the tastes and whims of customers of all sorts. Store employes need the protection of the law as urgently as factory workers.

Most striking is the Stygian blackness of the map reproduced on the cover of this issue of THE SURVEY. This shows that only three states

<sup>1</sup>Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah and Nevada.

<sup>2</sup>A fifty-eight hour law for women was passed this month, since the maps for this article were drawn.





LEGAL HOURS OF LABOR FOR WOMEN IN MERCANTILE ESTABLISHMENTS: BY THE WEEK

in the Union—Massachusetts, Indiana and Nebraska—prohibit work at night in factories, after a fixed closing hour. The Massachusetts law has existed for almost twenty-five years, affording to women employed in manufacture a period of rest at night between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. Since 1907 the great textile industry of Massachusetts has prospered with an even stricter limitation of hours; the employment of women is prohibited therein between 6 p. m. and 6 a. m. This law follows the still more rigid European statutes, where the subject of adequate night rest for working women has been studied, reported on, and made the subject of the first important international treaty dealing with the hours of labor of wage-earners. The fact that fourteen European nations have through their specially appointed representatives signed a treaty to provide for women in industry at least eleven hours' rest at night brings out forcibly the inaction of our states upon this momentous issue.

Space does not allow us here even to enumerate the arguments in its favor: the benefit to health and morals, the assistance given to the factory inspectors in enforcing the daily limitation of hours.

In both Wisconsin and Maryland the working period after a fixed hour in the evening must be two hours less than by day. In both statutes the night shift is thus legalized during the time set apart as a period of rest by the International Convention on Night Work.

Some recent concrete instances of women's work at night show more clearly than all theories

how urgent the need is for the legal closing hour. Miss Van Kleeck's interesting volume, *Women in the Bookbinding Trades*,<sup>1</sup> gives for the first time detailed examples of the extraordinary duration of overtime in this trade. In one instance, a girl twenty-three years old was employed in a magazine bindery with short interruptions, from 8.30 in the morning until 5.30 on the morning of the next day. In the absence of a legal closing hour, she was almost continuously employed for nineteen hours. In other flagrant cases girls were employed from early morning until long after midnight, even until eight and nine o'clock in the morning of the next day! When work thus continues until any hour of the day or night, the difficulties of enforcing the eight or ten hours' limit are almost insuperable. Unless the inspectors remain bodily on the premises, they cannot tell when work stops. On the other hand, when employment after a specified hour at night is a violation, a single inspection suffices to prove it.

The legal closing hour is thus essential not only to protect health and morals, but to aid the enforcement without which the statutes are a mockery.

The adequacy or inadequacy of enforcement these maps do not attempt to show, except in so far as statutes clearly non-enforcible are ruled out. Only those statutes are included which affect all women, irrespective of age, employed in manufacturing and mercantile establishments.

<sup>1</sup>Women in the Bookbinding Trade. By Mary Van Kleeck. The Survey Associates. 300 pp. Price \$1.50 postpaid.



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FOR  
PREVENTION  
OR  
CURE



"Bin workin in  
the mill 10 years.  
Began when I  
was 6, for 5c.  
a day."

"Was earning  
\$1.25 a day  
when I got to  
spittin blood  
and had to quit"

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and reformatories, hospitals, the army of the  
unskilled and unemployed.

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(1911-1912)

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Investigated the tenement house industry in New  
York; report published by the New York State  
Factory Commission.  
Published 159,900 pamphlets.  
Secured unanimous endorsement of our Uniform  
Child Labor Law from the American Bar  
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30 states give opportunity for better child labor laws in  
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\$2-\$24, or \$25 to \$100 makes you an associate or sustaining  
member.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE, New York City

## COMMUNICATION

### MR. CARSTENS' FINDINGS

TO THE EDITOR:

It has been brought to my attention that a  
statement is being circulated to the effect that  
the portions of my report on Public Pensions to  
Widows contained in *THE SURVEY* of January  
4, 1913, were not accurately given there. I wish  
to deny this emphatically.

It is true that an advance press notice, con-  
densing *THE SURVEY* article and not prepared by  
me, inadvertently substituted the word "immor-  
ality" for "low moral tone" and was to that  
extent inaccurate, but by every word of *THE  
SURVEY* article itself, I am prepared to stand  
and the advance notice was a good general sum-  
mary of my Chicago findings and of my general  
conclusions.

Very truly yours,

C. C. CARSTENS.

[Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty  
to Children. Jan. 18, 1913.]

## JOTTINGS

### CHILD LABOR DAYS

The National Child Labor Committee has called  
upon the churches and schools of the country to  
observe Saturday, Sunday and Monday, January  
25-27, as Child Labor Days. To aid such ob-  
servance the committee has sent free to all cler-  
gymen and school principals who apply for it a  
pamphlet of facts about child labor. In this  
the committee prints, among other things,  
census figures on child labor for 1900, the latest  
figures available on the subject. It points out  
that the total number of workers ten to fifteen  
years of age, 1,752,157, does not include the  
thousands of newsboys and bootblacks who  
were attending school, nor the other thousands  
of children who were employed in tenement  
house manufacturing. It states also that the es-  
timate of 284,330 children classified as engaged  
in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits is mis-  
leading since cannery children were in many  
states reckoned as agricultural workers.

The Federal Council of the Churches of  
Christ in America and of the Social Service  
Commission of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese  
of New York endorses the committee's call.

### LECTURES ON TRADE UNIONISM

The Central Union Label Council of Greater  
New York announces a program of lectures on  
trade unionism designed to interest the general  
public in spreading the demand for the union  
label. The lectures, which are illustrated by  
lantern slides and pictures of the Triangle fire  
and the Lawrence strike, aim to bring out the  
contrast between union and nonunion conditions.

January 25, 1913.

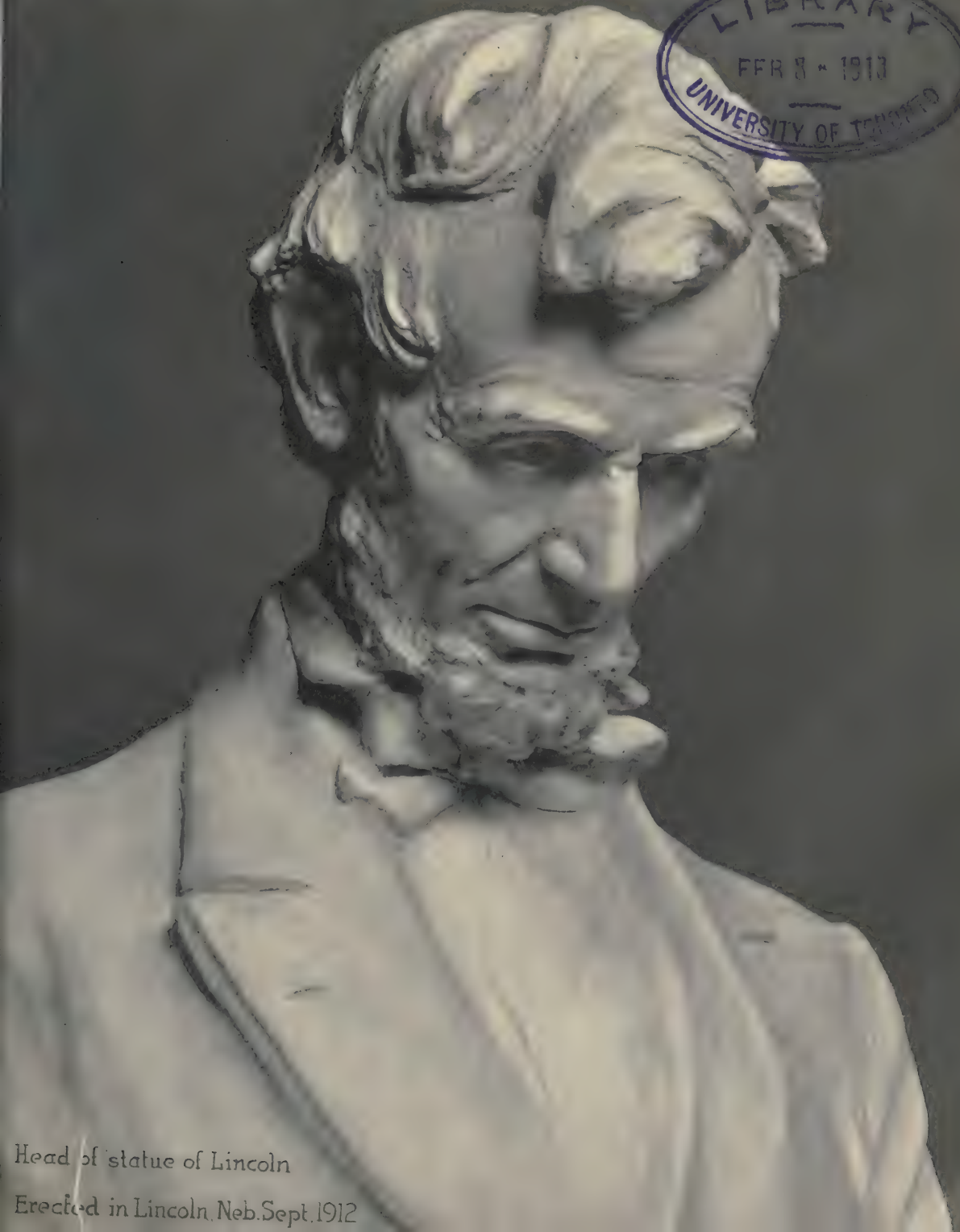


VOLUME XXIX, No. 18

THE

WEEK OF FEB. 1, 1913

# SURVEY



Head of statue of Lincoln  
Erected in Lincoln, Neb. Sept. 1912



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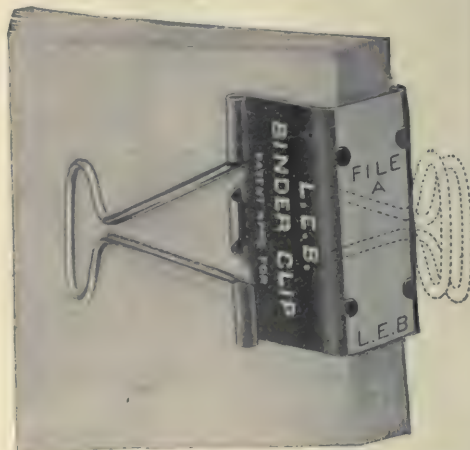
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# THE COMMON WELFARE

## THE "WHITE" PROTOCOL

The garment strikes in New York are leading to more than a mere extension of the protocol plan of 1910. In the "white label" actually instituted in the shirt waist trade (such as is advocated by Mr. Cohen on p. 631), the effort is made to forge the link between country and city, and make the decent respect of the average citizen for the clothes on his back, and his decent respect for the back of the man who makes the clothes, count as a compelling factor in bringing all makers of clothing up to the standards which the organized manufacturers and workers set as their minimum.

Further, in the shirt waist trade, the principle of the minimum wage has been voluntarily adopted; an eight dollar standard set; and, more noteworthy, a revolutionary step has been taken in creating a joint wage scale board which will be for the permanent scientific study of piece rates and efficiency.

To understand these developments the general layout of the garment trades must be borne in mind. Clothes go back to the Garden of Eden, and "male and female created he them" is their first great law of division, as it is of the people who wear them.

The men's tailors are not necessarily men tailors. They are the makers of men's clothing, and they are in large part organized as the United Garment Workers. And the men's tailors are "out" in the present strike—sixty to one hundred thousand of them. In women's wear the central organization is the International Ladies' Garment Workers. These include the cloak, suit

and skirt makers, who were parties to the first protocol of 1910, and whose shops have continued serenely at work during the present crisis; the shirt waist makers, who signed a similar protocol last week; the kimono and wrapper makers, and the white goods makers. Movements towards arbitration and peace agreements in these last two trades are in process, and the independent manufacturers in the men's garment industry have announced their willingness to make similar settlements.

The strikes have not been without bitterness and big contrasts. The shirt waist makers were on strike less than a week when the agreement was signed, a turn fairly to take one's breath away when their long fruitless struggle of 1910 is remembered. But this year's strike was largely to bring coherence and group consciousness to the scattered forces of the workers, it gave support to their neighbors in the white goods trade, and brought to a head negotiations which had been going forward between the manufacturers and the unions for weeks past.

In contrast to these speedy and peaceful negotiations in the shirt waist trade, there has been an old-time belligerency in men's wear.

The so-called "white" protocol in the waist trade is modeled on that which has existed in the cloak, suit and skirt trade since September, 1910.

The closed-shop dilemma is met, as with the cloak makers, by the preferential union shop. The board of arbitration will be the court of appeal from a grievance board, to which disputes between individual employers and workers



Photo by Pach Bros.

JULIUS HENRY COHEN

In the negotiations for the extension of the protocol to new branches of the garment trades Mr. Cohen, the attorney for several of the manufacturers' associations, is the central figure.



## PIONEERS OF THE PROTOCOLS

Courtesy of the Outlook.

Courtesy the American Cloak and Suit Review



LOUIS D. BRANDEIS  
"Attorney for the people."

HAMILTON HOLT  
Managing editor, the *Independent*.

MORRIS HILLAQUIT  
Member exec. com., Socialist Party

Members of the Board of Arbitration in the Cloak, Suit and Skirt Trade. These same men will make up the new arbitration board in the shirtwaist industry.

or between the unions and the manufacturers' association will be referred. As in the cloak industry, the lower or grievance board is made up of representatives of the two organizations, the upper of one representative each of the union, the manufacturers and the public. The decisions of the upper board are to be regarded as final, and recourse is to be had to the strike only in the event of one of the disputants refusing to abide by the decision of the board. The lower board will probably work out rules covering some of the commoner causes of dispute, and to it will be brought all problems and all plans for improvement of the industry—this latter provision giving it a scope much wider than that originally given to the cloak makers' lower board.

The Joint Sanitary Board is constituted, like

that of the cloak makers, and adopts, to begin with, the sanitary standards of that board. It also adopts as a means of securing the co-operation of the public in establishing decent working conditions, a white protocol label, to be attached to goods which have complied with the standards set by the board. For this the way has been paved by the recent agitation of the cloak makers' board, which has not as yet succeeded in introducing a label in that industry. The waist makers are promised, by the terms of their protocol, an advance of wages of about 10 per cent after this label has been in operation one year.

The cloak makers' agreement set a minimum week's wage schedule and established shop price committees for fixing piece prices; no machinery for permanent adjustment was provided.



MAX MEYER  
Representatives of the manufacturers on the Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the Cloak, Suit and Skirt Trade.

E. J. WEIL

A. LINCOLN FILENE  
The Boston merchant who with Mr. Brandeis helped in 1910 to bring strikers and employers together.



## PIONEERS OF THE PROTOCOLS

Photo by Pach Bros.



**HENRY MOSKOWITZ**  
Madison House.



**LILLIAN D. WALD**  
Nurses' Settlement.



**WILLIAM J. SCHIEFFELIN**  
Chairman Citizens' Union.

Representatives of the public on the Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the Cloak, Suit and Skirt Trade. They will serve in the same capacity in the shirtwaist industry.

The new protocol goes further. It sets a temporary week's pay scale and establishes shop piece price committees; it also establishes a wage scale board for the permanent scientific adjustment of wage scales on the basis of a living minimum, together with means of providing for the reward of increased efficiency. The first work of the board will be a six months' investigation of wages now existing in the trade. Pending the fixing of standards by this board the wage minimums now set provide that no week worker not an apprentice shall receive less than \$8, no piece worker less than 30 cents an hour. Sub-contracting—one great cause of low wages—is abolished. A maximum week of fifty hours is established, and except under special circumstances, overtime is cut down to four hours a week.

A special clause provides that all employers desiring to settle with the union be requested to apply for membership in the manufacturers' association, and that the union shall require of those employers who do not join the association the same standards of wages, hours and sanitary conditions.

### HENRY NEIL: PENSION AGENT

The widows' pension agitation has thrown to the surface a familiar type of charitable promoter in the person of Henry Neil of Chicago. Advocates and opponents alike of the principle of state aid to mothers with children should know the general working scheme of this indefatigable visitor to many states, who styles him-

Photo by American Press Assn.



**MEYER LONDON**  
Attorney for the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union.



**ABRAHAM BISNO**  
Representing the union on the Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the Cloak, Skirt and Suit Trade. Dr. Price is also medical inspector of the New York Factory Investigating Commission.



**GEORGE M. PRICE**



self as the "father of the Mothers' Pension Law of Illinois."

To illustrate: on November 23, 1912, there appeared this advertisement in the *Evening Press* of Grand Rapids, Mich.:

**WANTED**—Woman to organize Mothers' Pension League to obtain pension law for Michigan, \$5 a day and permanent position for woman of ability. Henry Neil, father, Mothers' Pension Law. 443 S. Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.

In response to an application prompted by some such advertisement as this, a letter dated from the above address, and signed by Henry Neil, was received by an applicant in another state. It is long but its salient paragraphs follow:

DEAR MADAM:

We would like to get a woman of refinement and ability to organize in your city and adjoining towns a Mothers' Pension League, for the purpose of securing a Mothers' Pension Law in your state and to encourage the best possible administration of that law after it is enacted.

This work will need the constant attention of a capable organizer and the local league should volunteer its assistance to the court and other officers who administer the law to see that the deserving mothers get pensions. . . .

Pensions paid under the Illinois Mothers' Pension Law, in Chicago, Cook County, Illinois, for one month was \$11,713.88 to 508 mothers with 1700 children.

We mail you today copy of a membership certificate and a copy of the *Newer Justice Magazine*.

Each new member will receive a registered charter membership certificate and four consecutive numbers of the *Newer Justice Magazine* and other letters and printed information in reference to the mothers' pension work. . . .

If this plan meets with your approval, you can notify us at once and start getting new members, both men and women, collecting the membership fee of \$1 from each, and sending us the full name and address of each new member. All money received by us, is used in furthering the work of the league. . . .

We will pay \$5 a day to an efficient woman to do this work, providing that at least ten new members to the league are secured each day that the organizer works, and providing also that the membership fee of \$1 a year is collected in advance from each new member. You can send us a money order for the amount you collect less the amount of your pay for organizing.

Postal cards have been sold, in addition to the magazine, which preface the text of the Illinois Fund for Parents Act, with the following announcement:

The profit from the sale of this card goes to the promotion of Judge McKenzie Cle-

and's Probation Plan to protect Chicago homes and to prevent the breaking up of families. You can help a good cause by buying these cards at 5 cents each.

Copyright 1909 by National Probation League, 323 Dearborn St., Chicago.

Agents selling these cards and soliciting membership have operated in Chicago as well as in the states. A representative of a responsible Chicago association reports them going "around among the poorer people of the city with a pathetic story of the money being used to help keep children with their mothers, and consequently many poor people contribute."

Just what these methods of collection mean has been put crisply by no less keen an observer than the vice-president elect of the United States. In a public statement, January 10, Governor Marshall said:

"They are even now organizing mothers' pension leagues in Indiana. Each member is charged a dollar. My information is one-half of this goes to the solicitor, the other half to the parent organization. Does it not seem that these solicitors . . . are engaged in this cause for the money they can get out of it?"

Persons wholly unknown to the league's secretary are urged to engage in this inviting work, with the prospect of volunteering their assistance later on to the court and other officers who administer the law to see that the deserving mothers get the pension!

#### QUESTIONABLE STATEMENTS MADE BY MR. NEIL

With these questionable methods of collection in full swing the secretary of the Mothers' Pension League makes a ringing appeal for laws which will get the pensioned widow one hundred cents on the dollar!

In a statement printed October 11, 1912, in the *Wisconsin State Journal*, addressed to the editor and signed by Henry Neil, the following paragraphs appear:

There will be some opposition to a Mothers' Pension Law, when the Wisconsin legislature meets. But the big fight and the most serious opposition will be an attempt by the organized charities to put through a bill that will prevent any mother of dependent children getting one cent of pension money until all their own salaries and expenses are paid. On their plan they can push their salaries and expenses as high as they please.

The Organized Charities are highly unified. They have a central authority in New York City and paid agents in every large city in the United States. They will have expert lobbyists in the legislature of every state. They are already planning to put a



mothers' pension bill through in every state. . . .

What would the pensioned mothers get if such a law as that should prevail in your legislature? The average of every dollar contributed and collected by law would not exceed thirty cents. Under the Illinois Mothers' Pension Law, the pensioned mother gets one hundred cents out of every dollar, and that is the kind of a law I would like to have adopted by your state.

I intend to do all I can to prevent organized charities from putting through a law in any state that will capitalize poverty in their favor, or give them a vested interest in the needs of the poor. . . . My statement in reference to organized charities applies to societies that are dominated by the charity trust's central office in New York city.

Exactly the same statement, except the substitution of another state for Wisconsin, was published in the *St. Paul News* on December 11, 1912; in the *Philadelphia Telegraph* on November 15, 1912; and in the *Evansville (Ind.) Press* on November 12, 1912.

His claim that "under the Illinois Mothers' Pension Law the pensioned mother gets one hundred cents out of every dollar," should be read with this abatement: There are thirteen probation officers of the Juvenile Court who are devoting all their time to investigating and supervising pension cases, each officer receiving \$87.50 per month from the county, and the supervisor \$100 per month. To the expense account must also be charged so much of the salaries of clerks, stenographers, the chief probation officer, the assistant chief and the judge as is proportionate to this part of their much increased work. The county agent's officers who re-investigate the pension cases before they are heard by the judge are also paid \$100 per month.

He charges that the organized charities oppose or obstruct or seek to substitute themselves for the authority and officials of the court. The facts are exactly the contrary in Cook County under the operation of the Illinois law. The facts are that the judge himself sought the most experienced representatives of the very organizations which Mr. Neil denounces as part and parcel of the "charity trust," to aid the court and its officials by their investigations and counsel in the extremely delicate work of administering this "fund for parents." Perhaps the cost of the time which these experienced specialists expend in the public service, which is paid by the voluntary agencies they serve, should also be added to the other expenses of administering the act, of which Mr. Neil has failed to take account. In his address at the Cleveland session of the National Conference of

Charities and Correction, Judge Pinckney of the Juvenile Court publicly attested the value of the aid rendered by this advisory committee, and declared emphatically that the ordinary machinery of the court could not handle the situation alone.

With respect to the Illinois law itself, which Mr. Neil would "like to have adopted," in other states, the facts are that those who have to do with its operation, including Judge Pinckney, recognize the need of amending its broad provisions which are almost entirely without safeguards. The finance committee of the Board of County Commissioners of Cook County, in considering the request to appropriate \$250,000 this year to pay these pensions, demur on the grounds stated by its newly elected president, Alexander A. McCormick, himself an experienced volunteer social worker: "The major portion of the county's money this year might have to go to pay these pensions. The hazard is one that would easily bankrupt the county with a bad judge in office."

The county agent, Joseph Meyer, regarded in Chicago as one of the most capable men who has ever filled that office, has this to say as to the need of more thorough investigation and larger appropriations therefor:

There are now 523 persons receiving this charity and a large waiting list. Since Judge Pinckney established the rule that a person must live here for a year before a pension is available, some charitable organizations have supported persons for twelve months until the county funds would become available.

Persons have come to Chicago from other states and after asserting that they are *bona fide* residents of Illinois gained entrance to the hospitals. We know of instances where women have had their husbands confined in the insane asylums at Kankakee and Dunning that they might draw these pensions. One woman whose husband was released from Dunning because he was perfectly sane, begged that he be kept there, as she received more from the county than she did through his work. Some persons who receive pensions are married for three or four months before we discover the fact and get the pension stopped.

At the present time the finance committee of the county board, while considering Judge Pinckney's request for twenty-five additional investigators, are contemplating the recommendation to the judge to transfer the investigation of all applicants for pensions to the county agent's office.

Judge Ben B. Lindsey, whose name has hitherto appeared as vice-president of the league on its certificates of membership and letterheads, wrote Mr. Neil in December positively and explicitly resigning as such.



## EDITORIAL GRIST

### THE REALITIES OF WORK

PAUL U. KELLOGG

Seldom has it been the good fortune of *THE SURVEY* to present two such sheaves of articles as those in this issue.

The emancipation series gathered by Miss Addams needs no foreword other than her challenge to a living faith in political democracy. Fifty years ago the feet of the young men of the country sprang to that call.

Those who re-read, in these anniversary years, Lincoln's first inaugural address cannot fail to mark the dependence he placed on self-employing, self-sufficient folk as the underpinnings of our civic life. Well may we consider whether in the economic field the present strife, and the resulting cleavage in men's minds, is but the fret of self-government adjusting itself to the industrial changes of half a century. The Indianapolis trials, the pitting of a Hillquit against a Haywood, the garment strikes in New York, are tremendous texts for a people's conscience-searching. They test our powers of social conception; of meeting new times, not bookishly in the letter of the founders, but buoyantly, with their old idealism and fire, their power for invention.

Mr. Taylor tells of a steel center where collective bargaining persists, and where the eight-hour day is being substituted for the twelve.

Mr. Fitch, from his studies of the major industry, where the twelve-hour day governs and where collective bargaining has been crushed out, turns to that branch of the trade where union officials, backed by a strong membership and secure in the eight-hour day—but threatened with destruction by those same masters in the twelve-hour field—blew up bridge and building until vengeance, thus taken into their own hands, recoiled upon them and at Los Angeles killed their fellow workers.

Miss Sumner tells of the new unionism which makes no bargains, sets going the gongs of revolution and preaches reprisals. Years hence we may come to compare sabotage with the thievery practiced by those gentle Quakers, who ran the stations on the underground railway. Or we may find that, all but unknown to the average citizen, the political Socialists who set their faces against it, have been the bulwark between civilization and a bottomless mire.

And finally, Mr. Cohen tells how, using protocols like caissons, a structure of order and health is being built up out of the sheer industrial anarchy of the garment trades. Here, un-

der the new regime, 1,200 employers and 70,000 employes have found new uses for some of the features of collective bargaining held by the erectors to be most irritating. At their hands, the closed shop has become a preferential shop, a means for holding together in the discipline of production as great a body of men as ever responded to the war cry of a strike. The label becomes an instrument for holding all establishments up to standards set by the progressives of the trade. The walking delegate becomes a clerk of the board, with more power for order and good government than the silly sheriff of New York county. The strike itself becomes a health measure and is applied with the backing of manufacturers as well as men against the shop that violates the self-imposed laws of safety and sanitation.

Significance may lie not only in the differences but in the analogies of these industrial currents. The I. W. W., for example, preaches an industry wide open at the bottom, an industry organized as a whole, an industry working out its common salvation. The protocol plan, apparently at the other extreme, claims the same program for its own. The one is on a war footing; the other organic peace. That these movements, starting so wide apart should both press toward self-government and social control within each industrial group, gives the optimist hope that democracy will yet prove a solvent for the forces that threaten to rend it.

The articles serve their informing purpose in setting facts and views before *SURVEY* readers. Mr. Franklin's criticism calls for a special word. When the public mind closed like a trap following the McNamara confessions, social workers and economists had the courage not to be stampeded either by old bogies or new jingoes, and came forward with a constructive proposal. Perhaps this was another case of Ducky Daddles and Chicken Little calling "The skies are falling," but the picture does not seem to fit Louis Brandeis, nor Henry Moskowitz, nor William Jay Schieffelin nor Miss Wald nor others of their kind, who signed the petition to the president urging a federal inquiry into industrial relations.

It was because they doubted the adequacy of a point of view which satisfies itself in preachment and punishment, that they held that the criminal court is "not a sufficient instrument through which the democracy can address itself to the economic struggle." The Indianapolis trial has sustained this contention. Had it wiped out the last vestige of labor violence in the United States, the problem before the Commission on Industrial Relations would remain—the need for deeper soundings into causes, for a greater broaching of the realities of work than any we have yet had.



## "UNKNOWN WORKMAN, AGAINST THE SKY"

GRAHAM TAYLOR

*By a passing spectator*

*Hail, unknown workman, against the sky!  
Who are you, up there on the tall building?  
I cannot see your face, or look into your eyes.  
I pass by on the street far below and wonder who you are.  
One of many, are you, too, like me, the very center of the  
Universe?*

*Does the sun shine and the breeze blow, especially for you?  
Until now, I thought it was all for me.*

*Are you thinking thoughts of your own up there, as you  
lay the bricks and flick away the mortar from the  
edges with ringing trowel?*

*Have you a home, wife, children, whom you love?*

*Have you books, flowers, hobbies, for the leisure hours?*

*Is your heart full only of your own affairs—what business  
have you with affairs of which I know nothing?*

*Can it be that I am no more to you than you are to me—  
not so much indeed?*

*Nay, you have built a great building in which one day I  
may be sheltered.*

*You yourself are this moment good for my soul—am I any  
good for yours?*

*What have I ever done for you?*

*Hail, brother, look down in God's name and forgive my  
debt—*

*Unknown workman, far up there against the sky.*

*You yourself so much now to me, while I am still nothing  
at all to you.*

—JOHN PALMER GAVIT in *The Commons*, April 30, 1900.

Is it not time for us all to challenge ourselves with the inquiries which John Palmer Gavit put to himself when he passed by? It was a bricklayer "up there" then. Now it is an iron worker who stands out "against the sky" as we pass by.

"Who are you?" we may still ask, for most of us know him not. The trial of his union officials at Indianapolis has informed us about him. The public accepts the verdict of the jury upon the conduct and character of these convicted leaders after what seems to have been a fair trial. The judge, though apparently convinced of their guilt, was considerate enough not only to tell some of them that they might have had a better defense, but also to ask each one of them for any facts that had not been brought out which might mitigate their penalties.

But that iron worker up against the sky is still unknown. Who he is does not yet appear. The counsel for the National Erectors' Association seems to think that the rank-and-file of him might have shown themselves unlike their leaders had the elections in their unions as hitherto been held in September. He charges that the leaders postponed it until January, because they were afraid of failing to be re-elected and so losing the benefit of the union's funds in their defense. The way in which that unknown iron worker came down with the cash to bail these imprisoned leaders out while their appeal was pending, shows somewhat of the man he is. It does not necessarily prove him to be a dynamiter himself, or that he justifies the use of dynamite in his behalf. But it does show him to be loyal to his officials while under fire.

It must be remembered also that these leaders, however desperately wrong they were, had everything to risk and little if anything to gain for themselves by going to this criminal length.

And one who has talked with them all since their conviction reports them as "really believing in dynamite as a means of grace." This certainly removes them from the category of ordinary criminals. Judge Anderson himself said from the bench before sentencing them: "This system of destruction was not carried on for revenge, or in obedience to any other human passion, but was for the deliberate purpose, by a veritable reign of terror, to enforce compliance with the demands of the iron workers upon the open and closed shop question."

That seems to put them in the category of fanatics, who resorted to criminal violence, not for personal ends but to serve what they would call their cause. This does not extenuate their guilt of a crime which involved utter indifference to the destruction of life as well as property. But it does raise these questions: Who are they? Why do they think so? How did they come to the conclusion that this terrorism is the best, or perhaps the only way of serving that fellow workman up there, unknown to us, but not to them? What does this conviction of thirty-eight American citizens, voters in fourteen states, living in twenty-three cities, mean? Does the prompt and successful effort of their fellow workers to raise nearly \$1,000,000 to cover their bail bonds imply that they are men like these leaders? If so, why? Why, unknown workman.

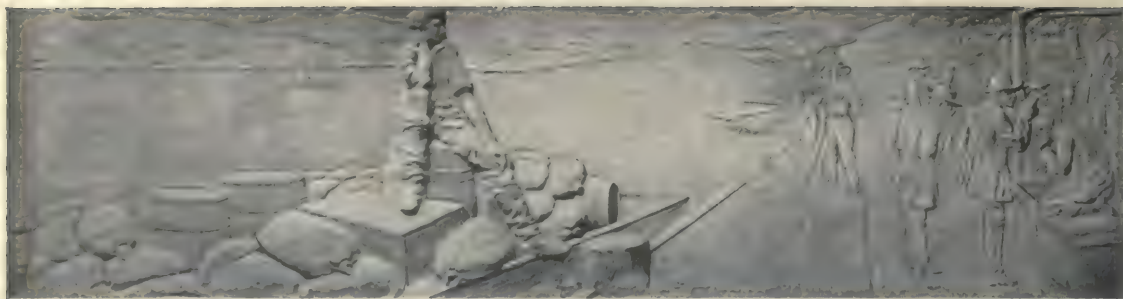
"You yourself so much now to me, while I am still nothing at all to you."

That "why," which must be answered by something more than any court verdict, can be answered only by such wide, patient, and impartial inquiry as only a truly national and expert industrial commission can make. Thus only will we find out how the seven years' war between the iron workers' and the erectors' association, or its constituents, has led to such desperate lengths. Thus only may we be informed of the working conditions in that hazardous trade. Perhaps we may learn what the effects of this very hazard may be upon the spirit and temper of these workers "against the sky." Thus too, we may be reminded of the steady nerve, the cool head, the perpetual courage and the never ending risks of these unknown workmen, who dare to work "against the sky." Perhaps when we think of the great buildings they build, which we could not build if we would, and would not if we could, even to shelter ourselves, we may ourselves say, with Mr. Gavit, "You yourself are this moment good for my soul—am I any good for yours? What have I ever done for you?"

Some of us, if not all; the nation, if not any of us in particular, may even be led to call up to these brave builders,—and the more when they seem most misguided—

"Hail, brother, look down in God's name and forgive my  
debt—  
Unknown workman, far up there against the sky."





LINCOLN'S DOWN-RIVER TRIP AND THE SLAVE AUCTION

## LINCOLN HALL FOR THE HUMANITIES

There could be no more fitting commemoration of the centenary of Abraham Lincoln's birth and the half-century anniversary of his Emancipation Proclamation than the appropriation for and the erection of Lincoln Hall by the legislature of Lincoln's state at the University of Illinois. He is justly claimed to be one of the founders not only of that university, but of our state university system, for in 1862 he signed the federal land grant act, which made both possible. Years before he had committed himself to the promotion of a system of state universities founded on federal land grants.

The University of Illinois is the largest of the institutions which grew out of this first grant. It was by its charter purposed to apply the natural sciences to agriculture and the mechanic arts—then a new educational project in America. It was known at first, therefore, as "the Illinois Industrial University." But it soon began to outgrow its name by recovering its cultural balance. Emphasis and resources were steadily added to the teaching of the liberal arts.

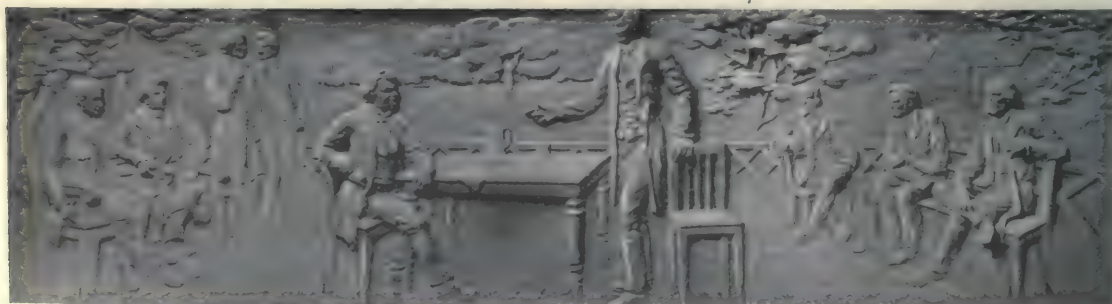
This more scientific policy now rounds itself out by the dedication of Lincoln Hall to the Humanities. Lecture halls and seminar rooms, libraries and museums will amply equip each branch of these studies, which are grouped in this new \$250,000 building. Everywhere its memorial design is carried out. Across the outer walls are graven in terra-cotta scenes in Lincoln's life, from his rail-splitting and rafting to his debates with Douglas and his inauguration as president. Flanking these are inscriptions of his most memorable words, beginning with his protests against

slavery in 1854, and ending with his Gettysburg address, which faces his monument in the impressive entrance hall.

But the memorial is to Lincoln's times and compatriots as well as to him. Scattered about are medallion portraits of his great cabinet ministers, the leaders in the army and navy, Congress and the press, together with the greatest sons of Illinois who staunchly stood with Lincoln for the Union, alike at the front and at home.

The teachers in training for Illinois' 500 high schools, for its many more public schools and its scores of colleges; the long front rank of engineers, farmers, miners; the economists, officials and professional people who pass from their homes to their places in the working world through Lincoln Hall or the other departments of the great university, cannot fail to take the impression of the Lincoln spirit—thus reincarnated in art and architecture not only, but in the Humanities taught therein. Perhaps even the state legislators are "building better than they knew" in raising a shrine for patriotism to mark the fall of the bribery and exploitation among them which have shamed the state and the very name of Lincoln.

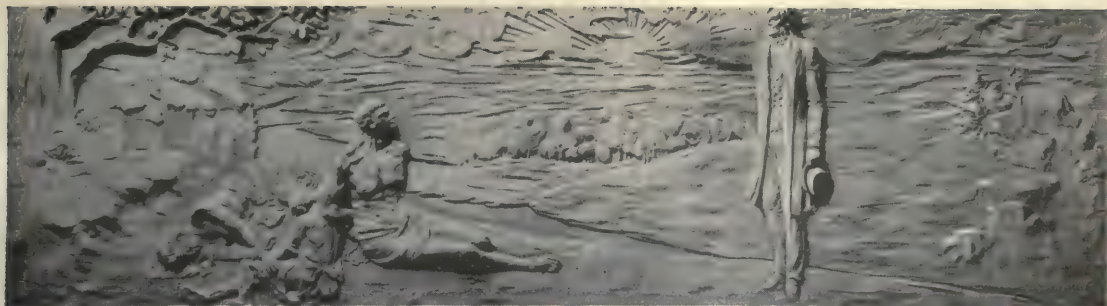
The dedication on the twelfth of February promises to be memorable in the history of the state, with such men as Bliss Perry of Harvard to speak on language and literature, Prof. Frederick J. E. Woodbridge of Columbia on philosophy, Albert Shaw on the social sciences and their importance to the commonwealth. Perhaps it may ring out to realization the keynote struck by President James in his inaugural, that Illinois needs and shall have a great "civic service university."



THE FAMOUS LINCOLN-DOUGLAS DEBATE

"Is it possible for a nation to endure half slave and half free?"





LINCOLN, SAVIOR OF THE SLAVE



## HAS THE EMANCIPATION ACT BEEN NULLIFIED BY NATIONAL INDIFFERENCE



JANE ADDAMS

**I**N his remarkable book *Democracy and Reaction* Leonard T. Hobhouse points out a far-reaching reaction in the temper of the times which has, during the last sixty years, gradually penetrated every department of thought and life. He illustrates this by the changed attitude towards slavery, which he asserts is partly traceable to want of concrete acquaintance with the thing itself. Our fathers and grandfathers were nearer to it as they were nearer to many other political abuses; the principles of reform to which they appealed had a very real meaning to them in their struggles, just as today personal liberty means more to a Russian than to an Englishman who has never been without it, and he concludes that "Many principles which they established we have let slip merely for want of imagination enough to realize what the denial of such principles would mean in practice."

Although our very prosperity and political tranquillity were achieved through the efforts of the previous generation of reformers, it is our mood to accept their work with a nod of recognition for its sacrifices but with no sense of obligation to carry on the strenuous task. Does our mood repeat that world-wide yielding to race antagonism, or does it partake of the growing self-assertion of the so-called "superior" races who exact labor and taxes from black and yellow men with the easy explanation of "manifest destiny?"

Scrutiny of reactionary developments are, of course, valuable only as they indicate possible ways of escape, otherwise they were best left untouched. But is it not possible at this fiftieth anniversary of the issuance of the Emancipation Proclamation, that most compelling and far-reaching document of democracy, to seriously test our national trend, using as a touchstone our attitude towards those whose freedom was achieved with such an expenditure of moral energy and devotion?

What have we done to bring to the status of full citizenship the people Lincoln's proclamation raised from the conditions of slavery, who were there-



LINCOLN AS CIRCUIT RIDER



by enabled at once to legitimize family life and to make contracts, but who inevitably looked forward to the civil and political rights implied in the great document? How far are we responsible that their civil rights are often rendered futile, their political action curtailed, their equality before the law denied in fact, industrial opportunities withheld from them and, above all, that for twenty-five years they have been exposed to the black horrors of lynching? How far has the act of the great emancipator been nullified by our national indifference?

It would be difficult to state just when the tide of indifference set in but certainly we would all admit that the attitude both in the North and South towards colored men has been responsible for strange inhibitions and limitations operating on the spirits of the entire white population. If we would carefully study the souls of white folks to discover the cause of this spiritual bondage, it would not be difficult to find in the South a loyalty to a lost cause, to those who died in its behalf and to those who surviving suffered and dedicated all to it; the necessity for admitting that those who thus died or suffered might appear to be in the wrong, in itself tends to confuse the issue whenever the Negro demands political equality.

Memories of a caste relationship which permitted great intimacy but perpetuated differences in opportunity, blind whole communities to the inconsistencies practised in many parts of the South today. Whenever southern men thoughtlessly brand every black man as a menace to the virtue of white women, they forget the loyal protection given by black men to white women and children during the war while they, the white men, were striving to perpetuate a system involving the continuance of Negro slavery. Conditions of the shameful carpet-bagger and the corrupt political practices after the war are still used by the young South to justify a similar system of political corruption and oppression toward those whom the northerner so unwisely befriended. These, among other things, account for the treatment of the blacks by the white South when education, economic opportunity, civil rights, personal justice and political capacity are in practice often successfully, and apparently conscientiously, denied to the Negro.

But what of the white North, which ignoring the glory of its inheritance, careless of the principles for which the war was fought at such terrible cost, submits to the chains forged, not by the southerner as is often asserted, but by its own indifference. The consequence of such bondage upon the life of the nation can be formulated only when we have a wider and more exact knowledge. What has been and is being lost by the denial of opportunity and of free expression on the part of the Negro, it is now very difficult to estimate; only faint suggestions of the waste can be perceived. There is, without doubt, the sense of humor, unique and spontaneous, so different from the wit of the Yankee, or the inimitable story telling prized in the South; the Negro melodies which are the only American folk-songs; the persistent love of color expressing itself in the bright curtains and window boxes in the dullest and grayest parts of our cities; the executive and organizing capacity so often exhibited by the head waiter in a huge hotel or by the colored woman who administers a complicated household; the gift of eloquence, the mellowed voice, the use of rhythm and onomatopoeia which is now so often travestied in a grotesque use of long words.

Much more could be added to the list of positive losses suffered by the community which puts so many of its own members "behind the veil." It means an enormous loss of capacity to the nation when great ranges of human life are hedged about with antagonism. We forget that whatever is spontaneous in a people, in an individual, a class or a nation, is always a source of life, a well-spring of refreshment to a jaded civilization. To continually suspect, suppress and to fear any large group in a community must finally result in a loss of enthusiasm for that type of government which gives free play to the self-determination of a majority of its citizens. Must we admit that the old abolitionist arguments now seem flat and stale, that, because we are no longer stirred to remove fetters, to prevent cruelty, to lead the humblest to the banquet of civilization, therefore we are ready to eliminate the conception of right and wrong from political affairs and to substitute the base doctrine of "political necessity and reasons of state?"



# THE STATUS AND VOCATION OF OUR COLORED PEOPLE

GEORGE BURMAN FOSTER

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**G**O back a little. Time was when the ideal of man was the angel: fatherland-less, family-less, vocation-less, aye, body-less. The earth was evil, and man's true home was elsewhere. Verities and values were elsewhere. So the Mother Church of the olden days taught. But this view passed; for our purpose, it does not matter how or why.

Next, the ideal of man was not an angel from heaven, but the great man of classic Greece and Rome—the heaven of humanism. In the former case, to become an angel one must be subject to the church; in the latter, one must go to school—to the supermen of classic days. Those supermen were free, but only by subjecting others to themselves. As, in the former case, candidates for angelhood were an upper class by themselves, so humanism declared a breach between men: on the one side, the few and elect; on the other, the many, the second-class folk.

In the middle age faith made the difference between the saved and the damned; in humanism, culture, science, art, built the wall between man and man. The new, raw, wild Anglo-Saxon folk were to appropriate the strange foreign culture of far-off Hellas and Rome, of Homer, of Aristotle, Plato, Cicero, Seneca, instead of the Bible and the church fathers that were likewise alien to their genius. This is why the survivals of the humanists still among us think that you must know Greek and Latin before you have a right to express a judgment upon the decisive questions of human life, upon truth and beauty and goodness. But, for the most part, humanism has passed, too.

Then came the rationalistic eighteenth century, with its new ideal of humanity. This was not a learned but a practical affair. It was an effort to discern the human, no longer in the ancient Greek and Roman, and in the copies thereof alone, but in all men; no longer in noble, but in citizen; no longer in master, but in slave; yes, in black Negro slave, who, according to humanist proof, did not belong to man and had no soul; who, according to the candidates for angelic honors, were under the curse of Ham, and divinely destined to eternal slavery to the saints.

This age of humanity propounded the query once again: What is man? The best sons of

this age of enlightenment agreed that man was something noble and great and lofty; that his greatness did not depend upon the folk he belonged to, the faith he confessed; that in all nations and confessions he is to be found; that no color and no race can rob him of his human right; that no foredoom to slavery could deprive him of his right to be man. These new apostles of humanity had not simply the ancient classic folk, but the world, as their school; and precisely the world of their own day began to burst the bonds that bound it to the past, that it might live a life in the present; it eavesdropped the sound that floated over to it from strange lands and men, and found therein the basic tones of its own seeking, struggling human spirit.

But, for all that, there was something wrong with that eighteenth century ideal of humanity. It had its limitations. This man of "humanity" was something vague, indefinite, something universal. The living, concrete, real, specific man, member of a given people, speaker of a given language, dweller in a given land, this empirical man still suffered abbreviation. You have heard of the old monk who was so enamored with the universal, and not the concrete and particular or the actual, that he said he would no longer eat apples and peaches and pears, and the like, but just fruit! If the human quality in all men is the rational, as these rationalists declared, their reason must not be pitched too high, for there are so many men with reason so embryonic and undeveloped. Even the weak and scanty traces of the human in the feathered folk and wild, and in the black folk, are still human.

This was an epoch making confession. Instead of the angel like saint of the church, instead of the classic Greek and Roman of the humanist, instead of the abstract and lofty "humanity" of the rationalists, instead of any of these which were once idealized as models of the really human, we now have romanticism celebrating and glorifying the Negro and the Indian, nature-men and nature-people, as the true types of man. Therefore, the century of "humanity" was transcended and antiquated. And the new insight which is exhilarating all of us today was born.

That is, the next answer to the question, What is man? is the one which we now see that we



must give. Man is not until he becomes; we are not men; our vocation is to become men. Man is not angelic or classic; man is not the Great Concept, he is the Great Toiler. He is task, achievement.

This grave and stirring thought falls in line with creative evolution and creative democracy and creative personality. The angelic man was a gift, the classic man was a gift, the conceptual man was an easy, intellectual, and not an emotional and practical, product. Even nature-man is a gift; but culture-man is a task. This means the forming and ordering, the development of the inchoate into organic life, personal and social. This means the humanization of all animal impulses and passions, the ennoblement of all that is rude and vulgar, the culture of all that is crude and wild and raw. To be man is not to possess by donation the alien goods of thought, but to develop from within a function of thinking of one's own. So for beauty, for truth, for goodness, for faith; so for all values and verities, of every kind, social and personal. All this the human race has had to achieve by the sweat of its brow as it tilled life's thorny field, all this is no easy gift from without, but an evolution and creation from within. There is no gift that is not at the same time a task. Has the organism an eye? It grows it. Has it a conscience, an ideal—aye, a government, a law, an industry, a home, a school, a church, in a word, culture or civilization? It grows or creates or achieves that, too.

In these days we gratefully and hopefully speak of fifty years of the emancipation of the Negro. But we know that, while that first outer emancipation cost others blood and tears as slavery was shot to death by the million guns of the republic, it was mostly a gift to the Negro. The next emancipation is inner emancipation, and this he must achieve for himself. He must earn and create the true values for himself.

"There's no defeat in life save from within; Unless you're beaten there, you're bound to win."

But, right as the poet is, we know that the "within" needs a "without." And so we are glad for Booker T. Washington's point of view. Outer possessions, and the outer work and training and equipment for such work—that is a great desideratum, not simply as pre-condition, but as process and production of the inner world. While the moral ability to be poor is better than to be just rich, yet the merits of poverty have been much overestimated. Let the Negro among us keep on at the acquisition of material goods—it comes first in the order of time—and the virtues of industry and frugality and sound judgment and self-control will con-

stantly increase. And these are firm basis for the inner world.

What will that inner world of the Negro turn out to be? The Orient gave us religion; Greece, art and philosophy; Rome, law and equity; the Anglo-Saxon, science and democracy. What will be the distinctive contribution of the Negro race? Perhaps he is too new in the making for us to say. I think it will be a marvelous combination of realism and idealism, of verity and vision, of earth and sky. But especially will he soften and lighten our harsh and gloomy Anglo-Saxon nature and life, warm our cold intellectualism, water our emotional aridity with the poetry and art and song and oratory of his distinctive genius. His sensuousness, in the good sense of that word, will supplement and rectify our spirituality, which is not always a good condition. Flesh helps soul, not less than soul, flesh. We must not forget that the flesh can sin against the spirit as well as the spirit against the flesh. I believe that the Negro is going to contribute much to the solution of the difficult problem of the ideal relation between sensuousness and spirituality.

And our attitude toward him? In the spirit of human brotherhood, and by so much as we have arrived, it is our duty not to block or impede his arriving, but to co-operate with him in his self-achievement and self-consummation. Since he is human, too, we are members one of another; and no man liveth to himself and no man dieth to himself. In the long run and in the main we cannot be up if he is down, we cannot be cultured if he is barbarous, we cannot be healthy if he is diseased, nay, we cannot be good if he is bad. Besides, let our experience of how hard and long a task it is to achieve values, of how poor and cheap and tawdry much of our ideal goods are, of how frail and faulty we have ever been, make us patient and charitable with these new and inexperienced toilers at the ideal formation of our African humanity.

Above all, we should take pains to see that we closed no door of opportunity in any direction to them. How unbrotherly, how derogatory and paralyzing to the Negro's ability and possibility it is to restrict his opportunity to the drudgery and humdrum of the menial and the mediocre! Mopping floors, cleaning streets and sewers, washing dishes in restaurants, and the like—the arbitrary limitation of the Negro's opportunity to these tasks is unnecessary and unbrotherly on the part of our industrial and social life. Make it a point to give the Negro a chance at the vocations which require mental and moral ability and training, and our business men will see that the opposition of white laborers will not be serious and that the Negro will not be found wanting.



The life of the Negro is now in the making; he must make it himself; but not alone; we must work with him, he with us, and both with that God and Father of all men who is no respecter of persons. Like Him, we must have faith in man, in all men, in the black man; and faith is not absorption in the past, nor acquiescence in the present, nor cynicism toward the future which says we are such that the good thing can-

not be done, nor pessimism toward the future which says that the world is such that the good thing cannot be done. No, faith is the venturesomeness of moral knighthood, the response of the will to a vision, the identification of the will with an ideal. Faith is directed to the uncertain, indeed, but with the purpose of making the uncertain certain. It is ours to have this true faith in the future and fortune of our freedmen.

## THE BASIS OF RACE ADJUSTMENT

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IT is an axiom that justice is the basis of social order. It follows that it must be at the foundation in the adjustment of relations between nationalities and races. This idea of justice is broader than political rights or than civic privileges, for it includes economic and social justice. It means that every individual should have an opportunity for physical, mental and moral development to the limit of his capacity. It waives the question of superiority and inferiority of individuals or races and vouchsafes to all the chance for self-realization. It means equal opportunity.

In the Negro's relation to the white people of America permanent progress can be made only by the increase of this type of justice. Equal chance for the Negro to get work, to hold work, to develop his capacity for work; equal protection of life and property; equal opportunity to educate his children to the limit of their varied capacity and to provide such a home for his family as his taste dictates and his purse allows; equal opportunity in sharing political responsibilities and of responding to the duties of citizenship, conditioned by character only, are fundamental conditions without which permanent adjustment cannot be made.

Another factor, which must grow stronger, is mutual confidence and sympathy between black and white citizens. Alfred H. Stone in his *Studies in the American Race Problem* points out the apprehension of white people about the Negro which grows out of "the association of ideas" of past experiences, especially during the reconstruction period. Although probably not arising from the same experience, there is apprehension in the Negro mind due to "association of ideas" which colors his view of the present attitude of white people toward him. To bring about amicable adjustment this apprehension of both races must be displaced by a mutual trust, which will expect only help the one from the other in their efforts for self-realization.

For centuries the Negro has been habitually sympathetic and unresentful. Prof. John W. Work of Fisk University, who for twenty years has gathered, set to score, studied and sung the Negro folk songs, says that in the nearly 500 he has collected not a rhythm or sentence of hatred, malice or revenge has been found. Probably every other passion of the human heart has been expressed in these songs. Most of these compositions are the sorrow songs of slavery. If this could come out of Egypt, nothing is improbable in the promised land of mutual sympathy between manly men.

Justice, confidence and sympathy must find community expression in co-operation. Competition, which tends to eliminate the weak, is not more fundamental than co-operation, which calls upon the strong to help the weak to attain strength. In fact, such just and sympathetic consideration is the purchase price exacted of the strength of the strong. But the Negro has valuable elements of strength to offer to American civilization. Music in the soul, meekness of spirit and wonder at the mysterious world are inner qualities of strength, though not reckoned by birth and banks and battleships.

In art, in literature, in music, in oratory, in education, in reform, in industry and in business, co-operation will bring rich rewards to both races.

But ideal principles must have practical application to foster adjustment between the two peoples in America. A long stride toward securing economic justice can be made by the labor unions extending a welcome to the Negro. Their interests are bound up with the industrial freedom of the Negro today as surely as the welfare of the free workingmen before the war was affected by slave labor. Civic justice will gain great headway when the Negro shares in its administration according to his capacity. A police force and judiciary in which he can have



no part, regardless of his attainments, produce lukewarm loyalty; and political life from which color alone excludes him ties a millstone about the neck of democracy.

Newspapers are probably the greatest single agency for dispelling apprehension and developing mutual confidence. The periodicals and magazines come in for their share of influence. If in some way both the white and Negro papers could be induced to present the good qualities, attitudes and actions, past and present, of the races toward each other, the wisest prophet could not predict the impulse to progress which would follow.

When the more thoughtful elements of the white people and the Negroes in each community begin to confer together about their common problems, substantial advancement will have been made in race adjustment. Each community with a Negro population needs a conscious plan and program. The two races must map them out together if success is to follow.

Justice, equal opportunity, mutual confidence, sympathy and co-operation in developing the weak by the aid of the strong should bring us nearer to complete race adjustment during the next half-century than that to which we have attained at this jubilee year of emancipation.

## SOCIAL EFFECTS OF EMANCIPATION

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**I**N endeavoring to sum up the results of emancipating the Negro slaves in the United States fifty years ago, it will be natural to note the material and educational advances the colored people have made; the evidences of group consciousness among them; their present legal and political status and the outlook for social reform.

In 1863 there were about 5,000,000 persons of Negro descent in the United States. Of these 4,000,000 and more were just being released from slavery. These slaves could be bought and sold, could move from place to place only with permission, were forbidden to learn to read or write, legally could never hold property or marry. Ninety per cent were totally illiterate and only one adult in six was a nominal Christian. Until 1863 the total slave population had been steadily increasing, and the South was passing laws to enslave free Negroes. The three-quarters of a million free Negroes had been equally divided between the North and the South. Those in the South were a wretched, broken-spirited lot for the most part and slaves in all but name. Here and there in cities there were a few among them who were prosperous mechanics and property holders to a small extent.

The 250,000 Negroes of the North were the leaven and had been making for nearly a century a struggle for survival. They aided in the anti-slavery movement, had a few newspapers, and had produced leaders like Frederick Douglass and Harriet Tubman. They had planned and carried through a systematic migration to Canada where several prosperous settlements sprang up. They started schools in a number of cities and founded the catering business in Philadelphia. They had held several general conventions ap-

pealing for justice. For the most part these appeals fell on deaf ears, although Garrison, Sumner, Phillips, Harriet Beecher Stowe and John Brown had come to their aid.

Nevertheless, up to the time of the opening of the war, the Negroes in the North were forced to live in the worst slums and alleys, were either excluded entirely from the public schools or furnished cheap and poor substitutes, and in 300 years only twenty colored men had received a college education. Except in parts of New England and partially in New York, the Negro was disfranchised and largely without civil rights. Indeed, the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 made personal freedom difficult, and in 1857 the Supreme Court had declared that Negroes were not citizens, and that they had always been considered as having "no rights which the white man was bound to respect."

Then came the war, which was not started with the idea of liberating the slaves, but which soon showed the North that freedom for the Negro was not only a logical conclusion of the war, but the only possible physical conclusion. Two hundred thousand black men were drafted in the army and the whole slave support to the Confederacy was threatened with withdrawal. Insurrection was in the air and the emancipation of the slaves was needed to save the Union. Such, then, was the situation in 1863.

Fifty years later, in 1913, there are in the United States 10,250,000 persons of Negro descent, an increase of 105 per cent. Legal slavery has been abolished, leaving, however, vestiges in debt peonage and the convict lease system. The freedmen and their sons have

"Earned a living as free men; shared the responsibilities of government; developed the in-



ternal organization of their race, and aspired to spiritual self-expression."

### *Economic Progress*

The Negro was freed as a penniless, landless, naked, ignorant laborer. Very few Negroes owned property in the South; a larger number owned property in the North; but 90 per cent of the race in the South were field hands, servants of the lowest class. Today 50 per cent are farm laborers and servants, and over one-half of these are working as efficient modern workmen under wage contract. Above these, to use the figures of 1900, there are 750,000 farmers, 70,000 teamsters, 55,000 railway hands, 36,000 miners, 33,000 sawmill employes, 28,000 porters, 21,000 teachers, 21,000 carpenters, 20,000 barbers, 20,000 nurses, 15,000 clergymen, 14,000 masons, 13,000 dressmakers and seamstresses, 10,000 engineers, and firemen, 2,500 physicians, and, above all, 200,000 mistresses of independent homes, and 2,000,000 children in school.

Fifty years ago the overwhelming mass of these people were not only penniless, but were themselves assessed as real estate. By 1875 the Negroes probably had gotten hold of something between 2,000,000 and 4,000,000 acres of land through their bounties as soldiers and the low price of land on account of the war. By 1910 this had increased to about 18,000,000 acres.

In 1890 Negroes owned 120,738 farms; in 1900 they owned 187,799; in 1910 they owned about 220,000. Thus, over 25 per cent of the Negro farmers owned their own farms, and the increase of farm owners between 1890 and 1910 has been over 83 per cent. The value of land and buildings owned by Negroes in the South was in 1910 \$272,992,238. This is an increase of nearly 90 per cent in a single decade. This does not include land owned by Negro farmers but rented out. On a basis of the value of farm property in 1900, a committee of the American Economic Association estimated the value of Negro wealth in the United States at \$300,000,000. On the same basis we can estimate the total Negro wealth today at \$570,000,000.

### *The Negro and Organization*

Today the Negro is a recognized part of the American government; he holds 9,000 offices in the executive service of the nation, besides furnishing four regiments in the army and a large number of sailors. In the state and municipal civil service he holds at least 10,000 other offices, and he furnishes 500,000 of the votes which rule the Union.

In these same years the Negro has relearned the lost art of organization. Slavery was the absolute denial of initiative and responsibility. Today Negroes have 35,000 church edifices, worth

\$56,000,000, and controlling nearly 4,000,000 members. They raise themselves \$7,500,000 a year for these churches.

There are 200 private schools and colleges managed and almost entirely supported by Negroes, and other public and private Negro schools have received in forty years \$45,000,000 of Negro money in taxes and donations. Five millions a year are raised by Negro secret and beneficial societies, which hold at least \$6,000,000 in real estate.

Above and beyond this material growth has gone the spiritual uplift of a great human race. From contempt and amusement they have passed to the pity and perplexity of their neighbors, while within their own souls they have arisen from apathy and timid complaint to open protest and more and more manly self-assertion. Where nine-tenths of them could not read or write in 1859, today two-thirds can; they have 200 papers and periodicals, and their voice and expression are compelling attention.

Already the poems of Dunbar and Braithwaite, the essays of Miller and Grimke, the music of Rosamond Johnson and the painting of Tanner are the property of the nation and the world. Instead of being led and defended by others, as in the past, they are gaining their own leaders, their own voices, their own ideals. Self-realization is thus coming slowly but surely to another of the world's great races, and Negroes are today girding themselves to fight in the van of progress, not simply for their own rights as men, but for the ideals of the greater world in which they live—the emancipation of women, universal peace, democratic government, the socialization of wealth, and human brotherhood.

This, then, is the transformation of the Negro in America in fifty years; from slavery to freedom, from 5,000,000 to 10,250,000, from denial of citizenship to enfranchisement, from being owned chattels to ownership of \$570,000,000 in property, from unorganized irresponsibility to organized group life, from being spoken for to speaking, from contemptuous forgetfulness on the part of their neighbors to uneasy fear and dawning respect, and from inarticulate complaint to self-expression and dawning consciousness of manhood.

### *Legal Disabilities*

Notwithstanding this creditable showing the present situation has dark and threatening aspects: First, we have in the United States the distinct growth of a caste system. It has been adjudged in many states a misdemeanor to call a white man a Negro; it has been adjudged in many states that a person having the slightest degree of Negro blood is a "Negro"; inter-marriage of Negroes and whites is prohibited in



twenty-six states even if the persons are living as man and wife; travel is interfered with by separating whites and Negroes in the South and it has been decided that Negroes do not have to be given absolutely "equal" accommodations; colored and white people are separated in the South on street cars, in waiting rooms, on many elevators, on steamboats, etc. In practice Negroes are liable to discrimination in hotels, restaurants, saloons, soda fountains, theaters, cemeteries, insane asylums and in the militia. This is forbidden by many northern states, but the law is difficult to enforce. Church organizations either refuse Negro members entirely, as in the case of most white churches of the South, or put them in an allied organization or in separate congregations. Separate school systems are compulsory in the South and allowed in a few northern cities, as Indianapolis.

In the courts, Negroes are not legally discriminated against, but an extra-legal system has arisen in the South, to a less extent in the border states and to some extent in the North, which tries and punishes the Negro criminal on an entirely different basis from the white criminal. The result is that the number of long-term Negro convicts is extraordinary. In the South it is unusual to send a white man to the penitentiary or to capital punishment, or to punish a white woman under any circumstances. The penitentiaries, therefore, are filled with Negroes, and are among the worst penal institutions in the world. They are, most of them, run for profit under the convict lease system. There are very few reformatories for colored children, and their conviction, therefore, means the manufacture of confirmed criminals. There is a widespread tendency, which shows no decided reduction, to murder by mob violence Negroes accused of crime. Since 1885, 2,584 such murders have taken place. Only 25 per cent of those lynched have been even accused of crimes against women, and in most of these accusations the offense alleged was not criminal.

Since 1890 five and a half million Negroes, over half of whom can read and write and who own fully \$300,000,000 worth of property, have been practically deprived of all voice in their own government. The restrictions by which this has been accomplished are eight in number: 1. Illiteracy: the voter must be able to read and write. 2. Property: the voter must own a certain amount of property. 3. Poll tax: the voter must have paid his poll tax for the present year or for a series of years. 4. Employment: the voter must have regular employment. 5. Army service: soldiers in the Civil War and certain other wars, or their descendants, may vote. 6. Reputation: persons of good reputation who understand the duties of a citizen may vote. 7. "Grandfather" clause: persons who could vote before the

freedmen were enfranchised or descendants of such persons may vote. 8. Understanding clause: persons may vote who understand some selected clause of the constitution and can explain it to the satisfaction of the registration officials.

If these laws were impartially administered the result would be bad enough; but they are deliberately, openly and avowedly administered so as to admit any white man, however ignorant, to the polls and to exclude any colored man however intelligent.

To illustrate the immediate effect of these disfranchising laws, the following statistical tables are given:

#### LOUISIANA

		White	Negro
1900	Population .....	729,612	650,804
1900	Males 21 years or over.....	178,595	147,348
	Literate .....	146,219	57,086
	Illiterate .....	32,376	90,262
1908	Registered voters.....	152,135	1,743

#### LOWNDES COUNTY, ALABAMA

		White	Negro
1900	Males 21 years or over.....	1,138	6,455
	Illiterate .....	81	4,607
	Literate .....	1,057	1,788
1902	Registered voters.....	1,097	39
1906	" " .....	1,142	52

Under a strict educational qualification the literate Negroes of Lowndes county could outvote all the whites, literate and illiterate, yet only fifty-two are given the franchise!

#### *Social Reform and Educational Opportunities*

The result of all this has been to retard public education and social reform among colored people except that which can be carried on in private institutions or by voluntary taxation.

In the North they share somewhat in the general results of social reform work. There is, however, in this field a great deal of discrimination. Social settlements often exclude them—the "Lincoln" settlement, for instance, in Boston; fresh air funds sometimes make no provision for them; day nurseries discriminate; and even where they are not actually discriminated against, they are not made to feel welcome. On the other hand, they have their full share, heaped up and running over, of all the disabilities due to city congestion and municipal misrule. So too they are common sufferers with the rest of the South, in the general backwardness of the southern states in education, in public health regulation, in inadequate provision for the insane, the feeble-minded and the delinquent. They are sufferers without the power to vote for change.

The colored people through their women's clubs are bearing almost the whole burden of their own internal social reform. They have one hundred old folks' homes and orphanages, about 40 hospitals (some of which have partial public sup-



port), at least 500 private cemeteries, and a large number of charitable organizations of various kinds.

Not only has the general enrollment and attendance of Negro children in the rural schools of the lower South and to a large extent of the city schools been at a standstill in the last ten years and in many cases actually decreased but many of the school authorities have shown by their acts and in a few cases expressed declaration that it was their policy to eliminate the Negro schools as far as possible.

There is a distinct endeavor to curtail the facilities of education which the Negroes already possess. This can be seen in the persistent campaigns carried on in the North and directed toward the North which say in effect, that the Negroes' education as carried on by northern philanthropists has been a mistake, that it is an interference with the local conditions in the South, and that the stream of benevolence ought to be stopped. There is no doubt but that this argument has had tremendous influence upon the benevolent public.

Again, there has been a continual effort to curtail Negro education by reducing the number of grades in the Negro public schools. Macon and Augusta, Ga., and New Orleans, La., are typical in this connection. The lack of public high schools for Negroes is one of the greatest drawbacks of the southern school system.

At the same time the Negroes are helping to pay for the education of the whites, in the sense that public monies which Negroes pay in indirect taxation or which are endowments from past generations are diverted entirely to white schools. A southern city school superintendent gives this table:

	VIRGINIA 1907	N. CAROLINA 1908	GEORGIA 1907
Total cost of schools . . . .	\$3,308,086.00..	\$2,958,160.00..	\$2,850,211.00
Cost of Negro schools . . . . .	489,228.00....	402,658.00....	506,170.00
Per cent. of total cost going to Negro schools . . . . .	14.7.....	13.6.....	17.7
Per cent. of Negroes in population . . . . .	35.7.....	33.3.....	46.7
Negroes proportion of direct and indirect taxation and of endowments . . . .	\$507,305.00...	\$429,197.00...	\$647,852.54

On the whole, then, it may be said that the efforts of the Negroes since emancipation have been very promising and beyond what could be reasonably expected; that, on the other hand, the caste system which attempts to exclude Negroes from the benefit of the general social and political organization of a great modern state is strong and growing both North and South, and is not only a hindrance to Negro-Americans but a serious menace to American democracy.

OUR COUNTRY'S LYNCHING RECORD

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THE closing month of the year 1912 witnessed an incident which probably could not happen in any other civilized country. The governor of one of the oldest states of the Union in an address before the Conference of Governors defended the practice of lynching, and declared that he would willingly lead a mob to lynch a Negro who had assaulted a white woman. Twenty years ago, another governor of the same state not only made a similar statement, but while he was in office actually delivered to a mob a Negro who had merely been charged with this offense—it was unproven—and who had taken refuge with the governor for protection.

It is gratifying to know that the governors' meeting formally condemned these expressions, and that a leading Georgia citizen has undertaken to refute the sentiment expressed by Governor Blease. However, while no other official has thus officially encouraged this form of lawlessness, yet, because of the widespread ac-

quiescence in the practice, many governors have refused to deal sternly with the leaders of mobs or to enforce the law against lynchers.

To the civilized world, which has demanded an explanation as to why human beings have been put to death in this lawless fashion, the excuse given has been the same as that voiced by Governor Blease a short month ago. Yet statistics show that in none of the thirty years of lynching has more than one-fourth of the persons hung, shot and burned to death, been even charged with this crime. During 1912, sixty-five persons were lynched.

Up to November 15 the distribution among the states was as follows:

Alabama . . . . .	5	Oregon . . . . .	1
Arkansas . . . . .	3	Oklahoma . . . . .	1
Florida . . . . .	3	South Carolina . . . . .	5
Georgia . . . . .	11	Tennessee . . . . .	5
Louisiana . . . . .	4	Texas . . . . .	3
Mississippi . . . . .	5	Virginia . . . . .	1
Montana . . . . .	1	West Virginia . . . . .	1
North Carolina . . . . .	1	Wyoming . . . . .	1
North Dakota . . . . .	1		



Fifty of these were Negroes; three were Negro women. They were charged with these offenses:

Murder .....	26	Insults to white women .....	3
Rape .....	10	Attempted rape .....	2
Murderous assault .....	2	Assault and robbery .....	1
Complicity in murder .....	3	Race prejudice .....	1
Arson .....	3	No cause assigned .....	1

Because the Negro has so little chance to be heard in his own defense and because those who have participated in the lynching have written most of the stories about them, the civilized world has accepted almost without question the excuse offered.

From this table it appears that less than a sixth of these persons were lynched because the mob believed them to be guilty of assaulting white women. In some cases the causes have been trivial. And it appears that the northern states have permitted this lawless practice to develop and the lives of hapless victims to be taken with as much brutality, if not as frequently, as those of the South—witness, Springfield, Ill., a few years ago, and Coatesville, Pa., only last year.

The lynching mania, so far as it affects Negroes, began in the South immediately after the Emancipation Proclamation fifty years ago. It manifested itself through what was known as the Klu Klux Klan, armed bodies of masked men, who during the period between 1865 and 1875, killed Negroes who tried to exercise the political rights conferred on them by the United States until by such terrorism the South regained political control. The aftermath of such practices is displayed in the following table giving the number of Negroes lynched in each year since 1885:

1885 .....	184	1899 .....	107
1886 .....	138	1900 .....	115
1887 .....	122	1901 .....	135
1888 .....	142	1902 .....	98
1889 .....	176	1903 .....	104
1890 .....	127	1904 .....	87
1891 .....	192	1905 .....	86
1892 .....	235	1906 .....	60
1893 .....	200	1907 .....	63
1894 .....	190	1908 .....	100
1895 .....	171	1909 .....	87
1896 .....	131	1910 .....	74
1897 .....	106	1911 .....	71
1898 .....	127	1912 .....	64

With the South in control of its political machinery, the new excuse was made that lynchings were necessary to protect the honor of white womanhood. Although black men had taken such good care of the white women of the South during the four years their masters were fighting to keep them in slavery, this calumny was published broadcast. The world believed it was

necessary for white men in hundreds to lynch one defenseless Negro who had been accused of assaulting a white woman. In the thirty years in which lynching has been going on in the South, this falsehood has been universally accepted in all sections of our country, and has been offered by thousands as a reason why they do not speak out against these terrible outrages.

It is charged that a ceaseless propaganda has been going on in every northern state for years, with the result that not only is there no systematic denunciation of these horrible barbarisms, but northern cities and states have been known to follow the fashion of burning human beings alive. In no one thing is there more striking illustration of the North's surrender of its position on great moral ideas than in its lethargic attitude toward the lynching evil.

The belief is often expressed that if the North would stand as firmly for principle as the South does for prejudice, lynching and many other evils would be checked. It seems invariably true, however, that when principle and prejudice come into collision, principle retires and leaves prejudice the victor.

In the celebration of the fiftieth year of the Negro's freedom, does it seem too much to ask white civilization, Christianity and Democracy to be true to themselves on this as all other questions? They can not then be false to any man or race of men. Our democracy asserts that the people are fighting for the time when all men shall be brothers and the liberty of each shall be the concern of all. If this is true, the struggle is bound to take in the Negro. We cannot remain silent when the lives of men and women who are black are lawlessly taken, without imperiling the foundations of our government.

Civilization cannot burn human beings alive or justify others who do so; neither can it refuse a trial by jury for black men accused of crime, without making a mockery of the respect for law which is the safeguard of the liberties of white men. The nation cannot profess Christianity, which makes the golden rule its foundation stone, and continue to deny equal opportunity for life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness to the black race.

When our Christian and moral influences not only concede these principles theoretically but work for them practically, lynching will become a thing of the past, and no governor will again make a mockery of all the nation holds dear in the defense of lynching for any cause.



# THE COLOR LINE IN THE HOUSING PROBLEM

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ONE of the many serious problems that now confront the Negro not only in southern communities but also in many a northern city is the difficulty he experiences in finding decent housing accommodations for his family. In the face of increasing manifestations of race prejudice, he has come to acquiesce silently, as various civil rights are withheld from him in the old "free North," which was once the Mecca of his race. He rarely protests, for example, at being excluded from restaurants and hotels or at being virtually refused entertainment at the theater or the opera. There are three points, however, which he cannot yield and in regard to which he should not be allowed to yield. He must claim a decent home for his family in a respectable neighborhood and at a reasonable rental, an equal chance of employment with the white man, and education for his children. We will consider here only the first of these three demands.

In a recent investigation of general housing conditions in Chicago,<sup>1</sup> the problem of the Negro was found to be quite different from that of immigrants. With the Negro, the housing dilemma was found to be an acute problem not only among the poor, as in the case of the Polish, the Jewish, or the Italian immigrant, but also among the well-to-do. The man who is poor as well as black must face the special evil of dilapidated insanitary dwellings and the lodger evil in its worst form. But for every man who is black, whether rich or poor, there is also the problem of extortionate rents and of dangerous proximity to segregated vice. The Negro is not only compelled to live in a segregated black district, but this region of Negro homes is almost invariably the one in which vice is tolerated by the police. That is, the segregation of the Negro quarter is only a segregation from respectable white people. The disreputable white element is forced upon him. It is probably not too much to say that no colored family can long escape the presence of disreputable or disorderly neighbors. Respectable and well-to-do Negroes may by subterfuge succeed in buying property in a decent neighborhood, but they are sure to be followed soon by those disreputable elements which are allowed to exist outside the so-called "levee" district.

In no other part of Chicago, not even in the Ghetto, was there found a whole neighborhood so conspicuously dilapidated as the black belt on

the South Side. No other group suffered so much from decaying buildings, leaking roofs, doors without hinges, broken windows, insanitary plumbing, rotting floors, and a general lack of repairs. In no other neighborhood were landlords so obdurate, so unwilling to make necessary improvements or to cancel leases so that tenants might seek better accommodations elsewhere. Of course, to go elsewhere was often impossible because nowhere is the prospective colored tenant or neighbor welcome. In the South Side black belt 74 per cent of the buildings were in a state of disrepair; in a more fortunate neighborhood, partly colored, only 65 per cent of the buildings were out of repair, but one-third were absolutely dilapidated.

Not only does the Negro suffer from this extreme dilapidation, but he pays a heavy cost in the form of high rent. A careful house-to-house canvass showed that in the most run down colored neighborhoods in the city, the rent for an ordinary four-room apartment was much higher than in any other section of the city. In crowded immigrant neighborhoods in different parts of the city, the median rental for the prevailing four-room apartment was between \$8 and \$8.50; in South Chicago near the steel mills it was between \$9 and \$9.50; and in the Jewish quarter, between \$10 and \$10.50 was charged. But in the great black belt of the South Side the sum exacted was between \$12 and \$12.50. That is, while half of the people in the Bohemian, Polish, and Lithuanian districts were paying less than \$8.50, for their four-room apartments; the steel-mill employes less than \$9.50, and the Jews in the Ghetto less than \$10.50, the Negro, in the midst of extreme dilapidation and crowded into the territory adjoining the segregated vice district, pays from \$12 to \$12.50. This is from \$2 to \$4 a month more than the immigrant is paying for an apartment of the same size in a better state of repair.

It seemed worth while to collect and to present the facts relating to housing conditions in the Negro districts of Chicago because one must hope that they would not be tolerated if the great mass of white people knew of their existence. Most people stand for fair play. The persecutions which the Negro endures because of race prejudice undoubtedly express the feeling of but a small minority of his fellow-citizens of the white race. Their continuance must be due to the fact that the great majority are completely ignorant of the heavy burden of injustice that the Negro carries. Ignorance is the bulwark of

<sup>1</sup>See *Housing Conditions in Chicago*, VI. *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. XVIII, p. 241.



prejudice, and race prejudice is singularly dependent upon an ignorance which is, to be sure, sometimes willful but which more often is unintentional and accidental. It has come about, however, that the small minority who cherish their prejudices have had the power to make life increasingly hard for the black man. Today they not only refuse to sit in the same part of the theater with him and to let him enter a hotel which they patronize, but they also refuse to allow him to live on the same street with them or in the same neighborhood. Even in the North where the city administration does not recognize a black "ghetto" or "pale," the real estate agents who register and commercialize what they suppose to be a universal race prejudice are able to enforce one in practice. It is out of this minority persecution that the special Negro housing problem has developed.

But while it is true that the active persecution of the Negro is the work of a small minority, its dangerous results are rendered possible only by

the acquiescence of the great majority who want fair play. This prejudice can be made effective only because of the possible use of the city administration, and the knowledge that legal action intended to safeguard the rights of the Negro is both precarious and expensive. The police department, however, and the courts of justice are, in theory at least, the agents of the majority. It comes about therefore that while the great body of people desire justice, they not only become parties to gross injustice but must be held responsible for conditions demoralizing to the Negro and dangerous to the community as a whole.

Those friends of the Negro who have tried to understand the conditions of life as he faces them are very familiar with these facts. But it is hoped that those who have been ignorant of the heavy costs paid in decent family life for the ancient prejudice that persists among us, will refuse to acquiesce in its continuance when the facts are brought home to them.

## A CIVIC PROBLEM AND A SOCIAL DUTY

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**W**E are beyond the age when a subject of unpleasant but vital concern can be lightly dismissed. To satisfy the increasing demand for social justice, we must make a beginning, at least, of an attempt to solve it. That beginning should be made by discussing the problem freely and frankly.

The consideration of one subject that has been ignored by the intelligent far too long especially interests us at this time. The consequences of this neglect are a scandal to our civilization.

We have in our social system an evil born of iniquity, fattened upon base prejudice, and kept alive by a wilful disregard of the spirit of our constitution and fair play. Every day it is pressing more heavily upon the integrity of our national life. Its eradication is a task more overwhelming in its immensity than the mythical cleaning of the Augean stables.

"We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness."

With these brave words written over the doorway of our republic, is it that we have failed to look up and read them with that "frequent recurrence to the fundamental principles of civil government," as so many state constitutions in-

struct us, or is it that we have, through familiarity, forgotten their significance?

Such a question must invariably arise in the mind of a European observer, when he sees our cities teeming with a race pathetically imitative of our social and political manners, but denied that vaunted liberty and pursuit of happiness we have blazoned above our doors. The searcher after truth is told that these people have black skins, and although they shade down to the almost white, mute witnesses of brutal sexual irregularity, the puzzled inquirer is informed that they are "niggers" with the tone with which one refers to outcast dogs. Our Declaration of Independence and our cherished Constitution preamble contain, of course, no color-test. With true universality these documents seem to extend their all-embracing arms to "all men."

Furthermore, the curious observer sees these black hands nursing our babies, cooking our food, bearing our burdens, tilling our soil, carrying our muskets, mingling in all the multiplex pursuits of our nation. But he also sees a respectable neighborhood thrown into a panic of lawless dread if a wealthy Negro either buys or rents a home to live in there. He sees the comforts of restaurants, hotels and sleeping cars barred to this class of citizens, although in every one, in all probability, people with black skins hold open the door to welcome the guests of



every race and color but their own, cook the food, serve the meals, make the beds, run the errands, and perform every kind of personal service.

The only reason for this strange state of affairs would seem to be that this black race was forcibly brought to this land of liberty, and held in slavery. It is the one element in our mongrel population that came here against its will. The condition of slavery, debasing alike the master and the servant, has left its trail of prejudice upon our social system. When the conscience of the nation was finally aroused and rid our country's vitals of this cancer, so far at least as the legal and political abolition of slavery could do it, there remained on this unfortunate race the social stigma. That persists from generation to generation.

It is to slavery, then, that we are to look for the source of the unreasoning race prejudice that reduces to the rankest absurdity our pretensions to the equality of man. As to the nation's state of mind before the war, let us look at the cool, unimpassioned pronouncements of the highest court of the nation, where at least the operations of logic and of law may be supposed to have chilled the fervor of the more intimate national feeling on the subject.

The Dred Scott decision (60 U. S., 475) marks one of the milestones of our national progress, as the revolt from the condition there announced and legally supported was swift and sure. This revolt was as colossal an example of recall of a judicial decision as the tablets of our history record. But even after this recall the festering sore remains unhealed and throbbing in our social life. By this decision, a slave from a slaveholding state, liberated and domiciled with his master in a free state, on return to the original state took on again the fetters of slavery. It is in the court's analysis of the institution of slavery that the interest and the import of the decision lie. Negroes of the African race, whether slave or free, were not to be regarded as members of the community within the meaning of the constitution. "They were not regarded as members of the community, were not numbered as people or citizens." Hence the special rights and immunities guaranteed did not apply to them. Therefore they could not sue in the courts of the United States. To make the African a citizen of a state could not make him a citizen of the United States.

At the time the constitution was adopted, which is the time at which to construe its import, says Chief Justice Taney, Negroes were considered "as a subordinate and inferior class of beings, who had been subjugated by the dominant race, and, whether emancipated or not, yet remained subject to their authority and had not rights or privileges but such as those who held the power and the government might choose to grant them."

The court then calls attention to the fact that

the English nation was far more extensively engaged in this commerce than any other nation of the world. The laws of the colonies show, as the court points out, "that a perpetual and impassible barrier was intended to be erected between the white race and the one which they had reduced to slavery and governed as subjects with absolute and despotic power, and which they then looked upon as so far below them in the scale of created beings that intermarriage between white persons and Negroes or mulattoes was regarded as unnatural and immoral and punished as crimes not only in the parties, but in the persons who joined them in marriage."

On p. 410 the chief justice then draws the conclusion:

"It is too clear for dispute that the enslaved African race were not intended to be included and formed no part of the people who framed and adopted this declaration; for if the language as understood in that day would embrace them, the conduct of the distinguished men who framed the Declaration of Independence would have been utterly and flagrantly inconsistent with the principles they asserted.

"The unhappy black race were separated from the white by indelible marks and laws long before established, and were never thought of or spoken of except as property, and when the claims of the owners or the profit of the trader were supposed to need protection.

"This state of public opinion had undergone no change when the constitution was adopted, as is equally evident from its provisions and language."

Chief Justice Taney then reviews many of the statutes of the original thirteen states, and says (p. 416):

"It is hardly consistent with the respect due to these states to suppose that they regarded at that time as fellow-citizens and members of the sovereignty a class of beings whom they had thus stigmatized; whom, as we are bound, out of respect to the state sovereignties, to assume they had deemed it just and necessary thus to stigmatize, and upon whom they had impressed such deep and enduring marks of inferiority and degradation; or that when they met in convention to form the constitution, they looked upon them as a portion of their constituents or designed to include them in the provisions so carefully inserted for the security and protection of the liberties and rights of their citizens."

It would be hard to find a more unintentionally scathing arraignment of our great national inconsistency than these words of our highest court in the Dred Scott case. Here was a nation bearing on its banners the motto of freedom and equality for all—yet at the same time it was buying and selling and working and criminalizing and beating something like four million men and women, degraded not by any act of their own, but by the arbitrary tyranny and brute



force of their masters. It would be futile to bewail, or regret or try to explain or justify the damnable existence of this blighting blot. *It was!* What we are vitally concerned with now is the hideous trail of injustice that even now scars our social life—as indelible and ineradicable as was slavery itself, apparently. *That* must be explained, *that* must be analyzed, *that* must be alleviated, unless we are to remain a pitiable laughing stock in our “lively experiment” in liberty.

Assuming that the fathers of liberty *did* ignore the Negro and exclude him both from the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, yet the awakened conscience of the nation, once slavery was abolished, took such steps as it politically could to bring the unfortunate race back into the realm of human beings and make them a part of our national life. The thirteenth amendment prohibited slavery wherever the United States had jurisdiction, and gave Congress the power to enforce this sweeping mandate by appropriate legislation. The fourteenth amendment, “the greatest of all the amendments,” declared his citizenship in nation and state, prohibited the states from making and enforcing any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of United States citizens, or depriving any person of life, liberty or property, without due process of law, or denying to any person within their jurisdiction, the equal protection of the laws. And in 1870 the fifteenth amendment, recognizing the persistence of the slavery engendered prejudice against the race, directed that the right to vote should not be denied or abridged “on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude.”

The language of Justice Miller in the slaughter house cases (16 Wall, p. 71) is pertinent to these amendments in our political system:

“No one can fail to be impressed with the one pervading purpose found in them all, lying as the foundation of each, and without which none of them would have been even suggested; we mean the freedom of the slave race, the security and firm establishment of that freedom and the protection of the newly-made freeman and citizen from the oppressions of those who had formerly exercised unlimited dominion over him.”

Possibly—probably, I should say—the call for complete liberty was too strong. The prick of the aroused national conscience revealed only too plainly the glaring inconsistency between the fundamental constitutional principles and the flagrant practices for so many years; and nothing would do but a complete bestowal of complete political liberty to the victims of the nation’s shame. But unfortunately there was a complete oversight of the lasting effect of the awful social stigma that toleration of the iniquitous institution of slavery had engendered. That is the pith and marrow of the present intolerable condition.

Acting under the constitutional power of the thirteenth amendment, Congress with the, no

doubt, sincere purpose of ameliorating the social stigma, passed the Civil Rights Act. But the people, speaking later through the courts, again refused to consider this law in any other light than that of an announcement of political, and not of social, relief. In other words, it was permitted to mean nothing further or deeper than the thirteenth amendment meant. In *Robinson and wife vs. Memphis & Charleston Railroad Co.* (109 U. S. Reports, 3, at page 22), Justice Bradley sums up the situation in this way:

“The long existence of African slavery in this country gave us very distinct notions of what it was, and what were its necessary incidents. Compulsory service of the slave for the benefit of the master, restraint of his movements except by the master’s will, disability to hold property, to make contracts, to have a standing in court, to be a witness against a white person, and such like burdens and incapacities, were the inseparable incidents of the institution. . . . Congress, as we have seen, by the Civil Rights Bill of 1866, passed in view of the thirteenth amendment, before the fourteenth was adopted, undertook to wipe out these burdens and disabilities, the necessary incidents of slavery, constituting its substance and visible form. Whether this legislation was fully authorized by the thirteenth amendment alone, without the support which it afterward received from the fourteenth amendment, after the adoption of which it was re-enacted with some additions, it is not necessary to inquire. It is referred to for the purpose of showing that at that time (in 1866) Congress did not assume, under the authority given by the thirteenth amendment, to adjust what may be called the social rights of men and races in the community; but only to declare and vindicate those fundamental rights which appertain to the essence of citizenship, and the enjoyment or deprivation of which constitutes the essential distinction between freedom and slavery.”

But Justice Harlan dissented from the majority of the court and points out the great discrepancy between the law as it had been interpreted and the evil that it was supposed to meet. He says:

“The difficulty has been to compel a recognition of the legal right of the black race to take the rank of citizens and to secure the enjoyment of privileges belonging, under the law, to them as a competent part of the people for whose welfare and happiness government is ordained. At every step, in this direction, the nation has been confronted with class tyranny, which a contemporary English historian says is of all tyrannies the most intolerable, ‘for it is ubiquitous in its operation, and weighs, perhaps, most heavily on those whose obscurity or distance would withdraw them from the notice of a single despot.’ Today it is the colored race which is denied, by corporations and individuals wielding public authority, rights fundamental to their freedom and citizenship. At some future time it may be that some other race will fall under the



ban of race discrimination. If the constitutional amendments be enforced according to the intent with which, as I conceive, they were adopted, there cannot be in this republic any class of human beings in practical subjection to another class, with power in the latter to dole out to the former just such privileges as they may choose to grant."

None of the acts of Congress passed pursuant to the authority of the constitutional amendments has been held to confer this equality of social rights or privileges on the prescribed race or enforce social intercourse with it. If one race be inferior to the other socially, the Constitution of the United States, we are told, cannot put them upon the same plane.

When we bear in mind, however, the history and purpose of the amendments, and the language of the constitution before the amendments, as announced by Justice Miller in the slaughter house cases quoted above, it causes an instinctive revolt to read the opinion of the court which announces the postulates just set forth. I refer to the case of *Plessy vs. Ferguson* (163 U. S., 537), where a statute of Louisiana, seeking to evade the inhibition of the amendments and to preserve the unutterable slavery-born war of the races, required railroads to provide equal but separate accommodations for white and colored people, either by separate cars or by a partition in the same car, and providing punishment for invasion of this department by either race, is held to be a perfectly sound, just and constitutional measure. When we read the cold and unimpassioned words of Justice Brown, and while we wonder, as we grasp their import, we begin to see why the Negro problem continues to be the greatest problem confronting our national conscience. On page 543 we read:

"A statute which implies merely a legal distinction between the white and colored races—a distinction which is founded in the color of the two races, and which must always exist so long as white men are distinguished from the other race by color—has no tendency to destroy the legal equality of the two races, or re-establish a state of involuntary servitude. . . .

"So far, then, as a conflict with the fourteenth amendment is concerned, the case reduces itself to the question whether the statute of Louisiana is a reasonable regulation, and with respect to this there must necessarily be a large discretion on the part of the legislature. In determining the question of reasonableness it is at liberty to act with reference to established usages, customs and traditions of the people, and with a view to the promotion of their comfort, and the preservation of the public peace and good order. Gauged by this standard, we cannot say that a law which authorizes or even requires the separation of the two races in public conveyances is unreasonable, or more obnoxious to the fourteenth amendment than the acts of Congress requiring separate schools for colored children in the District of Columbia, the constitutionality of which does not seem to have been

questioned, or the corresponding acts of state legislatures.

The court then concludes:

"If the civil and political rights of both races be equal, one cannot be inferior to the other civilly or politically. If one race be inferior to the other socially, the constitution of the United States cannot put them upon the same plane."

Again, as always, when the plain intent and meaning of the constitution is being forced against this downtrodden race, Justice Harlan, with the fullest possible conception of the real situation, utters vigorous protest and dissent:

"In respect of civil rights, common to all citizens, the constitution of the United States does not, I think, permit any public authority to know the race by those entitled to be protected in the enjoyment of such rights. Every true man has pride of race, and under appropriate circumstances when the rights of others, his equals before the law, are not to be affected, it is his privilege to express such pride and to take such action based upon it as to him seems proper. But I deny that any legislative body or judicial tribunal may have regard to the race of citizens when the civil rights of those citizens are involved. Indeed, such legislation as that here in question is inconsistent not only with that equality of rights which pertains to citizenship, national and state, but with the personal liberty enjoyed by every one within the United States."

The justice then reviews the purport and effect of the three amendments abolishing slavery and protecting all civil rights that pertain to freedom and citizenship, and proceeds:

"It was said in argument that the statute of Louisiana does not discriminate against either race, but prescribes a rule applicable alike to white and colored citizens. But this argument does not meet the difficulty. Every one knows that the statute in question had its origin in the purpose not so much to exclude white persons from railroad cars occupied by blacks as to exclude colored people from coaches occupied by or assigned to white persons. Railroad corporations of Louisiana did not make discrimination among whites in the matter of accommodation for travelers. The thing to accomplish was, under the guise of giving equal accommodation for whites and blacks, to compel the latter to keep to themselves while traveling in railroad passenger coaches. No one would be so wanting in candor as to assert the contrary. The fundamental objection, therefore, to the statute is that it interferes with the personal freedom of citizens. 'Personal liberty,' it has been well said, 'consists in the power of locomotion, of changing situation, of removing one's person to whatsoever places one's own inclination may direct, without imprisonment or restraint, unless by due course of law.' (1 Bl. Com. 134.) If a white man and a black man choose to occupy the same conveyance on a public highway, it is their right to do so, and no government, proceeding alone on



grounds of race, can prevent it without infringing the personal liberty of each. . . .

"If a state can prescribe, as a rule of civil conduct, that whites and blacks shall not travel as passengers in the same railroad coach, why may it not so regulate the use of the streets of its cities and towns as to compel white citizens to keep on one side of a street and black citizens to keep on the other? Why may it not, upon like grounds, punish whites and blacks who ride together in street cars or in open vehicles on a public road or street? Why may it not require sheriffs to assign whites to one side of a court room and blacks to the other? And why may it not also prohibit the commingling of the two races in the galleries of legislative halls or in public assemblages convened for the consideration of the political questions of the day? Further, if this statute of Louisiana is consistent with the personal liberty of citizens, why may not the state require the separation in railroad coaches of native and naturalized citizens of the United States, or of Protestants and Roman Catholics? . . .

"If laws of like character should be enacted in the several states of the Union, the effect would be in the highest degree mischievous. Slavery, as an institution tolerated by law, would, it is true, have disappeared from our country, but there would remain a power in the states, by sinister legislation, to interfere with the full enjoyment of the blessings of freedom; to regulate civil rights, common to all citizens, upon the basis of race; and to place in a condition of legal inferiority a large body of American citizens, now constituting a part of the political community called the people of the United States, for whom and by whom, through representatives, our government is administered. Such a system is inconsistent with the guarantee given by the constitution to each state of a republican form of government, and may be stricken down by Congressional action, or by the courts in the discharge of their solemn duty to maintain the supreme law of the land, anything in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding."

This scathing expression of dissent has been quoted because it reflects so logically the true situation, legally, politically and morally. Had this decision been the judgment of the court, we should be infinitely nearer a solution of our problem today. Now that the doors of the Supreme Court have closed on the only possible constitutional relief, there remains but the struggle of the individuals who are brave enough and high-minded enough and strong enough to repress and drive out by concerted and persistent action the poison of race prejudice that infects our social body, with the antitoxin of natural justice, based on the natural right of man to the pursuit of happiness.

Nor do the Civil Rights Acts of state legislatures constitute a vital benefit to the colored race. In the North, almost as much as in the South, because the influence of the social stigma is all-

pervading, their protection is seldom invoked. The Illinois act is a fair example. It was passed in 1885, and read:

"That all persons within the jurisdiction of said state shall be entitled to the full and equal enjoyment of the accommodations, advantages, facilities and privileges of inns, restaurants, eating-houses, barber shops, public conveyances on land and water, theaters and all other places of public accommodation and amusement, subject only to the conditions and limitations established by law and applicable alike to all citizens."

A penalty is provided in the alternative—either a forfeit of from \$25 to \$500 for each offense to be paid to the person aggrieved, or a fine as for a misdemeanor of \$500 or one year's imprisonment. But only one of these remedies may be applied.

Two cases only have ever gone to the Supreme Court under this statute. In *Baylies vs. Curry* (128 Ill., 287), the law was sustained and the right of a colored person to have access to a theater was recognized. And in *Cecil vs. Green* (161 Ill., 265), a drug store soda fountain was held *not* a place of public accommodation and amusement where Negroes must be accommodated. This latter case brought about an amendment in 1897, which included soda fountains, saloons, bath-rooms, skating rinks, concerts, cafes, bicycle rooms, railroads, omnibuses, stages, street-cars and boats.

On the question of discrimination by providing equal but separate facilities for school children, a majority of states, either by statute or by interpretation, both North and South, have permitted this subtle and child-impressing form of race prejudice to exist.

As to discrimination in public conveyances, there is a great variety of injustice and wrong to be found, largely due to the attitude of the United States courts. As a general theoretical rule, all discrimination against passengers on account of color, seems to be forbidden. But under that india-rubber wand of police power, a state may require carriers to provide separate, but equal, accommodations for both races. To the credit of the Illinois Supreme court again, it has been held that a woman could not be excluded from a ladies' car on account of her color. (*C. & N. W. Ry. vs. Williams*, 55 Ill., 185). This separation of races in the paths of public travel, remains one of the most obnoxious forms of discrimination. So far as interstate transportation is concerned, if the accommodation is not equal, the Interstate Commerce Act may be invoked. Otherwise the doctrine of separation is distinctly recognized, and the inequitable and iniquitous doctrine of separate accommodation has been frequently sustained with respect to theaters, hotels and schools, also. Its existence means the perpetuation of the slavery stigma, *ad infinitum*.

In regard to punishment for crime, while it has been held that a statute that attempted, as many did, to punish a black man more severely than a white man for the commission of



the same offense, was invalid because of the discrimination involved, yet statutes providing a different punishment for adultery or fornication between persons of different races than was prescribed when the offenders were of the same race, are not in violation of the constitution, because the discrimination is against the offense and not against the persons of any particular race. (*Pace vs. Alabama*, 106 U. S., 583.)

There is probably no point of contact between the races where greater injustice and wrong is brought to bear upon the Negro than at the polls in the southern states. In the face of the fifteenth amendment and the punishments prescribed in the Federal Civil Rights Act, it is amazing that evasions by individuals, as well on their own initiative as under state laws, artfully contrived to disenfranchise, have reached the point they have in many of the southern states. The United States Supreme Court has with reference to this amendment taken a strong position and interpreted the provision to mean that while it does not in terms confer upon the colored man the right to vote, it removed what had formerly been the obstacles in his path and hence was the equivalent of a provision declaratory of his right of suffrage. (*Ex parte Yarbrough*, 110 U. S., 651.)

It is easy to understand how, in many of the southern states, where the percentage of black population is large, extreme concern, bordering on panic has actuated the legislative course.

When you take into consideration the fact that it has been universally held that the right of suffrage is not a natural right, but a privilege which may be regulated and modified or withdrawn by the people by whom it was conferred,—that that power resides in the states, except as controlled by the fifteenth amendment,—it is not so startling, in view of the preponderance of the black race in many parts of the South, that the "circle of expedients" to obstruct the right of the Negro to vote has been thoroughly "swept." Nor is it at all to be wondered at, though infinitely to be regretted, and to be changed as soon as circumstances will permit, that the white heat of race prejudice sanctions such legal evasions whenever possible.

Another intricate device to restrict Negro suffrage is found in the constitution of Louisiana, and some other southern states, known as the "grandfather clause." Restrictions requiring an elector either to be able to read and write, or else own property to the extent of \$300, are followed, and apparently extended, by a provision that no male person who was on January 1, 1867, or prior thereto, entitled to vote, and no son or grandson of any such person, shall be denied the right to register and vote by reason of not possessing the educational or property qualifications prescribed by the constitution, provided he shall have resided in the state for five years next

preceding his application for registration, and that he shall have been registered, by separate registry, prior to September 1, 1898, and no person shall be entitled to register under this section *after* that date. If one recalls the small number of citizens able to vote January 1, 1867, and how few of these in turn possessed intelligence enough to avail themselves of the limited period for registration provided for them, he can realize what a masterpiece of intricacy and contradiction this constitutional attempt to avoid the charge of Negro discrimination really is.

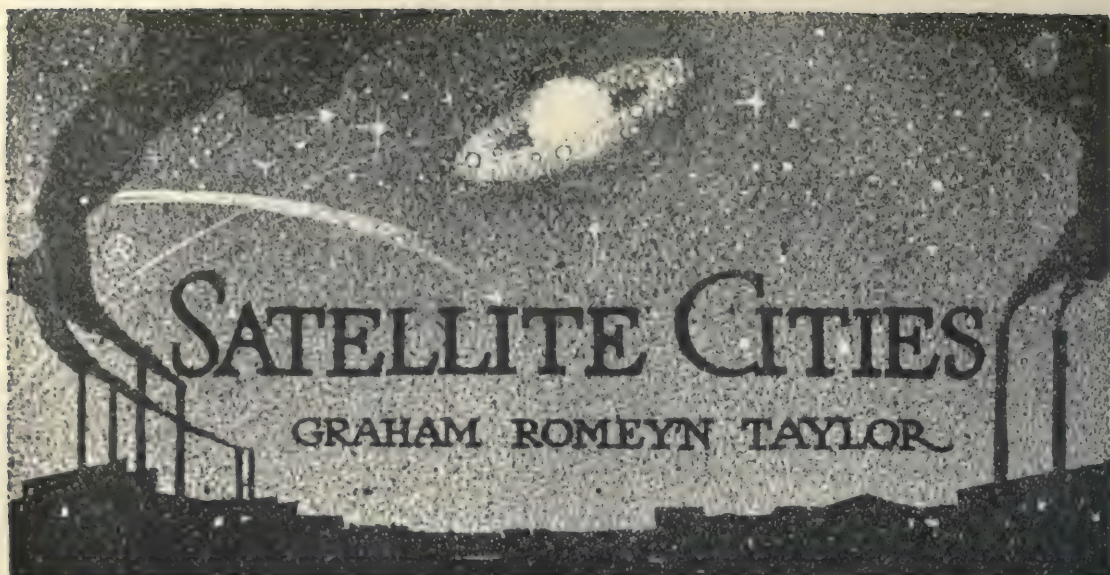
It is this race madness that leads to the disgrace of lynching that continues to blacken the history of our time. It is like the perversion of Salem witchcraft—only a hundred times more brutal, because so widely spread. Sexual violence is not confined to the black race.

The Negro race as a whole, is capable of as fine and useful a place in our citizenship as that enjoyed by any other alien element. His sunny nature, his extraordinary imitative powers, that are as capable of a good direction as of a bad, his adaptability, his courage, his physical strength, are all characteristics that must be welded into our civilization. How, then, are we to go about the eradication of the prejudice? It is a matter primarily of individual effort, of the exercise of moral force. The logic of the situation must be brought home to each and all. We must give the Negro, whether we like him or not, a square deal. We must bring to bear the light of reason into the darkness of the self-stultification that engulfs our attitude.

I hold no brief for the Negro as an unworthy individual. Many of the race are diseased, degraded, lazy, ignorant, brutish; many are intelligent, able, refined and self-respecting people, who have adopted our ways and customs with far greater perfection and facility than many other races who are received by us with open arms. These individual differences are of course true of all races,—even our own.

For two hundred and fifty years the colored race has been systematically denied its rights as men and citizens. If we reform our social attitude towards them,—which is the only way on earth,—and eliminate the curse of race-prejudice, we can look to the Negro to take care of himself. Let us, then, as reasonable beings take this first step, by influence, example, common sense and ceaseless agitation, to rid our country of this social and political disgrace. The cause possesses a moral basis of transcendent import, and is bound on that account to triumph in the end. The integrity of our institutions, the welfare of our political state, the trampled rights of a wronged people, cry out for justice.





#### IV

### A ST. LOUIS "EAST SIDE" SUBURB<sup>1</sup>

HOW INDUSTRY IS JUMPING ACROSS THE MISSISSIPPI WHILE  
CIVIC AND SOCIAL PROGRESS FOLLOWS SLOWLY

HE "East Side" has come to be almost synonymous with social and civic problems. St. Louis applies the term to the string of towns sprawled along the opposite bank of the great river, and it is appropriate in its civic as well as its geographical connection. But while New York's East Side has problems of encrusted congestion, St. Louis' East Side consists of comparatively new satellites, their growth so much in process that its shaping is both possible and worth while.

These Illinois towns are linked to the larger city by four big coupling pins—the bridges across the broad, brown Mississippi. Directly facing St. Louis, and as close to the river bank as a network of railway terminals will permit, is a scattering mass of business buildings, dwellings, and tall chimneyed industrial plants. This is East St. Louis, and it is linked to the city proper by two bridges. On its northern edge between a sluggish, dirty-looking stream and some railroad tracks is an extensive stockyards. Beyond lies a low swampy stretch, criss-crossed with railways and dotted with occasional factories and houses. Still farther north, where the third bridge leads over from St. Louis, the settled area peters out into a cluster of houses and hovels. This is Venice, unkempt, half amphibious. The trolley cars from across the bridge spend little time on their way through Venice to another and larger

community set to the northeast a mile or two back from the river bank. Like a huge city wall, the big manufacturing plants are ranged along its western edge, while the stacks of a steel mill serve as sentinels to the east. The first section that the cars enter is made up of miscellaneous small houses with occasional ugly larger buildings. This is Madison. You go on into a better set-up section, Granite City, which is slow-creeping out into the prairie with skirmish lines of box-like dwellings. To one side is a forlorn neighborhood beyond the western bulwark of industries and railroads. This is "Hungary Hollow."

East St. Louis, Madison, and Granite City are not an overflow of St. Louis industry—for few factories have actually shifted their location from one side of the river to the other. But the modern tendency to utilize industrially the outskirts of large centers of population has here been based not alone on the factors which commonly operate. Special economic advantages, some of them arbitrary and artificial, are shared by all three Illinois towns over St. Louis. St. Louis has been reluctant to admit that such advantages existed. Until recently her principal commercial body would rather have thrown a new industry to Kansas City, nearly three hundred miles away, but in the same state, than to any one of the Illinois towns just across the river.

But the last couple of years has seen the beginnings of a new spirit; the old jealousies are

<sup>1</sup>Previous articles in the *Satellite Cities* series were: I. The Outer Rings of Industry (Introductory), October 5; II. Pullman, November 2; III. Norwood and Oakley, December 7.



being laid aside, and the real unity of the metropolitan industrial district is becoming recognized on both sides of the river. In seeking to bring in new industries, the Business Men's League of St. Louis, which is increasingly representative of the Illinois as well as the Missouri side, now seeks to explain fairly the relative advantages of locating in St. Louis proper, on its western outskirts, or in the towns of the East Side. Many plants find that St. Louis sites, with better sewerage and the cheap power which will be furnished from the dam across the Mississippi at Keokuk, are preferable to those with the advantages of the East Side.

Some of the advantages of the East Side over St. Louis are those which the periphery of any large center of population usually possesses:

1. **CHEAP LAND.** Large level tracts are available in East St. Louis within twenty-five minutes from the St. Louis business district. Al-

though the fare is ten cents it is expected to be reduced to five cents soon. The nearest similar tracts on the western outskirts of St. Louis are at least an hour away by street-car. East Side sites cost usually less than half as much as those in St. Louis.

2. **RAILROAD FACILITIES.** East St. Louis is a notable railway center.
3. **PROXIMITY TO LABOR SUPPLY.** St. Louis workingmen's districts are within street-car distance of East Side plants.

But the East Side's peculiar advantages over St. Louis are of a sort not usually possessed by the outskirts of big cities.

1. **CHEAP FUEL.** This, as important as cheap land, is due to an "arbitrary" whereby the Terminal Railroad Association charges on a ton of coal from the great Illinois bituminous mines from 10 to 100 miles away a uniform rate of fifty-two cents to St. Louis, and only



ST. LOUIS INDUSTRIAL DISTRICT

Industrial sections in black. Bridges: A. The famous Eads Bridge; B. Merchants; C. McKinley; D. Incompleted Free Bridge.



thirty-two cents to any point on the East Side.

2. **CHEAP WATER.** Large quantities for manufacturing purposes cost less than half as much as in St. Louis.
3. **DIFFERENCES IN LAWS.** The absence of smoke regulation such as that in St. Louis is said to be an advantage for the heavy coal-consuming industries of the East Side. But East Side manufacturers point to the fact that they are seeking fuel economy through the elimination of smoke. Labor conditions do not seem to be affected much by the differences in labor legislation. Missouri has a nine-hour day and fifty-four hour week for working women, while the Illinois law pro-

the railways composing it make excessive profits, public necessity demands relief for the whole city. The shippers were the first to organize a remedial effort. Under the leadership of David R. Francis they built the Merchants' Bridge in 1889. But in a few years this passed to the control of the Terminal Association.

The second development came a few years ago. The McKinley traction lines, with 580 miles of ramifications in Illinois, built a bridge. But it connects with no belt line facilities for distribution in St. Louis, and so has had little effect. Only a few months ago, the McKinley interests filed a forty-two cent rate and asked the St. Louis Municipal Assembly to give it a franchise to connect with the belt lines of the Terminal Asso-



ST. LOUIS' INCOMPLETED FREE BRIDGE

Although built to relieve the city from high freight rates, citizens have thus far refused to vote money for its completion, fearing the Illinois approach will be controlled by the railroads.

vides ten hours a day and sixty hours a week as a maximum. Illinois has a workman's compensation law, while Missouri hopes to get one at the 1913 session of the legislature.

#### *The Mississippi Barrier*

The "arbitrary" on coal is part and parcel of the one great civic issue which for years has stirred St. Louis into bitter struggle. The Terminal Railroad Association, comprising most of the railroads which enter the city, controls all the railway and ferry facilities crossing the river, and the belt lines serving both sides. It contends that costly bridges warrant the high freight toll across the river, and that a flat rate of twenty cents a ton is better for the city as a whole than a mileage rate to points of delivery in St. Louis. Many St. Louis citizens, however, feel that aside from whether the Terminal Association itself or

ciation. But public sentiment was suspicious, and the assembly refused to give the franchise unless an agreement should be made to abolish the "arbitrary" entirely and bring the rate down to thirty-two cents or a mileage basis.

St. Louis' hope has been staked on the third enterprise, the Free Bridge, built by the municipality with \$3,500,000 obtained through the issuance of bonds in 1906. But an additional bond issue of \$2,750,000 to provide the approaches to the bridge has been defeated three times in the last year. The objections to the proposed approach were partly due to the fear that it is not sufficiently beyond the reach of Terminal Association control. Meanwhile, a perfectly good bridge is about as useless a public convenience as could be imagined since only one end is connected with the land. For years, therefore, despite



St. Louis' efforts to secure the same rate, the East Side has enjoyed a purely artificial advantage in the cost of coal.

Cheap land and cheap coal have thus been the greatest factors in attracting industries to which one or both are important. In the removal of the St. Louis stockyards to East St. Louis, for instance, cheap land was of course the main consideration. So it was in the development of the railway yards and terminals on the Illinois side. But in the heavy steel manufacturing which plays so important a part in the development of the whole East Side, cheap land in large tracts and a large supply of cheap coal are prime factors. The

In 1912 East St. Louis was estimated to have about 70,000 people, and Granite City—the 1910 census of which omitted two wards—about 12,000. The growth of this group of towns from 1900 to 1910 was no less than 108 per cent. St. Louis in the same decade increased only from 575,238 to 687,029, a growth of but 19 per cent. For a comparison of East Side growth with that of the western outskirts of St. Louis the data are not available.

Venice shows little growth. Its low situation exposes it particularly to the annual high water in the Mississippi. This makes it undesirable for manufacturing sites, but railroad yards are



AT HOME ON LAND OR WATER

Venice, Ill., frequently flooded by the Mississippi has many amphibious dwellings. The major part of the town now has levee protection.

East Side has rapidly become, therefore, the section of the St. Louis industrial district into which heavy industrial processes, usually the dirtiest and dingiest, have been shunted.

In 1890 East St. Louis had but 15,169 population while Granite City and Madison did not show at all in the census returns. The growth from 1900 to 1910 shows the later developments of the East Side:

	1900	1910
East St. Louis . . . .	29,655	58,547
Granite City . . . . .	3,122	9,903
Madison . . . . .	1,979	5,046
Venice . . . . .	2,450	3,718

expected to occupy parts of its territory. Formerly a little settlement at a ferry station, it is now a forlorn collection of ramshackle houses clustered around the approach to the McKinley Bridge. Its amphibious dwellings—shanties on scows, at home floating on the flood or grounded wherever the subsiding waters leave them—give a picturesque touch to its squalor. While its recurring inundations led it to claim its name, one could scarcely imagine a more incongruous contrast with the Queen of the Adriatic. The flood menace which has been so great a handicap to the whole East Side is now warded off through the recent con-





GRANITE CITY STEEL WORKS.

A Niedringhaus plant which is introducing eight-hour shifts and deals with the steel workers' unions.

struction of a great levee at a cost of \$6,500,000 in which all the East Side communities shared.

### *Granite City*

To the social observer interested in the civic and community aspects of suburban industrial developments, these East Side towns present an interesting and somewhat different situation from that which is usually to be found on the outskirts of a big city. They are separated from the central metropolis of their industrial district by a great river and by a state line; they have, as has been pointed out, more than the ordinary economic advantages over it; they share its general destiny but comparatively little of its civic life.

The situation can be seen more distinctly by focusing attention on a typical community. Granite City is not only a community by itself and typical in that all the economic factors mentioned above affect it, but it has added significance in the fact that its establishment and development were definitely planned at the outset by one large industrial interest. The share of immigrants in the life of the place may also be measured the more easily since "Hungary Hollow," where they are massed, is an isolated part of the town. Furthermore, distinctive labor conditions, involving union organization and reduced hours of work, add especial interest to it as a community.

The newcomer wonders half-consciously how the name Granite City became attached to a place located on the soft soil of a great river valley. The manufacture of enameled "granite" kitchenware christened the place. It was in 1893 that F. G. and W. F. Niedringhaus selected the spot and bought 4,000 acres to provide a town for their granite ware factory, which had outgrown

its site in St. Louis. This is the only plant in Granite City which may be said to have moved over from St. Louis. The other industries which now help to employ nearly 11,000 workers in Granite City started there, largely through the initiative of the Niedringhauses. They were especially interested in starting the large plants of the American Steel Foundries and the Commonwealth Steel Company.

### *Planning the Town*

At the outset the company platted the town, improved the streets, provided sewers and water supply, planted 14,000 trees, and built one hundred houses, including fifty double ones of brick. In 1896 the place was incorporated as a city. In 1912, with over 12,000 inhabitants, it boasted the following principal plants:

National Enameling & Stamping Co. (steel works), employing .....	2,400
National Enameling & Stamping Co. (stamping works), employing .....	1,500
American Steel Foundries, employing.....	2,400
Commonwealth Steel Co., employing.....	2,100
National Lead Co., employing.....	1,400
Corn Products Refining Co., employing.....	1,000

The yearly payroll is estimated at \$6,500,000. Of the nearly 11,000 workers, it is estimated that 65 per cent live in Granite City and 35 per cent in St. Louis.

The selection of the town site on land as high as could be gotten in the river lowlands was the most important factor in its planning. This was clearly shown in 1903, when floods covered the whole area for miles around, but left Granite City and the major part of East St. Louis untouched. The streets were laid out in the customary gridiron arrangement, except that one diagonal thoroughfare was provided from the



stamping and enameling plant through the business center to a residential district in the opposite corner. This avenue bears the name of the town's founder. His sons wanted the town itself to be known as "Niedringhaus," but he objected. It may be that the notoriety in which the town of Pullman found itself that very summer had something to do with his stand, for he

way one man expressed his opinion. But the Niedringhaus interests pursue a policy of disposing of their real estate as rapidly as possible, and state that their realty company has never paid a dividend.

### *Land Profits*

From the figures given by one of the principal real estate dealers it would appear that land profits have not been small. The original value before the town was built was about \$500 an acre, though some of it was as low as \$150 an acre. An acre makes about five lots fifty feet wide. Lots in the best residence sections sell today at an average of \$800, many of them being worth as much as \$1,200, while most of those in the poorer sections are valued at \$300 and up. Some of the twenty-five feet lots and a few of the poorest larger ones sell for as low

as \$150. It will be seen that the advance in values in the nineteen years since the town was established has been great. And indeed this same real estate dealer estimated that the last four years alone have



HOSPITAL

Granite City prides itself on Churches, Schools and Hospitals, but its City Hall is small and dingy.



HIGH SCHOOL

watched keenly the developments in Chicago's paternalistic satellite. Indeed, the Pullman strike and the bearing which company house rentals had upon it are said to have materially modified the elder Niedringhaus' scheme for Granite City.

Lots were given a width of fifty feet in the original plat. In some of the more recent subdivisions real estate companies have cut the width in two for the purpose, they say, of bringing the cost of homes within the means of less skilled workmen. While the real estate company formed by the Niedringhauses has continued to be active, considerable tracts of land were sold to other companies for development. The companies claim that lots are sold at only a reasonable profit, but there is a somewhat prevalent impression among the people that all the companies have made a "good thing" out of the land values which the influx of population has created. "Why, they could operate the plants at a loss and still make money because of the land," is the



CITY HALL, POLICE AND FIRE STATION

seen an advance of 100 per cent. But a home owner expressed the opinion that average lot prices in the central part of the town are even higher than the figures cited.

A factor in boosting land values has, of course, been the construction of the levee, for land hitherto worthless because submerged nearly every spring has now been freed from this



handicap. The lowest land just back of the levee, for example, once worth \$40 an acre is now worth \$1,000, according to the real estate dealer already quoted. The assessments for the levee were spread over a large area so that on the average the apportionment amounted to only about \$2.40 per \$1,000 on the previously assessed valuation. The original purchase of land for the town included large holdings near the river so that the increase in valuation of the protected portion may be surmised. Two thousand acres along the river bank and not protected by the levee are held by the Niedringhaus interests. They were originally secured to protect Granite City from the development of inferior towns between it and the river. Their future value is dependent on East Side development sufficient to

City to move there and that the present ease and cheapness of living in St. Louis and working in Granite City would tend to discourage removal to Granite City. But the actual movement of population appears to be the other way. A real estate dealer sold 350 lots in six weeks in a new subdivision shortly after the McKinley Bridge went into operation and 75 per cent of them were to St. Louis residents who had been working in Granite City. He adduces the further evidence that there is not a vacant store or house in the town now though there were always some before.

#### *Security in Land Ownership*

The increased security in land ownership due to the fact that Granite City dwellers can now



GRANITE CITY

The older and central part of the town, containing the original company houses, compares favorably with other industrial communities. The foreign section, "Hungary Hollow" is forlorn and isolated.

warrant river bank improvement and an additional levee.

A third factor in determining land values is the McKinley Bridge, across which the inter-urban lines have now been running for two years. Prior to this time, except for the special morning and evening trains which, at the urgency of the manufacturers, the Terminal Association ran with a five cent fare, the journey from the heart of St. Louis was by way of East St. Louis and involved twenty cents carfare to say nothing of an hour's experience resembling that to be had for a nickel on a "scenic railway." By way of the McKinley Bridge a five-cent fare takes one from Granite City to the heart of the St. Louis business district in about thirty-five minutes, and cars run ten minutes apart. One would think that the former inadequate transportation would have caused St. Louis workmen employed at Granite

easily reach employment in St. Louis if the home industries have slack periods is no doubt one of the factors in the increased sale of Granite City land. This same fact, of course, makes it easy for sons and daughters of a man employed in a Granite City plant to take up office or store employment in St. Louis. It also means that St. Louis' resources for recreation, education and social life, as well as her stores, are within reach. Motor buses from the larger department stores meet every McKinley car in St. Louis. Since the opening of the McKinley Bridge it has been estimated that 70 per cent of the money earned in Granite City is spent in St. Louis. Yet the local stores are said to be in even a more prosperous condition than formerly because of the increase in the number of households, as workmen move their families over from St. Louis.

In the last eight years nearly all the company



houses have been sold to working people. They are double dwellings, not unattractive, and are built upon alternate lots, the original idea being that the occupants of each house might have a garden. As the lots in between become occupied by houses of varying appearance the monotony of a row of like houses will be broken. The sales were made on a basis of the original cost plus 6 per cent a year. Unlike the contract of sale of the Gary Land Company, there is no provision for buying houses back in case the occupant leaves Granite City. But the company has never foreclosed a mortgage. In three instances houses have been taken back and the purchase price returned. The sales of lots and houses by the real estate companies have been in the ordinary way on time payments. More than 2,500 houses have been built, and through twelve building and loan associations over \$400,000 has been loaned, most of the money coming from small country towns in the vicinity.

#### *Churches, Schools, Recreation*

From the days in which the town's founders took pride in their encouragement of churches and schools Granite City has boasted of its provisions for these institutions. At the beginning a building site was given to each church. In church buildings more than \$150,000 have been invested, and citizens are accustomed to point out how much better morally Granite City is than Madison, its adjoining neighbor. Persistent efforts drove gambling from Granite City, and recently from Madison, and this evil is said now to come no nearer than Venice. Four public schools afford the educational facilities for two thousand school children and the superintendent has guided the growth of the system since the time when he himself was the only teacher and had thirty-two pupils on the first day of school. In such ways as the provision of medical inspection the schools seem to be up to date. There is little social center work, however, though public lecture courses and night classes in the common branches are conducted.

A hospital erected and first conducted by the Lutheran Hospital Association with the financial help of the Niedringhauses is now conducted under Catholic auspices and seems to be rendering efficient service. A group of ladies from the different churches is organized to meet some of the charitable and civic needs of the place.

Restriction of saloons was prominent in the minds of the elder Niedringhauses when the town was established, and their regulations still hold that the consent of the owners representing two-thirds of the lot owners on a block must be secured before a saloon may be established in the block. This has operated to keep the number of saloons down to about thirty-two. There has been practically no increase in the last five years.

One small park was provided in the town's original plan, a little circle of formal flower beds at the intersection of streets in the center of the town. But neglect and abuse of this "beauty spot" caused it to be given up. No effort has been made even to plan ahead for a park system, as East St. Louis has done by calling in George E. Kessler as an expert. Outside of a few vacant places utilized as baseball fields, the recreation of Granite City is left to several nickel and ten cent theaters and a public dance hall or two. One club building is fairly well equipped to serve its members in a recreational way. Only one industrial plant, that of the Commonwealth Steel Company, has a club house for its employes. This has pool tables, a little gymnastic apparatus, a hall, shower baths, library and lunch room. The same company also conducts a technical night school for its employes.

#### *Hours of Labor*

Perhaps the most striking contrast in the whole round of Granite City's community life is that here is a town with the most meager provision for recreation, with only the beginnings of a public library and no Y. M. C. A.—a town singularly barren of resources for the utilization of leisure—yet in this very place are to be found advanced labor experiments in the direction of giving greater leisure to workingmen. For, as THE SURVEY has pointed out some of the steel plants in Granite City have demonstrated, to the satisfaction of their officials, the economic advantages of three eight-hour shifts as contrasted with two twelve-hour shifts in continuous processes. The Commonwealth Steel Company put their furnace and boiler crews on the three-shift plan. According to the paper of General Supt. R. A. Bull, read at the last convention of the American Foundrymen's Association, the plant has actually saved money, for the waste and inefficiency due to negligence and fatigue are reduced enough to outweigh the 20 per cent addition to the pay roll of the men affected. The same testimony is enthusiastically given by Vice-President Geo. W. Niedringhaus of the Granite City Steel Company, where they have a larger number of men working eight-hour turns than in any other Granite City plant. This applies where operations are not necessarily continuous for metallurgical reasons, but has not been applied curiously enough to the open-hearth platform where operations are continuous through necessity. The management holds that such a schedule there would distribute work unevenly between the shifts.

This possibility apparently has not proved an insurmountable difficulty at the Commonwealth Steel Company's plant which is the only one of three having such departments in Granite City

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, November 16, 1912, p. 198.





CORN PRODUCTS REFINING COMPANY PLANT

The work—mainly the manufacture of Karo Corn Syrup—employs many foreigners, few if any being organized. The railroad tracks serve the traffic of several trunk lines and separate three plants from the main part of Granite City. Many people must traverse this dangerous grade crossing daily; at only one spot is there a watchman.

not operating the twelve-four turn. The change was accompanied by an average advance of 22 per cent in hourly rate of wages, but the four-hour reduction meant that the daily wage decreased about 20 per cent. In view of this fact, the officials were very doubtful as to whether the eight-hour shift would meet with the approval of the men, but when the question was submitted to them, a *unanimous affirmative* vote was the result. Not only this, but the open hearth furnace men at the Granite City Works, and the American Steel Company's plant requested the managements to inaugurate a similar shift. This request was not acceded to.

Success, therefore, at the open hearth platform of the Commonwealth Company is bound to have influence not only in Granite City but throughout the country where its eight-hour shift is equally at variance with general furnace practice.

"We want the leisure to be with our families and do odd jobs around the house," some of the open-hearth men said to Mr. Bull. And none of them has sought to use the free time in money-making side jobs, as some of the officials of steel producing plants have contended would be the case with such a change. That there has been little bad use of the leisure the officials of the Granite City companies all agree. "Steel work is so strenuous," says Mr. Niedringhaus, "that any man who took to dissipation would be

unable to keep up his efficiency even through the eight-hour shift. The fact that we do not have to discharge any of them shows in itself that the time is not badly spent." The success of the eight-hour shift in a city so poorly equipped for the use of leisure would seem to promise much if the schedule were inaugurated in communities where recreation has developed more fully.

#### *Unions and Trade Agreements*

In this connection peculiar interest attaches to the fact that Granite City Steel Works presents one of the most strongly unionized steel producing plants in the country. And officials almost without exception agree that this was an important factor in leading to the introduction of the shorter working shift. Ever since the days of the elder Niedringhauses, who firmly believed that through the union they were apt to get the best men, yearly trade agreements have been effected between the Granite City Steel Works and the unions, including the Amalgamated Association of Sheet and Tin Plate Workers—the organization with which the United States Steel Corporation has had its bitterest fight. Organization has recently extended to the girls employed at the Enameling and Stamping Company plant, about 100 out of the 250 being now union members. This came about, according to some of those interested in the girls' organization, at the instance of the





#### COMMONWEALTH STEEL COMPANY

The general superintendent has shown that economies in production follow the use of three eight-hour shifts instead of two of twelve hours.

"burners" who had already secured the eight hour day. To strengthen their own position the "burners" brought about the organization of the girls. The company has made no objection, although the Women's Trade Union League declares that three years ago when it sought to organize the girls three of the leaders were discharged and a forelady warned the girls not to attend the meeting. Union organization is strongest in the Niedringhaus plants; the Commonwealth and American Steel Foundries plants are only partly unionized, while the Corn Products Refining Company plant has practically no unionized employees. Of all Granite City workers perhaps one-third are organized.

#### *City Politics*

With a member of the Amalgamated Association—a former worker in one of the local steel plants—as mayor of the city, elected on the Socialist ticket, it would appear that labor conditions have gotten into politics. Yet it is significant to find relations of personal cordiality between a mayor of this type and the head of the steel mill. The mayor, while of course critical of employers as a class, was glad to give the latter credit for being a fair and liberal employer. And similarly, the steel executive gave friendly recognition to the good personal qualities of the mayor, although doubting his ability to see all sides of community problems.

Aside from the strength which the Socialist Party is gaining in all industrial centers, the mayor has undoubtedly had some support from those who think that the industrial control has dominated too much the civic affairs of the town. They point to the land, to the gas company and one of the principal banks, in all of which the Niedringhaus interests are supreme. And they show how political control has also been in their hands through the election of their men as mayor and aldermen. Indeed, the present Socialist mayor, although assuming power with six Socialists among ten aldermen is now, through a recent election, confronted by a board of ten aldermen made up of three Niedringhaus employees, a painting contractor, a landlord, a saloon keeper, a railway foreman, one workingman from a foundry and only two Socialists. That some company officials seek to dominate the politics of the place seems clear. One of the superintendents has for years been a factor in the local affairs of one national party and "deeply interested," to quote his own words, in one of the municipal parties; for it is a noteworthy fact that national party names have played no part in local politics. "I want to say right now," he declared, "that people desire no more Socialist mayors in Granite City." To beat the present mayor for re-election, this plant superintendent is helping to smooth out the factional differences and unite the two older municipal parties in opposition to the Socialists. For, as in the case of Milwaukee, the election of



the Socialists came about in a three-cornered contest.

The mayor asserts that some of the business men are afraid to voice their objections to the control of the city by the Niedringhauses, but on the other hand nearly every business man will tell you what an "unfortunate thing it is for Granite City to be known to outside capital as a Socialist city," although one hears no word against the mayor as a man. The latter points out further that some of the most discerning of his supporters are members of the Amalgamated who have worked in other places and have observed what steel companies are able to do if they control the machinery of local government.

as one community it includes one of the largest settlements of Bulgarians and Macedonians to be found in this country.

There is no point in which on their civic side American industrial communities fail more conspicuously than in their handling of the lowest paid immigrant labor. The very unwillingness of such towns to have their immigrant conditions described or considered as typical is evidence of this. Yet the fact that such labor is more essential in these towns than elsewhere warrants especial attention to the conditions under which immigrants live and work. "It is true," said a factory official, "that the district is an eye sore to Granite City, yet 'Hungary Hollow' is necessary



BULGARIANS AND MACEDONIANS IN "HUNGARY HOLLOW"

It should be stated however that at no time has there been any serious antagonism between company and town over issues of civic importance.

#### *"Hungary Hollow"*

Perhaps the most important social problem in Granite City is that presented by the picturesque and isolated mass of immigrants in "Hungary Hollow." No group in the community is more neglected, unless it be the Negroes, of whom about 1,000 are employed in the plants. All the latter live, however, in nearby squalid towns since there is an unwritten law in Granite City that no one shall sell or rent real estate to Negroes. Counting Granite City and Madison

to the success of the large plants and the conditions are no different than with foreign communities of a like class which may be found in other cities. The large plants require common labor and Americans will not accept these positions." And then, as if to defend his city's prestige, he said, "Granite City is practically isolated from its foreigners and Americans do not mingle with them either socially or in a business way." But he pointed out some of the difficulties which surround efforts at betterment, by adding, "the majority are here today and gone tomorrow, adopt the least expensive mode of living and do not come to the United



States with the intention of becoming American citizens."

To a description of the work and life of the Granite City Bulgarians and Macedonians the Federal Immigration Commission devoted much space in its report, and this document has been drawn upon for much of the information here set forth. It is estimated that in 1907 the number of Bulgarians reached 8,000, though some of the best informed citizens think this figure too large. But the general industrial depression of that year sent many back to the fatherland and reduced the number to only a few hundred. The group has since increased, although temporarily

labor, and some of them on piece work in other departments earn as much as thirty cents or more. At the time of the Immigration Commission study, practically all earned less than \$600 a year; nearly 92 per cent less than \$400; and about 25 per cent less than \$200; these figures would now probably be from ten to fifteen per cent higher with the present higher rate of wages. But in addition account must be taken of other earnings during the periods in the summer when the steel plants are sometimes not in operation. As has been said, many of the common laborers go out on railway construction jobs. Some of them, however, find work in other industries in Granite City, particularly the Corn Products Refining Company which operated even above the normal output during the period of depression—affording a significant example of what diversity of industries means in a community.

#### *How the Bulgarians Live*

The standard of living however is even more interesting. Among the Magyars, more of whom have their women with them, the keeping of lodgers is well nigh a universal custom. Out of forty-four families studied two-thirds kept lodgers. Of wives whose husbands earned less



FAMILY DWELLINGS  
IN "HUNGARY HOLLOW"

DANCE PAVILION  
(Center picture)

Conducted by a  
Macedonian Mer-  
cantile Company.  
One Sunday after-  
noon meeting in it  
raised \$4,600 for the  
Bulgarian Red Cross.



diminishing in the summers owing to the exodus for railway construction work. In the fall of 1912 as many as 600 went back to fight in the Balkan war. Of the 1,000 who were left, a large proportion lived in "Hungary Hollow." A further cause for their diminishing numbers is that plant superintendents have declared the Macedonians unsatisfactory workmen. One man said he would rather have two Negroes than three Macedonians.

More than 90 per cent are men—some single, but many with families in the old country. More than 90 per cent have been in this country less than five years. About 61 per cent are employed in the steel plants, but less than 3 per cent are affiliated with trade unions. While their sobriety is said to be above the average American standard, they are not adaptable in their work, require much supervision and are generally the least effective industrially of the immigrant races. But increasingly the younger men who have some intention of staying in this country attend school. Their earnings are from fifteen to seventeen cents per hour for common



A MACEDONIAN SALOON

than \$400 a year nearly 74 per cent either worked or had lodgers; but of those whose husbands earned from \$400 to \$600 only 53 per cent worked or kept lodgers. But by far the larger number of Bulgarians live in groups, either on the "boarding boss" plan or on a system under which household management is shared by the group. The first plan is practiced by many Bulgarians and Macedonians living in lodging houses, a couple of rooms—one for sleeping and the other for cooking—being rented by five or six men who employ a Servian, Austrian or Polish woman at a fixed amount per month to do the buying,



cooking, washing, and household work. The accounts for meat, groceries and bread are kept under one name at the different stores, and at the end of the month each man pays his share of the aggregate expense. Under the other plan the members of the group take turns in doing the cooking and housework, rent and cost of food being shared proportionately. Each man, however, does his own washing unless the group, as in most cases, employs a woman to do it.

The crowding among these Bulgarian men is very great, the average number of persons in a room being 2.78, and the average per sleeping room being 3.30. Of sleeping rooms 22 per cent have five or more persons, 48 per cent have

"By way of illustration, the cottages in 'Hungary Hollow' may be considered. These cottages usually have three rooms, although some scattered here and there have four rooms. In each of these cottages twelve to sixteen men live, paying a rent from \$14 to \$16 per month. Multiplying these amounts by twelve to get the annual rents, they are found to be \$168 and \$192 respectively. These rentals are the equivalent of an investment of \$2,800 and \$3,200. The original cost of the cottages, it is claimed, was \$1,500, although this seems to be an excessive estimate. On this basis, however, the landlords are receiving from 11 to 13 per cent gross. As the houses are badly in need of repair, practically the only deduction to be made is for taxes and insurance.



A MACEDONIAN MERCANTILE COMPANY BUILDING

In normal "full times" forty-five lodging rooms are occupied by 200 Bulgarians.

four or more, and 67 per cent three or more. According to one plant official, a tenement ordinance was once adopted establishing a minimum space for each sleeper. Foreigners were dissatisfied, he said, their departure from the city crippling the plants so that it became necessary to repeal the ordinance. While doubtless other factors entered into the labor scarcity, one can readily believe that the Macedonian and Bulgarian lodging house proprietors were those mainly responsible for the dissatisfaction. The monthly rent is about \$1.11 per man. The income which landlords derive from rent is "out of proportion to the investment, and excessive," says the report of the Immigration Commission.

The cottages are very similar to, but not so good as, those for which the southern cotton mill operatives pay a rent of \$3 to \$3.50 per month.

"As far as the rooming houses, which are conducted by the mercantile establishments, are concerned, and in which such a large proportion of the population lives, the rents are from \$5 to \$8 per room. Taking an average rental per room of \$5, which is a very low estimate, a mercantile house having 50 rooms to rent would receive \$250 in rentals per month, or \$3,000 annually. This amount represents the annual interest payment on \$50,000 at 6 per cent. In practice a parallel case exists to substantiate this supposition. A mercantile house in the community has 50 rooms for rent, from which it receives





CEMENT BLOCK HOUSES OCCUPIED BY GROUPS OF BULGARIAN WORKMEN

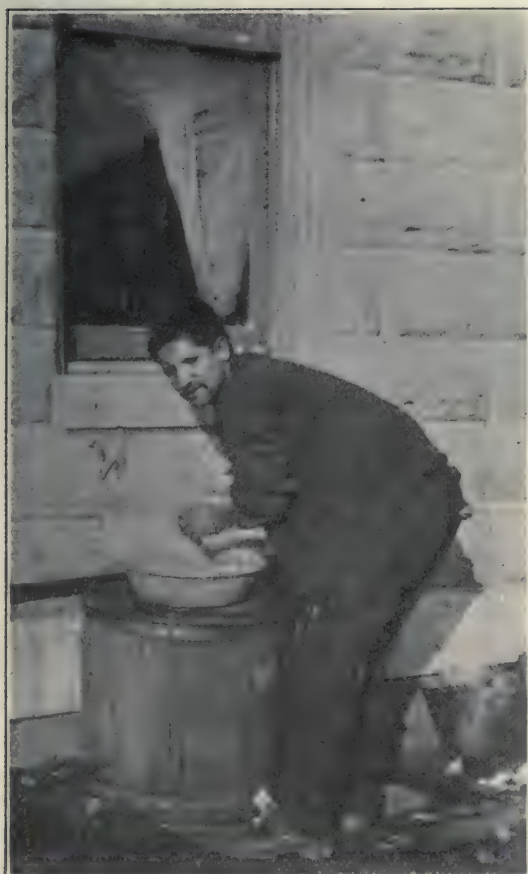
THE REAR: INSANITARY PRIVIES AND A WASH OUT TO DRY



more than an average of \$5 per room per month. Its building cost \$30,000. The lower floor is occupied by a saloon and two large stores. The rental from its rooms above the first floor, therefore pays over 10 per cent on the money invested in the entire building, or, in other words, the

income from the tenants pays more than the ordinary rate of return on the cost of the building, and leaves free of rent the saloon and store rooms, which are the most valuable part of the building for rental purposes.

"From these illustrations, it seems clear that although the recent immigrant's per capita outgo for rent is small because he lives in a crowded condition, yet the rent he pays by groups or families is excessive and yields an unusually large rate of return to his landlord."



OUT DOOR LAVATORY—THERMOMETER AT 15 DEGREES ABOVE ZERO

In the lodging houses owned and conducted by the "mercantile houses" as many as 200 Bulgarians crowd into 45 rooms during the full times of the winter when the steel mills are operating on their normal schedules. But the ordinary "mercantile company" conducts a varied business which often includes many such lines as grocery, meat market, dry goods and clothing shop, saloon, coffee house, bakery, bank, steamship agency, billiard and pool room, amusement hall, real estate and rental business, restaurant, and perhaps a weekly or semi-weekly newspaper. The proprietors use their position to squeeze large profits out of their fellow countrymen, but the average Bulgarian lives on so little that he is able to save much. This is shown by the fact that from one bank in Granite City no less than \$50,000 was drawn in six weeks at the time of the Balkan war. In less than three hours one Sunday afternoon a meeting held in a dance pavilion contributed \$4,600 to be sent to the Bulgarian Red Cross.

#### *A Civic "Poor Relation"*

"Hungary Hollow," it should be stated, was not developed by the industrial plants or their realty company, but by an independent real estate company, to which several large unimproved tracts were sold. Although it in turn has sold much of



the area to the foreigners it owns not a few of the houses where bad conditions obtain. This district is of course governed by the authorities of Granite City, of which it is a part, but they have neglected it shamefully. Until last year there was not a paved street and now there are but two. Sanitary supervision is conspicuous by its absence. And one of the worst features is the dangerous grade crossing which separates the neighborhood from the main part of Granite City. Across a score of tracks, carrying the freight and fast passenger trains of several trunk lines every inhabitant of "Hungary Hollow" must go to reach the business center and most of the in-

newspaper proprietor as well, is the most potent factor in the control of neighborhood affairs. He not only lodges many of his patrons but sells to all of them nearly everything they buy. And to him they look for advice in the affairs of life. He tells them of opportunities for work and advises them about accepting work which is offered.

So isolated are these Bulgarians from the American life beside and around them, that an American almost thinks himself in a foreign country when he crosses the tracks. Visit "Hungary Hollow" in the latter part of May and you may find every doorway and window framed



**BULGARIAN SECOND HAND CLOTHING STORE IN "HUNGARY HOLLOW."**

Aside from his "stock" the store-keeper's equipment consists of a row of nails in a fence and the use of a neighbor's bench.

dustries of the city. And the dwellers in the central part of Granite City who work in the two or three plants on the "Hungary Hollow" side of the crossing have the same dangerous trip to make. At only one point is there a watchman.

Scarcely any of the denizens of the "Hollow" are voters, and they have little to do with the civic affairs of Granite City. But over affairs among themselves, they have an interesting system of control which involves popular gatherings not unlike a town meeting. It rests in the main on a "boss system" analogous to that in our own city politics. The alien press has a large influence on public opinion, but the head of each "mercantile house," who in some instances is

in green boughs brought in from the nearest woodland. On all sides you will hear singing and the music of the concertina, while every saloon and coffee house overflows with all sorts of festivity. You will be astonished to learn the occasion of it all: these comparatively uneducated foreigners are having a most hilarious time—and some of them are getting uproariously drunk—in honor of the origin of the Bulgarian alphabet and the two monks, St. Methodius and St. Cyril, to whose credit that literary labor stands. During the Balkan war all such festivity as dancing and gay music was abandoned; national hymns and ballads descriptive of soldier life and bravery in death were mainly to be heard.



*The Larger Civic Problem*

Just as "Hungary Hollow" has an important and close relation with the work-a-day life of Granite City, so Granite City and the East Side are important parts of the St. Louis industrial district, and are increasingly recognized as such. And just as "Hungary Hollow" shares scarcely at all in the civic and social activities of the city to which it belongs, so Granite City and the East Side are "out in the cold" so far as the civic plans and social progress of St. Louis are concerned.

senting detailed schemes for the growth and improvement of areas much farther distant on the western side. Yet the minimizing of arbitrary governmental boundaries by the "industrial district" idea would seem to emphasize the wisdom of a similar point of view with reference to the essential social and civic unity of the same district. It points at least to the need of co-operating and co-ordinating action on the part of the several governmental authorities having jurisdiction in such a "district" and equally upon the



VACANT LOTS IN MADISON ARE USUALLY GIVEN OVER TO CROPS OF TIN CANS AND OTHER RUBBISH

Of course, there is little initiative on the part of these communities to "join in." And the inspiration which St. Louis extends to its western suburbs—identified with it in the same county and state governments—is entirely lacking in its relation to the East Side towns, whose volume of business and industrial output nevertheless it now gladly claims as swelling the greatness of the St. Louis district.

Naturally the broad river and the state boundaries break the identity of interests depending upon state, county or municipal legislation. It is easy, therefore, to understand why a city plan for St. Louis and its environs has nothing to do with the region across the river, although pre-

part of the volunteer social and civic agencies similarly involved.

The need for such harmonizing of effort is readily apparent. The St. Louis city infirmary and the relief societies are frequently imposed upon by applicants whose care is properly a responsibility of the Illinois communities. A wife deserter on either side can find refuge by merely crossing a bridge, and similarly criminals are glad to avail themselves of the state line as one additional barrier against pursuit, though the police of the two sides have some co-operative relations. Beggars come and go across the bridge, while the communities on either side make no attempt to unify



their methods of handling this problem. Prostitutes when harassed on one side readily cross to the other. And the difference in the enforcement of Sunday closing laws is an open secret among the thirsty. Yet in the St. Louis Central Council of Social Agencies which comprises about fifty organizations, there is no representation from the East Side—due largely, no doubt, to the fact that there are few live social agencies on that side of the river to be represented. But for the better handling of its own problems, if not to promote the social unity of the district, it would seem that St. Louis should take greater interest in the encouragement of civic and social effort on the East Side.

This contrast between the recognition of the industrial and commercial unity of the whole St. Louis "district" and the absence of any expression of its real civic and social unity is, of course, typical of the situation to be found in the relation of practically every large center of population to its industrial satellites. Yet here it seems to be even more sharply drawn than usual. The economic advantages of the East Side are, for certain industries, even more pronounced than is the case in the average suburban factory town; while the social and civic ties are even weaker. The East Side is valued for its industrial and commercial contributions to the district, and has the advice and help of the strongest St. Louis business organizations. But it is left to work out its own civic and social salvation.

What it has accomplished and what—through ignorance or apathy or preoccupation—it has failed to do, we have tried to outline briefly, using Granite City as a typical community. We

find a town planned, established and largely controlled by one industrial interest. Laid out in about the same unattractive fashion as other industrial towns of its class, it presents neither the showy front of some "model cities" nor the wretched conditions which are often to be found in family squalor behind such a mask. Except for "Hungary Hollow" with its crowding and exploited Bulgarian men, Granite City is not a great deal above the American average of rather monotonous workingmen's communities—few of its dwellings are of the worst sort, and none are of the attractive sort which many English and a very few American industrial towns are providing. Exceptionally barren of resources for the social and recreational life of its inhabitants, it nevertheless seems to have little of the demoralization which usually accompanies such lacks. Founded in a paternalistic way, it has managed to avoid some of the worst mistakes of paternalism. Dominated by one industrial group, it has had neither spectacular "welfare" benefits, nor arbitrary regulation of every day life in accordance with the whim of an autocrat priding himself on "his" men and what he does for them. Instead, there is a democratic spirit in the sharing of industrial power, as shown by the relations between employers and trade unions, which has worked out a more significant forward step in industrial conditions—the substitution of the eight- for the twelve-hour shift in some steel processes, continuous and otherwise, than can be shown by other places where industrial autocracy is more pronounced.



BULGARS IN AMERICA



# RING OUT THE OLD, RING IN THE NEW

## WAR AND ECONOMIC RECONSTRUCTION IN THE BALKANS

BENJAMIN C. MARSH

*[When the armies of the allies were penetrating the Turkish border, an American social worker set out for the front. His plan was to interpret to America and Americans the things of human significance back of the press dispatches. This social worker was Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary of the Committee on Congestion of New York. His correspondence from the capitals of the allies, from the firing line, and from the London conferences have been handled in several newspapers; this article is one of the first pieces of writing he has done since getting back to the United States.]*

*It has been pointed out more than once that some of the same zeal which in earlier generations went into the foreign missionary field is today applied to our city frontiers, and the number of sons and daughters of missionaries who have engaged in social work is cited as evidence. Mr. Marsh's father and mother have for forty years been missionaries in Bulgaria and Turkey.*

*Born himself in Eski Zaghra (Bulgaria), speaking Bulgarian, French and German, "though my German is a tragedy," Mr. Marsh had entré as few outsiders. It brought him into personal conference with various prime ministers, and he was asked to report the peace negotiations at London. It is not, of course, possible for the writer to quote them at this stage; neither is it possible for the reader to do more than speculate as to how large a hand an American social worker has had in shaping plans for the internal conference on the "economic reconstruction" of the Balkans.—Ed.]*

THE superb audacity of the allies is the most remarkable fact of the Balkan war, with the possible exception of the submerging of their centuries of jealousies and rivalries. This made possible their union offensive and defensive in the common cause against Turkish misgovernment and oppression. The fundamental causes of the war, with some of the implications arising therefrom are succinctly stated by Stoyan Daneff, president of the Bulgarian National Assembly and first delegate to the peace conference in London:

"The conditions of Bulgarians, Greeks and Servians in European Turkey were intolerable under Turkish misrule. We tried every method known to diplomacy to secure reforms and every effort had proved futile. Diplomacy and Turkish promises failed. Extortion, oppression, massacres of the Christians continued. War was the only course open to the allies, and we were compelled to have recourse to arms to secure the reforms vainly promised.

"While the war was originally begun to secure reforms, the outcome of the war has made it impossible for us to remain satisfied with merely another pledge of reforms in Macedonia. We must terminate Turkish misrule in Europe over all Christian peoples, and in order to do that, Turkish territory in Europe must be restricted to the limits designated by the allies at the peace conference.

"In reality these proposals of the allies merely extend the area of Turkey in Europe to be liberated from misrule, and provide for the effective

development of the peoples therein. The success of the allies in self-government and in developing the resources of their countries, in spite of the heavy burdens of defense, is the best guarantee of their ability to give the peoples in the territory ceded the same opportunity. Just and enlightened government is not an experiment for the allies. It is an accomplished and acknowledged fact. To secure these blessings to the territory we claim was the sufficient cause of the war."

Twenty-two years ago Mr. Tricoupis, then prime minister of Greece, suggested such a union of the Balkan States as was consummated six months ago. It was premature. The bitterness engendered by the Bulgarian Servian war was still strong in these two nations which have borne the brunt of the present war, their troops often fighting side by side. Greece was not prepared for any kind of a conflict as was shown six years later by its sorry fiasco against Turkey.

But the allies, uniquely Bulgaria and Servia, devoted themselves during the past score of years to preparation for the supreme effort to expel Turkey from Europe. It must be done. Stratford Canning, when ambassador to Constantinople said nearly a century ago that the Turk should be driven bag and baggage into the heart of Asia Minor. This was attempted in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877. By the treaty of San Stefano at the close of that war, the Turks were





#### THE GREEK MONASTERY OF MEGASPILAEON

This monastery, which is built into a great cave, is hundreds of feet above the valley. During the war for Greek independence the monks successfully defended it against the Turks under Ibrahim Pasha. The older Christian monasteries in Greece are located in inaccessible places for purposes of defense.



driven out of practically all of what is known as Macedonia. England, however, at the treaty of Berlin early in 1878 compelled the restoration to Turkey of nearly all the territory in Macedonia given the present allies at San Stefano. As George Washburn, for more than thirty years president of Robert College at Constantinople has justly said: "The treaty of Berlin humiliated Russia, without helping Turkey, while it ignored the rights of the provinces of which it disposed."

The reforms the powers undertook to compel Turkey to make in Macedonia were never executed. The powers preferred outrage, extortion and violence by Turkey in Macedonia, and even fomented dissensions between the Christians there, so that they might peacefully assimilate the territory. This suited Turkey, too, better than losing her territory to the allies because she might be able to sell more of Macedonia at a bargain. For an adequate quid pro quo the Porte would have ceded to Austria, part of Macedonia, even Salonica, just as in 1909 she accepted about \$11,000,000 for permitting Austria-Hungary to keep Bosnia and Herzegovina, on the ground that it was payment for property she possessed in these two provinces.

The allies knew the covetousness of the Christian powers and that they must strike soon. The terms of the federation provided that the armies should work as a unit, but each should operate in its own territory first; that after the conclusion of the war there should be for twenty-five years free trade between the four states, and that no one of the states should declare war during this period unless agreed to by three out of the four, but that all of them would unite in the defense of any state attacked. These arrangements were completed last July. Late in September Turkey refused to inaugurate certain imperative reforms in Macedonia. On October 8, Montenegro declared war against Turkey. Within two weeks, the war was raging over most of Macedonia. Of that conflict Winston Churchill said in the House of Commons:

"Here was a war which had broken out in spite of all that rulers and diplomats could do to prevent it, a war in which the press had had no part, a war which the whole force of the money power had been subtly and steadfastly directed to prevent."

The European powers had most emphatically told the allies that they must not fight. The combined armies of the powers numbered over 5,500,000. Counting every able-bodied man and boy over sixteen the allies could but barely muster 850,000. The total war strength of the Turkish army was nearly 1,000,000, although the larger part of their troops were in Asia Minor. To be sure the allies knew they could depend



A GREEK MACEDONIAN PEASANT

upon that nice alignment of jealousy and distrust euphemistically designated the "Balance of Power" in Europe to prevent the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente from acting together to help Turkey.

Probably before this issue reaches its readers war will have been renewed. If so I will venture the prediction that Adrianople will be taken within three weeks, and the Chataldja lines broken, though at a fearful cost of life.

Readers of *THE SURVEY* are more interested in the economic conditions and social institutions of the allied states than in statistics of armies or numbers killed. The object of the war is not merely acquisition of territory, but the improvement of economic conditions, both in the allied states themselves and in the newly liberated territory. All of the allies have well nigh exhausted their resources in preparing for the war. Defense has taken from a quarter to a third or more of the national income of all four nations. Other expenditures have been crip-





MACEDONIAN PEASANTS WEAVING

pled. Even most of the chief cities are largely without sewers, and streets are unpaved, although the most important ones have a good water supply. Taxes are cruelly high and work a great injustice upon the peasants and wage earners of the countries themselves, although Bulgaria and Servia have progressive income taxes. Both of these countries, however, are looking for new sources of revenue. In Macedonia where Turkish taxes are often farmed out to the highest bidder, two to three fifths of the produce of peasants is taken in kind by the tax-collectors.

It is estimated that 70,000 to 75,000 of the allies were killed or died from disease or wounds during the war. This represents about a twelfth of their war strength. While the growth of industry in all of the states except Montenegro has been marked during the past twenty years, industry is still of minor importance. All of these kingdoms are primarily agricultural countries, and all of them need the opportunity to develop their natural resources without devoting time and money to defense against aggression.

Of the four, Bulgaria is the most advanced, partly because she has reached a practical stage. There are three agricultural schools, while the government co-operates with local commercial bodies in technical and industrial education and maintains many technical institutions. Education is free, and attendance fairly well enforced from eight to twelve years of age. The richer parents were obliged to pay about \$4 a year for each of their children attending the higher schools. There are about 4,000 elementary

schools with nearly 450,000 pupils, in addition to those in private schools. In 1909 there were 155 special technical and other schools, 292 lower middle class schools, and twenty-seven gymnasias with a total attendance of nearly 65,000. The National University at Sofia is the culmination of the education system. The government gives a yearly subvention amounting to half the cost of education (the subsidy is two-thirds for elementary schools). The rest is paid by local authorities.

The exports from Bulgaria are chiefly cereals, especially wheat. Attar of roses is also an important item. The tariffs are definitely designed to protect and stimulate local industries, and as a general rule the duty on finished products, is about double the duty on the raw material, but the highest important duty is only about 25 per cent ad valorem.

A gratifying evidence of the desire of the allies to improve conditions in their own countries as well as in the conquered territory is their plan to hold during the coming summer a conference on economic reconstruction. One of the first things, Mr. Gueshov, the prime minister of Bulgaria, asked of me when I was in Sofia, was to make suggestions for a building code for Bulgaria.

Various peace delegates at London told me a good deal of their plans for the proposed conference this summer, at which they will consider the problems common to all the countries and to Macedonia as well. The program of subjects includes their fiscal policy, means of communication, agricultural development, industrial and technical education, systems of taxation, housing, etc. The new Balkan States constitute the nucleus for the greatest power in southern Europe, and they propose to profit in their future development, even more than in the past, by the experience of all the most successful nations of the world, among which they include the United States.



A MONTENEGRIN HUT IN WINTER

February 1, 1913.



# CLEVELAND'S GROUP PLAN

A LARGE SCALE EXPERIMENT IN GOOD WILL AND CHARITABLE GIVING

C. W. WILLIAMS

ASSISTANT TO THE PRESIDENT, OBERLIN COLLEGE

*[Cleveland was one of the first American cities to launch a project to group her public buildings in a "civic center."]*

*It is the first large city to scheme out a group plan to bring all its philanthropic agencies into a new era of team work and efficiency.*

*The plan is put forward by the Chamber of Commerce, and its base is the co-operative collection of charitable support. But it is drafted along original lines, and in the views of its advocates is far more than a fiscal enterprise. To quote one of them: the plan will be a failure—*

1. *If it does not raise more money;*
2. *If it diminishes the personal quality in charity, even though twice as much money is raised;*
3. *If the federation does not have the courage to divert money to work where it is greatly needed and fails to persuade organizations to abandon fields better covered by others;*
4. *If it fails to build up weak organizations whose work gives prospect of service to the community;*
5. *If it does not stimulate new organizations to meet new needs.*

*Perhaps the most definite criticism lodged against such projects in the past has been that they would tend to bring all the social work of a community under the thumb of a few business interests. It is claimed for the Cleveland plan, on the contrary, that it will stimulate giving among vast numbers of people of moderate means, and boards of direction need no longer be lumbered up with Mrs. Gold-Rocks and Mr. Brown Stone Front. These boards, assured of support through the federation, can choose active members.*

*Cleveland's preparation and previous experience assure as favorable conditions for the experiment as any city in the country. For this very reason, other communities may well see how Cleveland fares before attempting the plan. Cleveland business men themselves consider that their several years' work through their "charities endorsement committee" is an indispensable factor in whatever chances the larger scheme has for success.—Ed.]*

A NEW method of undertaking the support of a growing city's charities, and a new way out of perplexing problems of philanthropy, were opened up on Tuesday, January 7, when the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce unanimously adopted the report of its committee on benevolent associations, recommending the establishment of a Federation for Charity and Philanthropy. At the same time it asked its president to serve with the mayor, the judge of the Probate Court, the president of the Bar Association, and the president of the Academy of Medicine in appointing a provisional federation commission for the performance of the necessary functions of the federated board, pending the organization of that body.

This action is the result of a five years' search for the cause of the constantly increasing difficulty of securing funds for maintaining and developing the work of the various charitable institutions of the city. The committee came to an appreciation of this difficulty through its work

of charity endorsement as carried on since 1900—believed to be the first such work to be undertaken successfully by a commercial organization. In 1903 the committee made an exceedingly careful investigation of the whole of the city's giving during the year 1907. In 1910 it made a similar study of the whole situation for 1909. Its findings have been studied by the committee and have given rise to the proposal of the Federation for Charity and Philanthropy as outlined in these paragraphs from the report. The organization is to be known as the Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy, and, to quote from the report, it is to be composed of a board of thirty trustees chosen in the following manner:

Ten to be elected by the organizations which become parties to the federation.

Ten to be elected by the patrons who contribute funds to the federation's support.

Ten to be appointed by the president of the Chamber of Commerce and approved by its board of directors.



The term of office is two years, half of each group to be elected each year.

The meeting of patrons is to be open to any person contributing \$10 or more to the federation during the year prior to the meeting. A donor may send his personal delegate, but this delegate is to be free to represent one person only.

No person receiving compensation from any of the constituent organizations is eligible to membership on the federation board.

Any organization is considered eligible to participation in the federation which makes to the citizens of Cleveland, without restriction to religious, denominational or other special affiliation, a legitimate appeal for funds with which to further its activities.

The relation between a constituent organization and the federation will be subject to such conditions as may be from time to time agreed and established, and will at all times be subject to the right of either party to dissolve it at the end of any fiscal year of the federation.

#### *Inter-Society Relations*

Consultation with many persons interested in the various organizations suggested the following agreement between the federation and the organizations that will join it:

1. When the federation obtains from any given person an unrestricted pledge equal to his total gifts to the current expenses of the constituent institutions during the preceding year, the federation thereupon agrees to assign to each organization an amount equal to the gift as thus previously received from that person.

When the federation receives an unrestricted pledge totaling more than 10 per cent above the aggregate thus previously given the various constituents, it agrees to divide one-half the increase pro rata among the institutions which were his beneficiaries during the year preceding the time of his gift to the federation. In case the amount is less than the total of those previously given to separate institutions, the amount shall be divided pro rata among the earlier beneficiaries.

This agreement is to continue until the end of the second fiscal year.

If the donor prefers to designate the direction of his gift, his liberty to do so is to be complete.

2. Each constituent organization is to be free to solicit donations from persons not making their gifts through the federation. When donors obtained through these efforts become federation subscribers, the arrangement above noted becomes effective.

3. Each institution is to be free—and is urged—to maintain close touch with its

friends and constituents. The federation will plan to furnish to the organizations up-to-date lists of their donors, and in every other way will seek to promote the relation between the organization and the individual. A principal duty of the federation shall be to widen in every possible manner the charitable, philanthropic and social interests of the whole list of donors.

4. For the present the agreement is to involve only the ordinary current expense budgets of each institution. Each organization agrees not to solicit gifts, nor to endeavor to obtain designations, at the hands of the contributors to the federation. The need and the method by which shall be raised funds for purposes outside of current expenses are to be in each case determined by consultation between the federation and the organization concerned.

5. Tags, tickets, etc., are not to be circulated by any organization in the federation. It shall be the aim of the federation to do away with benefit bazars, fairs, entertainments and balls. For the present, each constituent organization agrees not to arrange these benefits without consulting the federation.

6. Such reports on their current activities as may be desired are to be made to the board by the constituent organizations, and their books are to be open to the audit of the board.

#### *The Plan Before the People of Cleveland*

A conference was held on January 10 of the trustees, directors and officers of the various organizations. Each of the endorsed institutions will now be asked whether it is willing to receive contributions through the federation in line with the items of the agreement. Following action on this request will come the election and appointment of the board of thirty. Time, of course, will be required before the whole range of the possibilities can be realized, but it would be hard to imagine a better start on the road toward their realization than is already evidenced in the enthusiastic attitude of institutions, donors and citizens.

The most important considerations leading up to the organization of the federation can best be given by quoting the remarks of Chairman Martin A. Marks at the meeting when the report was enthusiastically adopted. Mr. Marks has been the head of the committee for a number of years. How earnestly he believes in the social and philanthropic possibilities of the plan can be seen from his words. They are given in substance on the two succeeding pages:



After more than five years of what I think I may call as conscientious a study of a difficult and a decidedly delicate problem as I believe any committee of the Chamber of Commerce has ever made, the proposals put before you seem to the committee not only reasonable proposals but positively inevitable proposals, if the problem of philanthropy in Cleveland is to be solved.

In the first place, let me remind you of the great extent of the charitable and philanthropic enterprise in Cleveland. As stated in the report, in 1909 seventy-three institutions were attacking the problem of social betterment from almost every possible angle. They owned endowments worth nearly \$4,000,000. They were taking the full time of several hundred people and were calling for the annual expenditure of one and one-half millions of dollars—a sum equal to \$3 for every man, woman and child of Cleveland. They were asking each year for direct contributions of about \$1 per citizen, or, roughly, \$650,000.

Now let me contrast with that the size of the body of people that make possible this splendid enterprise and this splendid expenditure of \$3 per inhabitant. This body numbers 5,386—only 5,386! Less than 1 per cent of Cleveland's population.

The smallness of this number was one of the first jolts received by your committee after it set out in the attempt to get the facts which would explain why it was becoming each year more and more difficult to secure the gifts needed to carry on the city's works of good will.

But the study of that number itself brought further surprises. Six people were giving 42 per cent; 54 people were giving 55 per cent; 253 persons were giving nearly three-fourths of all the money contributed. Only 2,521 persons, or less than half of one per cent of the population of Cleveland, were practically making possible the whole great enterprise described to you.

Even the small number of larger givers is constantly getting smaller still.

In 1907, the investigation showed that 13 people were giving 35 per cent. In 1909, as I have said, only 6 people were giving 42 per cent. In 1907 74 persons were giving 51.5 per cent. In 1909 54 persons were giving 55 per cent. And so on, a constantly decreasing number of chief givers.

The total number of givers shows a similar decrease. In 1907 there were 5,733 persons contributing to 61 institutions, with total budgets of less than a million dollars; in 1909, 73 institutions with budgets of one and one-half millions were being assisted by only 5,386 single givers! The commit-

tee believes that this decreasing number is serious enough in itself, but it is also serious because it is a symptom of the difficulty that is certain to underlie the competitive method of canvassing for funds. As the difficulty of securing funds increases, as the result of the increased number and need of institutions, each institution carries its troubles to the offices of the few big givers, disregarding the cultivation of the small giver and the general education of the non-giver. In a time of financial strain such cultivation and education are too slow with their results. In prosperous times they seem unnecessary. Even the broadest minded institution has, furthermore, to think twice before undergoing the expense of a broad educational campaign when it knows that a certain part of the results of such a campaign will go into the treasuries of other organizations. The expenses of such an educational campaign have to be carried several years before they come back. The expense of getting money is already very large—nearly \$1,000 per institution, or over 10 per cent of the gifts directly solicited. And it is getting larger constantly. On the present basis, if a good representative can get the hearing of the large giver, his institution's success is certain. This overemphasis of good representation as compared with good institutional work is not good for the extension of the work of amelioration as a whole—not good for the advancement of the city's welfare as a whole.

\* \* \*

Your committee has tried to keep in mind not only the institutions and their work, not only the donors and their good will, but, combined with both, the welfare of Cleveland as a whole. The committee's problem has been, therefore, to devise a plan which should:

First, increase the amount given and so relieve the institutions of the present financial strain and also make possible still further enlargement of the work for the benefit of the needy, and the improvement of general conditions;

Second, to increase the number giving, thus furnishing a larger part of the body of citizens with a kind of stockholders' interest—if I may call it that—in everything that touches the welfare of the rest of the citizens;

Third, to do this in a manner that shall not depend upon the ability with which this particular work or that happens to be presented to the givers, but rather upon its proper relation to the other activities equally worthy and to the work as a whole;

Fourth, to accomplish all this not so much by a board of thirty as by means of a great



body of givers better educated to the all-round needs of the city than is any other body of citizens in any other city today;

Fifth, to create this great body of educated givers by spending in broad social and philanthropic education a part of the money which now goes simply to making one form of charity seem more attractive than another;

Sixth, to simplify the whole problem in every way by doing away with the idea that the various institutions represent unrelated, separate needs and fields. If they are efficient they cannot go at the problem of need in that way. It is one big problem and all the agencies are attacking only different parts of it. They are doubtless very efficiently attacking these different parts of it as separate institutions with distinct boards. In many ways they are already co-operating efficiently, as distinct organizations, but they still continue to lose the value of co-operating with each other when it comes to the matter of sitting in the anteroom of the large giver's private office.

Lastly, to accomplish these aims, not so much by means of, as under the direction of, a small body of citizens chosen from the various interested constituencies and as representative as possible of the city's best abilities, its best judgments, and its best hopes and aspirations.

\* \* \*

The plan proposed differs in essential points from any devised or practiced in any other city. It is not a federation of institutions alone, as in Denver; not of givers alone, nor of both together. It is a federation for advancing charity and philanthropy, of institutions, of givers and of citizens. It does not intend to be a mere collecting agency, as is the Liverpool project, though it does not wish to assume to direct gifts to this or that work until it has had at least two years of experience, and then only on the request of the individual contributor. It will hope to produce its results in the way of a wiser distribution mainly through a better educated giver, rather than through its own action. In this I am referring to "Item of agreement No. 1," according to which, in the absence of designation or restriction, a gift through the federation will continue for two years to follow the direction of the gifts last made directly to the separate institutions.

It does not, furthermore, plan to do away with the financial activities of the various constituent organizations, but to direct these activities towards the non-giver in the hope

of bringing him into the fold. Every person in the city, therefore, is today and will continue to be as open as ever to the canvass of any or all of the seventy-three institutions up to the moment when the constituent organizations receive word that this or that person has signified his willingness to become a subscriber to the federation for an amount not less than his previous aggregate gifts to the separate institutions. Please notice that this makes the plan very different from that originally talked of, by which the board was to assume the whole of all the various budgets. According to the present plan, the effectiveness of the federation will depend entirely on the wishes and the choice of the donor. If at any time a donor decides he does not care for what the federation is aiming at, he can return to the former way of making gifts direct; for him the federation comes to an end.

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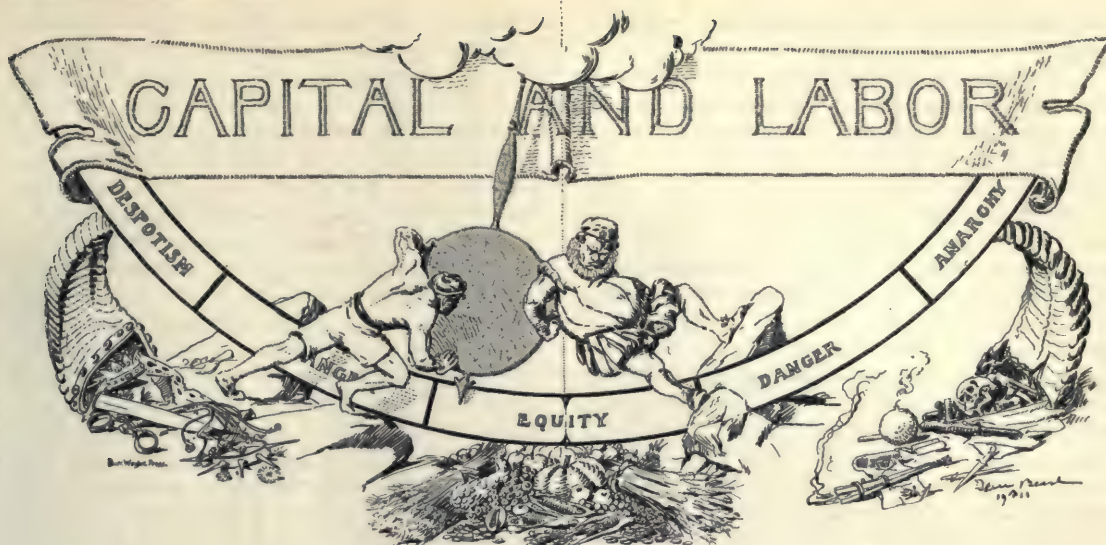
Between the federation's subscriber and the good work of Cleveland as a whole, the federation plans to establish a closer relation than at present. The committee realizes fully that in the long run the financial success of the plan will depend on its ability to maintain and develop genuine, personal interest. The co-operation of every organization will be enlisted and this co-operation ought easily to ensure a better showing than in 1909 when 66 per cent of the givers gave to one institution only, and only 33 to 16 or more.

For the institution, the plan should mean a larger life because of more money, without that money being purchased at the cost of the time of the superintendent. For the donor, it should mean larger satisfaction, without the pleasure of one gift being spoiled by the unhappiness of ten refusals. For the citizen, it should mean a better Cleveland. For all, your committee believes the plan will mean the establishment of good works upon the basis they deserve,—the basis, that is, where they will be thought of as a legitimate and proper part of the city's life and progress, by citizens whose social interest and view-points have been stimulated and developed as the result of a broad, united and sympathetic educational movement directed by a board of thirty leading citizens.

\* \* \*

Then, in that day, I believe, we shall, wherever we go, be able to hold up our heads as "citizens of no mean city"—Cleveland, first city to organize itself for becoming "the city of good will."





## THE DYNAMITE CASE

JOHN A. FITCH

AUTHOR OF THE STEEL WORKERS

**W**HEN on December 28, the jury in the United States District Court of Indiana brought in a verdict of guilty with respect to thirty-eight out of forty defendants, it brought to a close one of the most amazing cases ever tried in an American court. In the past decade only three other labor trials have excited similar interest, those of Haywood, Moyer and Pettibone in Idaho in 1906, that of the McNamaras a year ago at Los Angeles and the recent one of Ettor and Giovannitti at Salem.

But those cases involved charges of murder.

The charge at Indianapolis was not murder nor the dynamiting of buildings; it was a charge of conspiracy to transport explosives on passenger trains from one state into another, and aiding and abetting in accomplishing that end.

If other facts were lacking it would seem strange that a trial on such charges should challenge the attention of the country. A violation of the law against such transportation of explosives would be complete if a man crossed a state border on a passenger train and carried with him a stick of dynamite which he intended to use for blowing up stumps.

Very evidently, the district attorney meant something besides the particular counts in the indictment when he called the offense for which the men were being tried the "crime of the century." More than one newspaper called for the maximum punishment for the defendants and a New York journal expressed regret that capital punishment could not be inflicted. In view of the fact that no reasonable person, even if

ignorant of the law, could maintain that anyone should be punished by a court for a crime for which he was not on trial, this attitude is comprehensible only when the sinister facts in the background of the trial are taken into account—facts not to be palliated or gainsaid.

The whole story is more than that of a court trial. To get it in its proper setting, we must know what had happened prior to the indicting of fifty-four labor men. In 1905 the American Bridge Company had a closed shop agreement with the Bridge and Structural Iron Workers' Union. There was also an arbitration clause in the agreement, and a third clause of importance which said that "none of the definite articles of these rules shall be subject to arbitration." Some time in 1905 the American Bridge Company sublet a contract to the Boston Bridge Company, a concern that did not employ union labor. The union objected to this as a violation of the closed shop clause and when it was unable to induce the American Bridge Company either to abrogate its contract or to compel the Boston Bridge Company to unionize its work, a strike was ordered. The ordering of a strike without first submitting the matter in controversy to arbitration was, the company insisted, a violation of the arbitration agreement. The union replied that the strike was over a "definite article" of the rules, that is, the closed shop clause, which under the agreement was not subject to arbitration. From a local strike in New Haven the breach widened until a general strike against the work of the American Bridge Company all over the country was declared. The Bridge



Company retaliated by declaring for the "open shop."

Next the National Erectors' Association entered into the controversy. This association and its predecessors had been for several years in the habit of signing annual agreements with the Structural Iron Workers' Union. The last one was signed January 1, 1905, and expired one year later. On May 1, 1906, the Erectors' Association adopted what is known as the open shop policy, and joined its most important member, the American Bridge Company, in its conflict with the union. This brought into the fray the leading construction companies of the country, including, beside the American Bridge Company, the Fort Pitt Bridge Works, the Hinkle Iron Works, the McClintic-Marshall Construction Company, the Pennsylvania Steel Company, the Phoenix Bridge Company, the Pittsburgh Steel Construction Company, the Riter-Conley Manufacturing Company, the Wisconsin Bridge and Iron Company and many others. The American Bridge Company is a subsidiary of the United States Steel Corporation.

Then began and continued from 1905 to 1911, a struggle surpassed in violence in the labor history of this country only by the Molly Maguires. Assaults on individuals became a commonplace; bridges, buildings and structural material in all parts of the country were damaged or destroyed by explosions of dynamite and nitroglycerine, and human life was placed in jeopardy in countless ways. The whole country finally became aroused by the blowing up on October 1, 1910, of the building occupied by the *Los Angeles Times*, when twenty-one men at work in the building were killed.

The National Erectors' Association has published a list of ninety-six assaults on "non union foremen and men in the employ of open shop contractors of iron and steel erection work" occurring from December 2, 1905 to June 13, 1912, and a list of "depredations, dynamitings, attempts, etc." to the number of 102, extending over the period from the summer of 1905 to October 16, 1911. While no connection has been shown to exist between all of these assaults and depredations and any activity on the part of the Iron Workers' Union, the McNamara case proved that union officials were responsible for some of the worst of them, and the Indianapolis trial demonstrated their responsibility for many more.

It is the last chapter to date in a book of staggering revelations. Walter Drew, counsel for the National Erectors' Association, had testified last summer before the Judiciary Committee of the United States Senate, that there were in 1905 two attempts to dynamite open shop erection work. He testified that in 1906 there were three explosions and four attempts; in 1907, six explosions; in 1908, nineteen explosions and four

attempts; in 1909, twenty-two explosions and two attempts; in 1910, twenty-five explosions, and in 1911 up to the arrest of J. B. McNamara and Ortie McManigal on April 12, there were ten explosions. One of the questions that perhaps never will be answered is how a dynamiting campaign of such magnitude could have been carried on for six years, involving in its scope the width of the continent, and having for its victims the greatest steel construction companies in the United States, including the United States Steel Corporation itself, before one important arrest was made or one dynamiter convicted of crime.

However that may be, the McNamara arrests brought into the hands of the officials of Los Angeles County and of Marion County, Indiana, evidence of great importance which was ultimately turned over to the federal authorities. On the basis of this evidence a grand jury, convened in Indianapolis, returned indictments against fifty-four men, charging them as has been stated with conspiracy and with aiding and abetting in the transportation of dynamite and nitroglycerine on passenger trains from one state into another. Forty of these men had their cases considered by the trial jury. The fourteen who were eliminated included the two McNamaras now serving sentences in California, McManigal and Ed Clark who had pleaded guilty, one man who was never found and one who had a broken leg and so was prevented from appearing. Three men were discharged at the beginning of the trial on the motion of the district attorney, who announced that he could not make a case against them, and four more were discharged on the motion of the district attorney at the end of the submission of the government's evidence. Later one more defendant, Clarence E. Dowd, was discharged on the motion of his own attorney.

Of the forty who stood before the court at the close of the trial all were members of the Structural Iron Workers' Union except Hiram Kline, a carpenter, and Olaf A. Tveitmoe, a cement worker and secretary of the San Francisco Building Trades Council. It was practically the labor officials of one trade and of that trade only, who were at the bar of the federal court, or who were involved in the far-flung skeins of evidence which were unraveled day after day. The reckless efforts which the California unionists were making to break into open-shop Los Angeles and the bitter hostility of the editor of the *Times* was what led to the transfer of these tactics to an outside field and ultimately led to exposure.

The United States District Court room in Indianapolis is divided nearly in two by a rail. Behind the rail are seats for onlookers and in front is the judge's raised desk, the jury box, tables and seats for counsel and seats for defendants. It was never anticipated by the archi-



fect that forty men should be on trial at one time inside that rail. They were ranged along, in front of the rail, three rows deep, nearly the entire width of the room. When a table for the newspaper men, and seats for especially privileged visitors were added, scant space remained.

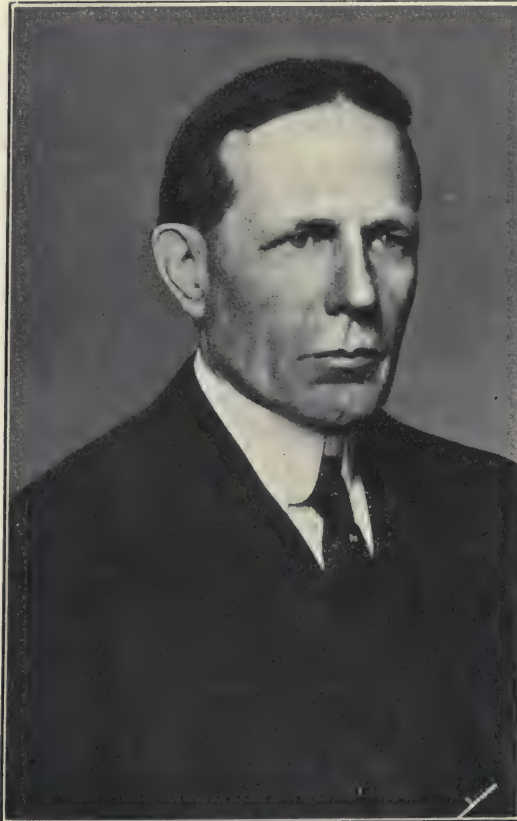
As I sat in the court room studying the faces of the defendants, I thought of what I have often heard about character showing in a man's face. They didn't look like criminals, those men. One was sitting erect, twirling his hat on the top of his cane. He looked for all the world like a professional man with, you would probably have added, a taste for music. I learned that this was Tveitmoe, whom the district attorney denounced as a murderer. Another reminded me strongly of a certain social worker who is a terror to evil doers. Some looked to be exactly what they are, strong muscled men who have worked with their hands for a living; others seemed more like prosperous business people. But one I fixed upon as evil, through and through. That man, I said to myself more than once, is a criminal if ever I saw one. But he turned out to be one of those against whom the evidence was scanty and largely circumstantial; and was not classed even by the prosecution as one of the ringleaders. He received one of the lighter sentences.

What had happened to bring to the hither side of that dividing rail these men who, so far as the eye could tell, might have been ordinary onlookers?

When on October 1, two years to a day after the Los Angeles explosion, the government opened its case it based it largely on the testimony of Ortie E. McManigal. McManigal had been arrested on April 12, 1911, by Burns detectives, along with James B. McNamara, charged with complicity in blowing up the *Times* building. He turned state's evidence at Los

Angeles and confessed that he had carried dynamite and blown up buildings under the direction of J. J. McNamara, then secretary-treasurer of the Structural Iron Workers' Union. The government brought him to Indianapolis to tell in detail of his dynamiting exploits.

For days this man sat in the witness chair and told how he had gone about the country on his mission of destruction. He declared that he had set the bombs for some twenty-three of the explosions shown by the prosecution to have taken place.



JUDGE ALBERT B. ANDERSON

"A great public service was performed by prosecution and court. When state and local authorities weakly and shamefully neglected to interfere in a campaign of violence which led inevitably to bloodshed, the United States authorities, through the halting medium of a law designed only to protect the travelling public from ignorant carelessness, uncovered the conspiracy and punished the conspirators."

Only corroborative evidence and the almost unbelievable acts of other defendants, proven to have taken place, would avail to convince one of the truth of his story which, had it been written out instead of lived, would have been too lacking in plausibility to find a publisher. Think of checking a suit case full of dynamite in a railroad station! McManigal testified that he not only did that but that he took dynamite to his home in Chicago, piled it on the radiator to thaw out, and then went out to look over a "job"! When he returned he found his little girl playing with the sticks of dynamite on the floor.

It is according to the book to expect that a man even partially in his senses, if about to commit a crime, will try to conceal his identity, to cover up his tracks, and in every way to make it difficult for anyone to recognize him or to trace the course of his

journeys. McManigal did use several aliases. One of them, said to have been used also by Hockin, was the particularly unobtrusive one of "Ping." But he always took scrupulous pains, apparently, that some one of his various names should appear on a hotel register, wherever he went to set off an explosion.

He got acquainted with night watchmen, guarding property that he intended to destroy. He even tried on one occasion to get the watch-



man to go to a theatre with him, so that he would not be injured when the bomb exploded. Failing in that because the watchman "got suspicious," McManigal went away and prepared a second bomb. He risked a return to the building guarded by the now "suspicious" watchman, set this second bomb at a point remote from the first, timed to go off five minutes before the other, so as to draw the watchman to that point in time to save his life from the initial bomb. Having taken these precautions, this careful dynamiter boarded a train.

McManigal had his picture taken at one place where he had gone in his professional capacity and finally, as if fearful that sufficient clues were still lacking, he formed the habit of sending to his wife souvenir spoons of the towns where he caused explosions.

For all that, there was no lack of evidence of many different sorts in substantiation of his story. Hotel registers showed his signature; hotel clerks identified him. Attorneys for the defense on cross examination failed to break down his testimony.

McManigal's story must have left a strong impression on the jury, for he told how again and again he met different officers and business agents of the Iron Workers' Union—not the McNamara's alone, but many others—and conferred with them regarding proposed explosions. But the strongest of all the corroborative evidence—showing direct connection between leading officials of the union and the dynamiting campaign, and indicating that there was conniving at and participation in other forms of violence—appeared in the hundreds of letters written by officials, business agents and others, which were taken from the files of the Structural Iron Workers' Union, and which were read into the evidence.

And here appears another thing to wonder over in this most amazing of trials. If McManigal acted with incredible nonchalance as play-actor with the steel industry as his property man, what can be said of the precaution of the score of other men involved, most of whom wrote, not once but again and again, letters so incriminating that McNamara, replying to one of them, protested against putting such things on paper: "The Lord only knows who sees these letters!" he said.

And then McNamara *kept the letters on file!* It is a common practice in business offices to destroy letters, except those of especial importance, after a few years. Some of these "dynamite letters" were kept in the union headquarters five years, and only then taken away when the place was raided by officers of the law!

Day after day District Attorney Miller read these letters into the record. They dealt with

all sorts of matters from finances to "repair work." Not many of them perhaps referred in plain and obvious terms to dynamiting and other forms of violence, but taken in connection with the dynamiting campaign that was on, many have a very plain and incriminating significance.

It had been brought out in evidence that for a long time, John J. McNamara used funds to the amount of a thousand dollars a month without giving any account of them. The stubs of the checks so drawn were usually marked "set aside for organizing purposes by the executive board." The first thousand dollar check was drawn in December, 1909. On August 7, 1908, J. J. McNamara had written to Frank C. Webb of New York, a member of the executive board, that he thought the board should set aside from a thousand to three thousand dollars for emergency purposes to be drawn on by himself.

McNamara wrote:

"I believe it will be up to the executive board to arrange so that things can be charged so that no official can be charged with the expenditure of a large amount of money."

The letter further mentioned that the expenditures of large sums of money by any individual officer led to investigations and kicks.

On July 1, 1908, Ed Clark who, along with McManigal, pleaded guilty to the charge of transporting dynamite, and confessed that he had caused at least one explosion, wrote to McNamara regarding some structural work that was about to be started in Cincinnati. Clark wrote,

"If you think it would help any, it would be easy to put their hoisting engine on the bum now."

McNamara replied that Hockin (who succeeded McNamara as secretary and treasurer, when the latter was convicted), would be in Cincinnati and

"he can take up with you the matters mentioned in your communication."

On July 23, Clark informed McNamara that Hockin had been in Cincinnati and on August 7 Clark wrote,

"I may as well tell you that there was an explosion on the Grainger job last night."

July 30, 1908, Philip Cooley of New Orleans, a member of the executive board, wrote to McNamara that there were two scab jobs under way there, adding:

"Now, Joe, it will take about \$250 to do any work. There is a few good fellows in this local at this time who can do the trick and get away with it."

McNamara replied that Ryan would be in New Orleans shortly and Cooley had better take



the matter up with him. "You can arrange matters much better that way than you can by mail," he said.<sup>3</sup>

On December 29, 1909, Cooley wrote to McNamara:

"I was able to secure the proper stuff for that proposition I mentioned to you in a former communication, and I would like to know just what this kind of a job is worth, as I would not like to offer something and not be able to go through with it."

On February 5, 1910, Hockin wrote to Cooley:

"In answer to your favor of February 2, I have just sent you a wire ordering you to cancel the repair work on derrick, also the yard work you speak of, as the price is altogether too high. I might say that our expenses for the last month have been rather high and we have not got the money at present to make repairs at such a high price. We have been doing considerable organizing work throughout the country, so for some time we will have to keep our expenses down. You say you have considerable idle men down there. Under them conditions, the repair work ought to be done very cheaply."

M. J. Hannan of Scranton, Pa., a business agent, wrote to J. J. McNamara on September 7, 1907:

"I wish to say that it is a shame to let this bunch of snakes leave here without trimming them. . . . Now I think you should send some money here on the quiet and I promise the goods will be delivered. If No. 23 [23 was the number of the Scranton local] had a million, I would not do a job for them, as they don't know how to keep their mouth shut and I don't feel prepared to serve time. . . . I am prepared to do anything, but you know how careful a man should be in a case of this kind."

It was in regard to this letter that Frank A. Ryan, president of the union, admitted under cross examination on the stand that it had "looked a little suspicious" to him.

William C. Bernhardt of Cincinnati wrote to McNamara on October 22, 1907, about an accident that had happened on some work that a non-union contracting company was doing there in which some of the union members were accused of being responsible, and some had been arrested. Bernhardt said that he had footed some of the bills himself, because the matter was of such a nature that "it could not be brought up." The same letter refers to a police judge

who was friendly to the iron workers, and who said, "For God's sake, don't bring that bunch around here any more or I'll have to do something."

An unusually frank letter was written on February 25, 1908, by Ed Clark, in which he said:

"We're going to do something to the Grainger Company that will be of benefit to the whole membership in general. . . . We have made up our minds to go after them in the right way. . . . Joe, being so well known here, I do not think it advisable for me to buy any explosive. Could there be such a thing as you sending me from Indianapolis what I need?"

A letter written by Ryan on April 27, 1910, figured prominently in the trial. It was in this letter that Ryan apportioned "jobs" among the various members of the executive board. Ryan wrote:

"Let Legleitner attend to the jobs in his district. Let Butler attend to the jobs at Rochester and Buffalo. Hockin can attend to Detroit, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Davenport, Kansas and Peoria jobs."

The district attorney attempted to show that the reference in each case was to the dynamiting of non-union construction work in each district. It was also shown that within a few months after this letter a number of explosions took place in several of the districts where the "jobs" were to be looked after.

Some of the most interesting letter writing was done by J. E. Munsey, business agent of the union in Salt Lake City. On June 13, 1909, Munsey wrote to J. J. McNamara about a conference that he had had with the president of the Minneapolis Steel Company. He said that the president had left Salt Lake City for Minneapolis, but

"he left his lap dog, Holstrom, here. We have tried to get him, but he won't venture out in the night time. He packs a big gun all the time."

A new hotel was being built in Salt Lake City, and on September 29, 1909, Munsey wrote to McNamara:

"They are going to run open shop on this Utah Hotel. There is no question. But just wait until they try it and you watch me."

On December 13, 1909, Munsey wrote:

"There is a fellow by the name of Delaney working on the job, and he sent after me the other night. He gave me the address of John Smith, Cardiff, Alabama, and said if I wrote him about him I could find out what kind of a man he was. I asked him what his motive was in working there, and he told me he followed that kind of business up, and if I wanted to put the job on the bum, he would do it. He said he

<sup>3</sup>Cooley also wrote to McNamara at one time that he had met a scab in a saloon and struck him on the jaw. He said that the blow made the man pretty sick because he hit his head on something as he went down and he heard afterward that he had had to have a silver plate put in. Cooley was afraid that he might get into trouble at first, but he wrote that he had hired two witnesses to testify that the scab had hit him first. Then he had a friend of his see the judge so he was hoping to get off easily.





OLAF A. TVEITMOEN  
Secretary of the San Francisco  
Building Trades Council. Influ-  
ential Pacific coast labor leader.  
Six years' imprisonment.



JOHN T. BUTLER  
Vice-president of the Structural  
Iron Workers' Union. Sentenced  
to six years' imprisonment.



MICHAEL J. YOUNG  
Business agent of the Structural  
Iron Workers' Union in Boston.  
Sentenced to six years' imprison-  
ment.

worked for this John Smith during a strike in Alabama and for me to write in regard to it. Smith, he claims, is president of a local there. So I wrote Smith, but I was careful not to say anything in the letter that could be used against me or against the local. . . . I wish you would try to find out if you can; they might be trying to double cross me. Now I don't know anything about this Delaney; never heard of him before. Of course, I am pretty wise, and I am not going to let him lead me into anything on me. Now he wants me to wait until I hear from this Smith, then he says he will be ready to do business. Of course, I didn't mention that I wanted to do anything or say anything pertaining to it, so I think it would be advisable to write Lewis and see if there is such a man as Smith or if Delaney did do this work."

McNamara replied to this letter on December 20:

"I note your statement relative to this fellow Delaney. Do not frame up with any of those fellows. Some of our people done it at New York and to their sorrow. If I am not greatly mistaken, he wants to lead you into a trap. If I were you, I would feel this Delaney out again, and then tell him that you had taken the matter up with some of the officials of the local union, and that they turned the proposition down and gave you to understand that they were not doing business along that line. If he is crooked, and everything indicates that he is, he will, of course, take this information back to the people he is working for."

Later on there were explosions on the Salt Lake City work. February 24, 1910, Munsey wrote to McNamara:

"I am positive it would pay to send an organizer to this particular part of the country. . . . The Kearns and Utah Hotel buildings are

coming along very slowly. But I still think there is a possible chance to square the Kearns Building."

On March 2 he wrote:

"The Utah Hotel is practically at a standstill. They can't cut the mustard, and I think there will be something doing there pretty soon."

On March 3 he wrote:

"Jones is practically up against it, and if he don't do any more in the next three months, he will never finish the job."

Writing again on March 7, he said:

"I think I have Jones on the hip in regard to the Kearns building, and we will then attend to the Utah Hotel."

On March 29 McNamara replied:

"I wish you are able to run Jones not only out of Salt Lake City, but also out of the state of Utah. I presume he told you what I have in mind, and if it can be gone into in a safe way, I will be on the job."

On April 18 the Utah Hotel was dynamited a second time.

I have quoted all these letters because it is important that the readers of THE SURVEY should know something of the evidence that was introduced in the trial. No one could read these letters, see the various exhibits introduced by the government, and consider corroborative evidence of a dozen different kinds, including the manner of some of the defendants on the witness stand, without being convinced that many of them were personally responsible for much of the violence and destruction of property which had taken place for half a dozen years past. That impres-





HERBERT S. HOCKIN

Succeeded J. J. McNamara as secretary-treasurer of the Iron Workers'. Six years' imprisonment.



FRANK M. RYAN

President Bridge and Structural Iron Workers' Union. Sentenced to seven years' imprisonment.



JOHN E. MUNSEY

Iron Workers' agent in Salt Lake City. Accused of hiding J. B. McNamara after Times explosion. Six years' imprisonment.

sion was strengthened in my mind as I sat and listened to the attorneys for the defense making their final arguments to the jury.

The defendants had an imposing array of counsel. At the head was W. N. Harding, a prominent attorney of Indianapolis, and associated with him as co-leader of the band of fifteen attorneys was John W. Kern, formerly special assistant United States district attorney, Democratic nominee for the vice-presidency in 1908, and now United States Senator from Indiana. Among the defendants' attorneys were a former assistant district attorney in Philadelphia and a former United States attorney in Missouri. They came from a half-dozen different states, from cities as far apart as Minneapolis and Philadelphia. Some represented one defendant, some two or more, and all were represented by Harding and Kern.

For the prosecution there were three men—District Attorney Charles W. Miller and Assistant District Attorneys Noel and Nichols. Miller was appointed by President Taft in 1909. He was attorney general of Indiana from 1903 to 1907, and has held various other positions of importance both in politics and in business. For more than a year these men had concentrated on this one case. They are deserving of great credit for their tenacity and industry in going through the appalling mass of evidence, for mastering it as they did, and drawing out into the open this conspiracy which had eaten at the heart of a great labor group. Attorneys for the defense repeatedly complimented the prosecution for their able presentation of the case, and it was no mere flattery. It was not only in having the weight of evidence in their favor, but in their

intellectual grasp of that evidence that the prosecution was stronger.

On the bench sat Judge Albert B. Anderson, who was appointed to that position by President Roosevelt in 1902. It was, incidentally, Judge Anderson who afterward decided against the president who had appointed him in the famous Indianapolis *News* libel case, and who was the hero of Mr. Roosevelt's remark that the judge was "either a fool or a knave."

The jury was made up mostly of Indiana farmers—dyed-in-the-wool Hoosiers, as the eye could see. In the final arguments before the jury each side was allotted four days. Assistant District Attorney Noel opened for the prosecution, and when the defense had had their four days, District Attorney Miller took two and a half days for closing.

As I have intimated, the arguments of the defense did not for the most part impress me favorably. It seemed fitting and proper that the attention of the jury should be directed, as Senator Kern did most effectively, to the solemn responsibility of having in their hands the liberty of a fellow man. I am no lawyer, but it seemed to me only right that the jury should be reminded of the seriousness of its duty, dulled as their sense of it might have become after three wearying months of hearing evidence.

But I did not feel an equal measure of fitness and scrupulous propriety as lawyer after lawyer stood before the jury and made pleas for sympathy, reminding the jury of the homes where these men were "loved as those in your homes love you." Some of them quoted poetry. One read Abou Ben Adhem to the jury. Another read the poem entitled *The House by the Side*



of the Road, where the poet wished to dwell and "be a friend to man." Several of the attorneys used the same formula in closing their appeals. "I leave my clients, with all they have, with all they love and with all who love them, in your hands."

Of them all, I think only Attorney William A. Gray of Philadelphia, appearing in behalf of Michael Cunnane, and Judge Krum of St. Louis, who defended J. H. Barry and P. J. Morrin, refrained from making that kind of appeal.

It was the duty of defendants' counsel to make the best arguments they could for their clients consistently with the truth. But when I found them devoting, in the aggregate, hours of their precious time to such appeals as these, instead of marshalling the evidence, I could not help concluding that their cases were weak and that they knew it.

So far as the prosecution was concerned, I could not help thinking of another trial recently the feature of the newspapers—that of Police Lieutenant Becker in New York for the murder of Herman Rosenthal. In that trial the newspapers reported that Assistant District Attorney Moss not only did not interrupt the defendant's counsel when he was making his final argument before the jury, but that he retired from sight of the jury in order to give the defendant's counsel opportunity to speak for his client unhampered by any counter influence which even the presence of the prosecuting attorney might exercise.

At Indianapolis, District Attorney Miller sat directly in front of the jury all the time that the attorneys for the defense were making their closing arguments. He not only interrupted from time to time, but he did so in a manner that frequently surprised me, with such remarks as these: "Counsel knows that every word that he is saying is untrue," or "I wish counsel would try to tell the truth at least part of the time."

And then his speech to the jury surprised me in its bitter attack upon counsel for the defense. He taunted them with being there to defend a bunch of criminals "at so much per day." He intimated that Senator Kern had abandoned his duties at Washington, which the people were paying him to perform, to defend men guilty of murder. Such things, he declared with bitter scorn, "will men do for money." I gathered that he thought the defendants should not be represented by counsel.

The trial ended; the jury convicted thirty-eight men; acquitted two. Judge Anderson sentenced one man to serve seven years in prison; eight men to serve six years; two men four years; twelve men three years; four men two years; six men one year and one day; and five

men, together with Ed Clark, who pleaded guilty, he released under suspended sentences.

And now that it is over there is a tendency to feel relief because the story has come out and justice has triumphed. The pity of it is that neither thing has happened. The matters dealt with in the trial were too complex to be thus easily made known to all men, and justice is too complex a thing thus easily to triumph. And I am not sure that unless, or even if, we limit our definition of justice as the court was obliged to do, can we say that it triumphed here. It will help if we first consider an important phase of the trial itself, and then turn to a more important question—what was it all really about?

The old doctrine on which our criminal procedure continues to be based is that it is the crime, and not the man, that comes before the court for judgment. Given this procedure, if justice even in a limited sense is to prevail, two things among others are extremely important. One is that if a man is suspected of having committed a crime, he should be placed on trial in a court that has jurisdiction. The other is that, having been placed on trial in any court, he should be tried on the charge named in the indictment, and not on some other charge.

District Attorney Miller is not to blame because the men convicted at Indianapolis were not tried on the direct charge of dynamiting buildings. That is not a matter for the federal courts. The fact that they were not so tried by state and county courts, and that long since, is a national scandal. Perhaps the magistrate who said, "For God's sake, don't bring that bunch here again or I'll have to do something," could tell why they escaped local prosecution. Judge Anderson took occasion to remark in the course of the trial that had the local authorities done their duty, the matter never need have come to his court.

Mr. Miller's strict responsibility was to present the evidence against the defendants on the several counts of the indictment, all of which had to do with the transporting of dynamite across state lines. Yet this was not the burden of his attack upon the defendants. He called them dynamiters and murderers. Tveitmoe he singled out for especial condemnation, and seldom if ever referred to him without an epithet. "Contemptible" and "infamous" were the adjectives most commonly attached to his name. "If I were district attorney of Los Angeles County," he said, "Clancy and Tveitmoe would have been tried for murder, and if an honest jury were in the box they would have gone to San Quentin prison to join the McNamaras."

So it was that some of those who heard the



testimony said: "These men are guilty of dynamiting buildings"—which was true of most of them—"so I hope the judge will send them to prison for life"—which would have been wholly contrary to the law, since the men were being tried for something else. Even Judge Anderson, when sentencing the convicted men, admitted that he would have to exercise some will power not to sentence them for murder and destruction instead of the crime of which they had been found guilty. Yet this incessant, reiterated picturing of the defendants as guilty of the worst crimes, even up to murder, the presenting of evidence to show that such crimes had occurred, could not have failed to rouse in the minds of the jury a righteous indignation against the defendants. Not being lawyers they would naturally lose sight to some extent of the real charge, and vote the men guilty just because they ought to be in jail. I do not know whether that was what they did, but if it was hard for the judge to keep his mind on the issue before the court, how much harder it must have been for the jury.

Moreover the burden of admitted testimony exposed the dynamitings as a motive for carrying explosives, but threw no light on either hardship or provocation as a possible motive for the explosions. If the court was right in admitting the one, was it consistent or just in failing to bring out the other? The prosecution was permitted to bring in as germane all the evidence it could gather regarding explosions and deeds of violence. The strictness with which on the other hand economic facts were excluded was illustrated when the defense tried to introduce evidence tending to show that the deaths in the union numbered twenty a month, that 80 per cent of these deaths are due to accidents occurring while at work, and that the average age of the iron worker is 34 years, and they were ruled out. Neither was evidence introduced showing possible reasons for the bitterness of the fight as carried on by the workers. Nothing was said of the employers' way of fighting.

This leads to a more fundamental question than whether personal injustice was done these men: What was the trial really about, not legally or technically, but actually? What was the meaning of the facts disclosed? That it amounted to more than the mere charge of carrying dynamite needs no affirming. The record of the trial proved, if legal proof were necessary, that dynamite and nitro-glycerine had been used by labor men in a struggle with anti-union employers. It is idle to suppose that the Structural Iron Workers' Union got into the hands of a set of leaders all of whom were natural-born safe blowers and who found that the easiest

way to make the world give them a living.

I asked an experienced reporter, who had covered the trial from the first day, what he thought of the defendants. He answered, without a moment's hesitation:

"There are some bad men here, I think—some of the worst criminals in the United States. But only a few are like that. Most of them are the product of their environment. The danger of their work calls for red-blooded men—men of recklessness and courage. In their fight for union recognition they found themselves up against a bitter struggle with the Steel Corporation, and they actually believed, many of them, that the only way to avoid a loss of the eight-hour day and complete subjugation was through the use of dynamite."

This view may seem more than ordinarily puzzling if we note that it was the structural iron workers, with their eight-hour day and their \$5 wage, who came to believe they must embark upon a career of dynamiting, instead of some sweated, underpaid group of workers. Yet it is common psychology that men will go to greater lengths to hold what they have than to gain more. A \$3 man strikes harder against a wage cut than a \$2 man will strike for a raise. It is significant that nearly all discussion of this matter in labor circles turns sooner or later to the condition of the other workers in the steel industry—their twelve-hour day and seven-day week, their low wages and their unorganized helplessness.

In an address delivered in New York last fall, Anton Johannsen, one of the men under indictment in California for transporting dynamite, expressed this point of view. The following is taken from a stenographic report of his speech:

"About a year and a half ago the United States Congress appointed a committee to investigate the steel trust. . . . That committee—not a labor union committee or a Socialist committee, but a committee from the United States Congress, that very seldom does anything, but they did this time—found that . . . the steel trust employed 260,000 men and boys. They found that they worked them for twelve hours a day for an average wage of \$409 a year, not a month. What else did they find? They found that in that industry every single labor union had been completely destroyed and annihilated with but one exception—the Bridge and Structural Iron Workers' Union. You can draw your own inference, but every union was destroyed by the steel trust, and all those men who had lost their organization worked twelve hours a day for \$409 a year as the average wage. We have a Congressional report to back us up as to the facts. What are the facts in connection with the Iron Workers' International Union? In seven years, during the administration of John



J. McNamara, the union increased its membership from 5,000 to nearly 14,000 members. They established an eight-hour day from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from Texas to the Canadian line, and they established a wage scale of \$4.30 as compared with \$2.20. . . . I do not know, but I suppose that the McNamaras became convinced that no amount of pleading, no amount of argument, no amount of logic, no amount of Christianity, no amount of politics, would convince the steel trust that they could give eight hours and give them living wages. Labor would have to organize.

"The steel trust had what they called the National Erectors' Association, one of the tributaries of the steel trust, and the National Erectors' Association had what they called the American Bridge Company, another tributary of the steel trust. . . . How long do they expect those 260,000 men and boys to work in the steel industry for \$409 a year, twelve hours a day, without becoming imbued with animosity and despair? How do they expect it? If a man says to me, McNamara should be condemned, my reply is, all right, we will condemn the McNamaras; we will also condemn the Carnegies. If a man says to me that the Iron Workers' Union should be condemned, I say, all right; we will also condemn the steel trust. If they say we want light, we want justice; all right, light up the iron workers and light up the steel trust—light up labor and light up capital. Put on the searchlight for both parties, and we are willing that our sins shall be compared with their sins."

In spite of Johannsen's inaccuracy—for, while there is a large element of truth in his statement, his figures are wrong—he brings out how in the minds of the iron workers there was the fear of the loss of their eight-hour day and of the good wages now prevailing, fear of the helplessness that they have seen is the lot of the unorganized steel workers.

That would not lead the public to tolerate their placing bombs under bridges; but it does show that this dynamite campaign has been part of a larger struggle. It is one of the most sinister manifestations of that struggle. Nevertheless it is a part of it, and we must not think that the matter is settled when we have the dynamiters in jail. The court can perform its necessary function, but after the men have been tried and sentenced what about the causes that make dynamiters?

The utter inability of a criminal court to deal with these larger aspects of the problem—the incapacity of the tribunal in this particular case to understand them and the danger lest its procedure of punishing reckless passengers should lend itself wholly to the uses of one party in the industrial conflict—was shown in one significant fact that came under my observation. In his closing remarks to the jury, Senator Kern charged the prosecution with having turned the

letter files of the union over to Erectors' Association detectives. This angered District Attorney Miller. "I would like to see the man," he shouted to the jury as he began his closing argument, "who would declare that the letters and papers were put into the hands of or in charge of a detective of the Erectors' Association after they came into the custody of the district attorney."

If the district attorney had said "representative" instead of detective, his question might have been answered. I do not know whether J. A. G. Badorf considers himself a detective or not, but before I went to Indianapolis I learned from the headquarters of the National Erectors' Association in New York that that was the name of their representative in Indianapolis, and that his address was 202 Federal Building. When I arrived in Indianapolis I found that 202 Federal Building was the office of the United States district attorney. Only the day before this statement of Mr. Miller, Mr. Badorf had taken me into a carefully guarded room in the Federal Building. The guards smiled and made way for us, and he showed me in that room the various exhibits of the government, including hotel registers, infernal machines, the nitro-glycerine carrying case, the books of cancelled checks of the union, *and the files of letters taken from the Iron Workers' offices.* At another time, when I had a talk with Mr. Badorf, he came out of that room to see me and returned to it again when we were through with our conversation. In view of his easy access to the exhibits it seemed to me that whether or not he had charge of them was a mere quibble.

But if he had, what then? It must be remembered that the Erectors' Association has been active for years in another direction than that of apprehending criminals. It exists for the purpose of smashing a labor union. In the steel industry proper for men even to meet together means discharge. The structural trade has not swung that far toward domination by the employer. Men with union cards, who stay quiescent, work alongside the others in its open shop work. But the impropriety of permitting an agent of the Erectors' Association to have access to the 60,000 or so letters, of which evidently the vast majority had to do with the legitimate activities of the union, since only a few hundred were used in the trial, ought to be obvious to any one.

For it must be remembered that there are 12,000 members of the Structural Iron Workers' Union. There was no evidence brought out at the trial to show that the overwhelming majority of these workers had any more direct responsibility for the dynamiting than, say, the policyholders of the mutual insurance companies bore to the offi-



cial acts which were the subject of the Hughes investigation. And it is the association of these 12,000 men that the Erectors would destroy.

To permit this employers' organization to have free access to the records of the union showed either that the district attorney and the judge had no appreciation of the economic struggle that has been going on for ages, or that they did recognize it and desired to put ammunition in the employers' hands. I prefer to believe the former.

But, either way, what a light it throws on the machinery upon which we still rely for bringing justice into industrial as well as civil relations. As Judge Anderson said, the union was not on trial. Even if this unnecessary misuse of the union itself had been avoided, it was beyond the power of this criminal court to clear up the deeper problems of justice between employer and employee.

That is a larger problem than dynamiting, and it can never be settled by a court or any number of courts, or by any body other than all the people. The people must co-operate for justice all along the line. We must stop the lawbreakers. If necessary, we must put them in jail. But if we do no more than that, we shall have gone no farther toward stamping out wrong and injustice than the doctors would toward eradicating disease if they contented themselves with sending their patients to the pest-house.

The science of criminology aims to discover the causes of crime. It is a valuable and respected science. The average citizen has more in common with the criminologist than he has with the trial court judge. His mental jurisdiction is not limited. A civilized people cannot regard and treat all crimes as individual acts, and never seek to find the causes of crime committed through mass or group action. I have no patience to discuss the question with those who claim recently to have discovered that the causes of crimes of violence in labor disputes ought not to be studied or talked about. If the wrongdoing of capital has been a contributing cause it ought to be known; now, of all times, when the red

herring of labor crime is being so assiduously applied to the trail.

We need to know more of the very things with regard to which the Indianapolis trial has left us so much in the dark—the terms between man and man in industry—between a democratic people and the corporations whose jobs mean livelihood. The Indianapolis trial shows us the failure of a criminal court to supply us with such information at a critical juncture.

My particular criticism of that tribunal is that through one ruling it permitted the prosecution to bring into the record its whole exhibit of the crimes of violence, for which the men were not on trial, while through other rulings it prevented the attorneys for the accused men from introducing such evidence as would have been admissible had they been on trial for those crimes of violence.

Even so, a great public service was performed by prosecution and court. For, when the state and local authorities weakly and shamefully neglected to interfere in a campaign of violence which led inevitably to bloodshed, the United States authorities, through the halting medium of a law designed only to protect the traveling public from ignorant carelessness, uncovered the conspiracy and punished the conspirators.

But the very competence of this criminal court to do this thing shows by contrast the ineffectiveness of any agency we now have to get at an understanding of the facts and forces of the economic struggle which lay back of that conspiracy. This very lack is what gave occasion to the movement for a Commission on Industrial Relations which would take up the larger aspects in ways commensurate with their importance and with their neglect. The Indianapolis trial has thrown this need into bolder relief.

For one other thing the trial accomplished. It showed unmistakably that there is a disease in the land. It did not fully reveal its nature, and it showed only one aspect of its ravages. There is another aspect. We shall not be free from its pestilential advance until we shall have found the source of it and made it clean. And that is the real lesson of the dynamite case.



# SOCIAL WORKERS AND LABOR VIOLENCE

FABIAN FRANKLIN

[At the request of THE SURVEY, Mr. Franklin sets forth in a single article views that have been expressed by the New York "Evening Post" in its editorial columns on various occasions. The Indianapolis convictions seemed to offer an exceptional text for bringing them together, so that social workers might have the preaching as a whole before them. Mr. Franklin has been associate editor of the "Evening Post" since 1909, and was editor of the Baltimore "News" from 1905 to 1908. Previous to that he was professor of mathematics at Johns Hopkins University, but had also frequently written on economic and political subjects.—Ed.]

THE exposure of the McNamara dynamitings a year ago brought out a great explosion of feeling on all sides. The conviction of thirty-eight labor men by the promptly unanimous verdict of the Indianapolis jury the other day was an event fully as extraordinary, and yet it has been received with a tranquillity in striking contrast to the agitated emotions of a twelve-month ago. That the effect of the convictions will none the less be profound and lasting is unquestionable. Precisely what that effect will be upon the trade unions themselves time alone can tell; but there ought to be no doubt of the impression which it should make in the ranks of social workers and among sober leaders of humanitarian opinion. Surely this outcome of a most extraordinary case is of sufficiently striking character to deserve the most serious attention of such men and women, and to cause them to ponder well the question of their own duty in the face of that ever-recurring issue of which these dynamitings furnish merely an unusually conspicuous illustration.

The attitude of social workers and other sympathizers with organized labor toward the question of strike violence has of course, except in the case of avowed advocates of a revolutionary program, never been that of explicit approval. In the case of a large, perhaps a predominant, portion of this body, however, condemnation of such violence has been rare, and what little there has been has been distinctly perfunctory. The explanation of this phenomenon is doubtless of a two-fold character. Sympathy with the hardships of the workers, and even resentment at the shortcomings or the inhumanity of employers, would not of themselves have sufficed to make an attitude very like acquiescence in crime comfortable to these men and women. If they had been insistently confronted again and again with a clear and undeniable identification of the strike with the crime, they would have been bound to face the issue, and there can hardly be a doubt of the position they would have felt compelled to adopt concerning it. But they have formed the habit of

taking refuge in the obscurity in which the facts in any given case are enveloped; and although decades of experience, and hundreds upon hundreds of strikes sustained by violence, have furnished cumulative evidence of the true state of the case, they seem to have felt themselves absolved from the duty of speaking out on it in a way befitting the gravity of the issue.

The Indianapolis convictions tell us nothing especially new; what they do accomplish is to remove such little excuse as may have heretofore existed for this know-nothing attitude. The customary position of labor leaders, when violence occurs in connection with a strike, is that the violence is done by irresponsible persons and that to hold organized labor responsible for it is a gross injustice. In this very matter of the dynamitings, this was the position taken, first in reference to the McNamaras and then in regard to all the labor leaders except the McNamaras. The verdict of the jury has done away with all that. But in a thousand other cases what may not be susceptible of legal proof is sufficiently evident to any man of common sense. The responsibility of the union for violence may be infinitely less deliberate, and may indeed consist simply in refusal to discourage or discountenance lawlessness, but the responsibility is none the less real. Henry White, formerly president of the Garment Workers' Union of the American Federation of Labor, writing in the *World's Work* from extensive experience, says:

"Responsibility for disorder I put on the leaders. It was my observation that violence could be stopped when the officials really wanted it stopped; but such instances were exceedingly rare, so rare as to be worthy of public notice. Yet it was the leaders' habit loudly to disclaim sympathy with disorder and especially at respectable gatherings. I never knew such disclaimers to be accompanied by the disciplining of followers for beating scabs. On the contrary, when arrested, these members were always defended by the union's counsel and, when convicted, the fines were paid and every effort, political and otherwise, was made to save them from punishment. It was highly important that 'martyred'



brothers be protected. Expenditures for such purposes were a heavy drain upon local treasuries, and not infrequently the national union office was asked to contribute. A class of lawyers grew up that specialized in defending assault cases for the unions, and it was well known that one duty of these practitioners was to advise clients how 'entertainment committees' could operate with the least risk."

This, to be sure, is only a bit of reminiscent writing, but does anyone seriously doubt its truth? And occasionally there comes a naïve confession in the very midst of a strike, and almost in the same breath with an indignant protest against the interference of the officials of the law. "You can say for our council," said Mr. Ashton, the leader of the garbage men's strike in New York in November, 1911, "that if there is a disposition to credit the cessation of rioting to the use of police clubs, the public is fooled. Rioting has stopped because our council has ordered it stopped to show that we are law-abiding citizens." And yet this same leader was complaining that "the whole power of the police is employed against us," and doubtless many well-meaning men and women regarded this as a cruel hardship.

Nor is silence the only offence with which many of these good people may be charged. Having shut their eyes to the lesser things that are going on all the time, they are apt to be thrown into a state of hysterical excitement when a great and spectacular crime on the part of organized labor is suddenly brought to view. This is what happened in the McNamara dynamitings. "The workers have been driven until at last even they are turned," exclaimed the secretary of an important association for labor betterment, writing in *THE SURVEY*'s symposium on the McNamara case. And he went on to talk as though labor violence were a new thing under the sun, and to predict that we were now going to have more and more of murder and arson unless we quickly mended our ways, using language so extreme and inflammatory that no labor man could read it without feeling that it justified every act of lawlessness which might be committed in the name of the cause.

This utterance, to be sure, was an extreme and not a typical one. But the idea that in point of fact labor violence had entered upon a new stage with the McNamara dynamitings, and that those responsible for them must be treated rather as a belligerent power than as individuals who had offended against the criminal law, was so widely expressed that we believe it is correct to say that it was the dominant note in philanthropic circles. And yet the Molly Maguires, the railroad strike of 1877, the affair of the Chicago Anarchists, and the 1894 trouble, which

seemed to portend almost a civil war, are not so far back in the past as to excuse serious persons for being swept completely off their feet by the fact that a series of structural steel dynamitings had been planned and executed by a set of labor-union conspirators.

There is one more count in the indictment which can hardly be omitted. Not content with fighting shy of the issue as long as possible, nor with the magnification and distortion of it under the influence of sudden excitement when it is dramatically forced to the front, our humanitarians frequently indulge in a kind of comment which, so far as its practical effect upon the general mind is concerned, operates as a defence, or at least a very effective palliation, of labor violence. Perhaps the most effective possible way to dull the edge of indignation, to promote a feeling of tolerance for crime, is to point out that some other thing which is not branded as crime is, either in point of moral baseness or in point of aggregate evil effect, worse than the crime under consideration. One of the clearest-headed of our moral teachers, while emphatically declaring that the dynamitings were "not war but murder," so far yielded to the prevailing weakness as to dwell on the fact that "the number of lives blotted out in mines by the criminal carelessness of capital is far greater than the number of deaths from the placing of dynamite bombs," and that "the railroads every year are killing people whose lives would be spared by expenditures for safety devices." The thing is true enough, but the very time *not* to say it is the time when enemies of law and order have flung down such a challenge to the sober citizenship of the country as that of the McNamara dynamitings. We have got to do all we can to stop the sacrifice of lives in mines and on railroads and in factories—yes, and in kitchens and nurseries and school rooms, for that matter. But these are tasks for the steady work of reformers and legislators and administrators and scientists, part of the uphill work which mankind has been doing for ages and will have still to do for ages yet to come. To class this kind of thing with the upholding of those primal laws on which the safety of society absolutely rests, and has always been acknowledged to rest, is a most dangerous darkening of counsel.

That opponents of labor unions are guilty of faults equal to those that can be charged against their advocates I would not for a moment deny. There are those who are blind to the sins of capitalists and who are swift to cover with indiscriminate condemnation everything that emanates from the labor side. There is abundance of wild and intolerant language in



capitalist organs. But surely no man or woman enlisted in the work of social betterment can regard unfairness or extravagance or blindness on the part of "reactionaries" as in the least justifying the commission of like faults by themselves.

It is impossible to deal frankly with the situation without taking into account another factor in its psychology. There is a consideration in the case which puts a severe strain on the loyalty of many persons to the cause of law and order, though they would hardly acknowledge so much even to themselves. This consists in the notion that after all it is only with the aid of violence that the grievances of the workers can actually be redressed. That the immediate facts of many individual strikes lend support to this belief it would be idle to deny. But upon those who with serious mind are working for substantial and lasting benefit to the masses of mankind rests the duty of taking a longer view—of looking not to immediate and superficial results in isolated cases, but to the enduring effects of any policy or course of conduct. Every victory won for labor by means of violence is won at a cost not only to society at large but to the cause of labor itself, which ought to be evident to any sober thinker. Within the ranks of the labor organizations it is sure to strengthen the hold of the less sagacious, as well as the baser, elements in their composition. Upon the outside public it has the effect of associating the endeavors of organized labor with acts and purposes intensely abhorrent to the most solid elements in the community. No one can estimate in what measure the growth of a public sentiment friendly to the aspirations of the working people for every kind of betterment in their condition has been retarded by this instinctive association of the idea of unionism with the idea of violence. And it must be a very unimaginative person indeed who should venture to assign a limit to what might have been accomplished by the pressure of public sentiment had its growth not been thus retarded. What is thought on this subject by the ablest and most devoted champions of the cause of the working people may be judged from this passage on the relation between trade unionism and violence in Sidney and Beatrice Webb's *Industrial Democracy* (1897):

"But the whole controversy as to violence and intimidation, in connection with trade unionism, has really passed out of date. The serious crimes which disgraced the workmen's combinations in Dublin and Glasgow at the beginning of this century, and which lasted in Sheffield down to 1867, have been for many years entirely unknown. Individual workmen still commit assaults when their blood

is up, in connection with trade union as with all other disputes. So far as trade unionism itself is concerned, we do not think that any fair-minded student would hesitate to conclude that, especially for the last thirty years, so far from inciting to or causing crime, it has exercised a wonderful restraining influence. The more strongly organized is the union, the more efficacious is this influence for peace. The most powerful unions of the present day, the most exacting in their demands on the employers, have gone a stage further, and have laid aside the whole system of picketing, with its intangible annoyance and easy transition into breaches of public order. In the great five months' strike of the cotton-spinners in 1893, and in the gigantic stoppage of the Miners' Federation in 1894, practically no pickets were posted or needed. 'It is not worth the risk, trouble, or expense,' writes a leading trade union official, 'of resorting to the practice. . . . Every wage-earner is able to read and write, and discern the difference between right and wrong; and with the assistance of the public press a full knowledge can be gained as to the reasons why a strike takes place. Hence no one is required to hang about a workshop where a strike is going on for the supposed purpose of giving information to persons who may desire to apply for work on the employer's conditions'."

And in our day there is less excuse than ever either for violence or the countenancing of violence, since the extraordinary increase in the number of men and women of the well-to-do classes who are devoted to the work of social betterment makes possible a far more effective appeal to the sentiment of the community, and even to its material support, than was ever the case in former times.

The sympathy of these men and women, their readiness for self-sacrificing effort, the value of their support and assistance, are well understood and prized by the labor people. They are accordingly able to exercise great influence on the course of events, and upon them rests a corresponding responsibility to use that influence to the best possible purpose. Let them make it plain that the sympathy which they are so ready to give is absolutely conditioned on the law-abidingness of those to whom it is extended. Protest and warning from such friends would be more efficient to prevent lawlessness than any amount of condemnation and menace from those whom labor people look upon as hostile or at best indifferent. Such a position unmistakably taken and firmly adhered to by workers for economic reform and social betterment would immeasurably strengthen the hands of the best elements within the unions, and could not fail gradually to build up a consistent policy of law-abiding endeavor, in place of that all-but-avowed alliance between lawful effort and



infamous criminality which has formed so conspicuous a part of the history of organized labor in this country.

Surely the time has come for deliberately and manfully making choice between this clear-cut, humane, and far-seeing policy and continuing in the nondescript course that has hitherto been followed. Instead of either ignoring, or evading, or beclouding the issue, let it be squarely faced. The simple responsibility of loyal upholding of the law, taken in itself, should surely be felt by these men and women in at least as high a degree as it is by good citizens generally. But if this be insufficient to key them up to the required point, a just consideration of the interests for which they are most concerned should impress this duty upon their hearts and minds. Let them consider the splendid opportunity which the coming years open up for them if they will but steadily keep their endeavors upon that high plane on which they ought to rest. Let it be known to labor men

and to the general public alike that these workers are not only animated by high and unselfish purpose, but are controlled by firm and sober thought. Let it be known that they will not rashly countenance every strike, but will duly judge of its justification and expediency. Above all, let it be known that they will under no circumstances give countenance to violence, but on the contrary will sternly visit upon it the penalty not only of condemnation in words, but of withdrawal of their sympathy and support from the contest in which it is enlisted. What a vista of steadily growing power and influence the adoption of such an attitude would open up—influence to restrain evil tendencies in the unions; power to impress the public at large in a way that is impossible so long as they lie under the imputation of a weak emotionalism; and, last but not least, the consciousness of playing a truly great, because a strong and consistent, part in the world's struggle with one of its largest and most difficult problems.

## A. F. OF L. AND THE IRON WORKERS

SAMUEL GOMPERS

*[On Monday, January 6, Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, appeared before the sub-committee of the United States Senate which is considering the Clayton anti-injunction bill, and made a statement of the attitude of his organization toward the convicted members of the Structural Iron Workers' Union. The following is a condensation of his remarks, taken from the A. F. of L. Weekly News Letter.—Ed.]*

**W**ITH the understanding mind and the spirit taught by the teacher of old who said, 'Let him who is without sin cast the first stone,' I would have you consider these men now pilloried by public opinion and adjudged by the court guilty of crimes against society and humanity. I would have you ponder how it is said that among people professing to believe in the brotherhood of man and the gospel of love, men, American citizens, came to look upon violence, dynamite, terror, as the only defense left them against the grinding, conscienceless tyranny of those controlling hours, wages, and conditions of work. That is a terrible charge against society.

"There are many ready to heap upon the structural iron workers, not alone the men adjudged guilty but every member of their union, condemnation and humiliation; many ready to wrap the robes of saintly justice tightly about them, lest contact defile them; ready to withdraw from these men every good and uplifting influence and to cast them out to the mercy of whatever interest might profit by their helplessness.

"And as to these who counsel harshness and deny mercy—are they the men who have fought the fight in the world of men and conquered without blemish to themselves? Are they men who know the world of work and toil, who have

felt or know the powers pitted against the weaker elements, who have felt or know the cruelty and heartlessness of the world of profits, where men succeed by climbing over and standing upon those they have struck down and defeated? Do these self-appointed censors, so positive and assured of their own virtue that they hesitate not to judge fellow-men, really know this world of toil and fight; have they themselves been a part of it and prevailed over it?

"These men who are accused of doing these grievous wrongs, of waging a warfare dishonorable and reprehensible, thereby inflicting upon all the workers trouble and heartaches—what manner of men are they, and what is their life? Turn to the great cities whose growth has been one of the striking characteristics of the past sixty years. In those cities marvelous structures seem to stretch upward, almost touching the cloudland, expressing the infinite ambition of men—structures overwhelming, well-nigh unbelievable in conception and execution, reaching upward twenty, thirty—yea, more than fifty—stories, and downward into the depths of the earth. Or turn to the mighty, yet exquisitely delicate, structures spanning rivers and chasms, that the forces of civilization may conquer every barrier—the bridges, the great engineering achievements in the heart of civilization or in the lone places of the earth. Watch one of these



constructions in the process of erection—the iron skeleton as it rises skyward, the frame about which building materials are to be gathered and fashioned. As the girders and separate pieces are lifted into position, watch the workers moving along narrow places, boldly poised on perilous, dangerous heights, securing bolts and rivets. Watch the human worker as he stands on an iron skeleton of a building thirty stories up from the earth's security and he lifts his head upward—there is nothing between him and the vast, bare expanse of the heavens. As he looks out upon the city, the handiwork of his craft and his fellow-workmen, and down, down into the narrow passageways below, there tiny, specklike men scurry to and fro like ants occupied with little plans and business. Then ponder well—what manner of man is this builder of our modern civilization? He lives a bold, open life; his very breath is danger and conquest.

\* \* \* \* \*

["Officers in various corporations which alone (the American Bridge Company) were unable to destroy the organization of these workers banded themselves together as the National Erectors' Association, and under the banner of the most implacable of labor's foes, the National Manufacturers' Association, and backed by the United States Steel Corporation, declared war to a finish upon the Structural Iron Workers' Union of America."]

"For six years the fight went on. All of the forces of organized society were used against these men; subtle minds were scheming and plotting that legal authority and practice might aid in the breaking of these men. You say that these men resorted to forbidden methods of violence, and even sacrificed lives. You condemn their methods of fighting as elemental, brutal. Of any of those who are guilty, the condemnation is true; but I ask you, were the methods used by the employers less deadly to humanity and freedom? Do you think that one side can play with the forces of injustice and tyranny and not lead to a defensive move on the part of the other? Each will protect his own interests—would anybody else do that for him? Indeed, our very social organization seems to be on trial. And how little does society understand. Even the judge who tried the case, smugly assured of personal irresponsibility, fatuously declared that—

"The evidence in this case will convince any impartial person that government by injunction is infinitely to be preferred to government by dynamite."

"The worthy judge had blindly chanced upon one of the causes, but had failed to realize causal relationship. The words to him were simply a conventional epigram. He does not know that there is a law of life just as immutable as the law of gravitation; of attraction and repulsion; a law of life which meets tyranny and injustice by resistance. The inaptness—aye, the unwarrantable character of this utterance of the judge—discloses how far afield outside of the case he went to take another slap at labor. If ever the time

shall come (and let us hope and work that it never shall come) when government by dynamite shall be attempted, it will have as its main cause the theory and policy upon which is based government by injunction—personal government foisted upon our people instead of a government by law.

"Just what is the social interpretation of the alleged crimes, the trial, and the conviction? Whether or not there was a conspiracy to do violence by some labor men, is there any doubt that there was a conspiracy by 'big business' to disrupt organized labor? Concede, for the sake of the argument, that the convicted men are guilty—and I earnestly trust that their appeals may be successful and upon a new trial their innocence may be demonstrated—but are the monster industrial corporations and hostile employers' associations guiltless of conspiracy to destroy the labor organizations, thereby rendering the workers helpless to the death-grinding process in which so many industries abound? Let me read you a resolution passed by the United States Steel Corporation's executive committee on June 17, 1901, six weeks after that corporation was organized, and which the president of that corporation was instructed to instruct the presidents of subsidiary companies to enforce. It is as follows:

"That we are unalterably opposed to any extension of union labor, and advise subsidiary companies to take firm position when these questions come up, and say that they are not going to recognize it—that is, any extension of unions in mills where they do not now exist—that great care should be used to prevent trouble, and that they promptly report and confer with this corporation."

\* \* \* \* \*

"Will organized labor repudiate the Structural Iron Workers' Unions and leave them helpless and at the mercy of organized capital and insatiable, uncurbed greed for profits? Such a course might win the praise of the pharisaical and unmerciful good, but those with the love of humanity in their hearts will join in the pledge to sustain and strengthen the Bridge and Structural Iron Workers' Unions.

"Men cannot hold a place of responsibility and trust; men cannot be in positions to exert great influence for the welfare of those intrusted to their keeping without incurring opposition and encountering temptations to betray the trust. But the man who would neglect, pervert, or betray; who would do aught but give the best that is in him to protect and advance the rights and interests intrusted to him, in order to secure his own ease, protection, and advancement, is unworthy of confidence or respect. Though detectives may hound us, though threats be hurled at us, though charges and insinuations assail us from all sides, yet will we fight on for the liberty and betterment of those who do the world's work, and pay the price of our civilization with their blood and bodies—yea, verily, with their very souls. Men who would ease the



*weltschmerz* must not fear criticism and opposition, prosecution or persecution.

"Though all censure those whom men may deem guilty of dynamite conspiracy, none feel the terrible consequences of the Indianapolis trial more keenly than the men of organized labor. There have been added heartache and sorrow to our already heavy burdens. The men accused and sentenced cannot suffer the penalties alone—upon them and all workingmen fall the suffering and penalty. But what of the conspiracy of organized capital—the conspiracy to murder the liberty of the toilers, to tear from them the means of protection by which they have bettered their condition, to leave them bare and defenseless in the competitive struggle? Is

not such a conspiracy sufficiently dastardly to incur some odium? Should the conspirators, with their hands stained with life blood of men's ambition, happiness, liberty, be accorded nothing but honor, power, respectability? Should they be allowed to continue to manipulate the powers of government, the administration of justice until the oppressed find the burden intolerable? More wise it is to seek social justice while yet we may. The judge who presided at the trial realized one of the issues—government by injunction, lawless, autocratic, irresponsible exercise of governmental authority, according privileges to the strong and denying justice to the weak."

## THE PARTING OF THE WAYS IN AMERICAN SOCIALISM

MARY BROWN SUMNER

*[This is the first interpretation, outside of the party periodicals, of the struggle now at its height, between the dominant element of the American Socialists and the insurgent industrialist wing. The writer is an industrial Socialist, and while giving a fair analysis of the points in controversy, endeavors to set forth the less understood program of the newer group. Their direct and widest appeal is to the unrest which is astir among common labor throughout the world; and however one may regard their revolutionary philosophy or their fighting tactics, it would be a dull observer who failed to see that this ferment in the lower levels of industry is bound to affect not only the Socialist Party and the old line trade unions, but the structure of civil society itself, by shifting to a greater or less extent from geographical divisions to those of industry.—Ed.]*

WITH the Socialists alone of political parties the recall is a reality. The present month they are torn in a bitter struggle over its application to William D. Haywood, a member of the national executive committee.

Any three state committees of the Socialist Party can cause a referendum to be taken to the full party membership if they believe that a national official has failed to support the principles of Socialism. In Haywood's case the recall was initiated December 14 by local New York, which at the same time recommended to the Denver local of which he is a member his expulsion from the party. The referendum was called for by New York, New Jersey and the District of Columbia. The voting will be closed February 12.

This action directed against the fighting leader of the "industrial Socialists" in the United States brings to a head efforts which have been made for some time past to suppress an insurgent movement in the Socialist ranks. It is an exemplification in America of the lack of harmony observed in many countries between, on the one hand, the international Socialist movement, which in its political campaign has tended to pin its faith to the ballot box, and, on

the other hand, growing labor groups which, with the mass strike and other class conscious tactics, would promote revolution through the work shop.

England, France, Spain, Italy and America have each, in the last few years, shown signs of this movement, which has been called by its exponents the "coming of age" of labor, on the ground that it is an uprising not of leaders but of the masses thinking for themselves. The bearing of the Socialist Party toward it has been commented on by such observers of social phenomena as Werner Sombart, Gilbert K. Chesterton and Hilaire Belloc. Within the party membership the Hungarian, Odon Porri, writes of it as follows:

"The new class consciousness of the workers . . . is eager to manifest itself, and wants to enlarge the activities of the Socialist movement. This movement has done its part to bring this about by education, but the traditional methods of Socialist parties are in conflict with the new methods of the workers."

In every country some members have left the party for this reason, and in every country also, a minority within the party has fought for the new tactics.



*Industrialism in America*

In America, the struggle has centered about William D. Haywood, and there are chapters in his experience which throw light quite as much on why revolutionary industrialism has found soil and spread in the New World, as on why this transplanted New Englander, a pioneer with generations of pioneers behind him, came to be its leader. To the general public Haywood is widest known in connection with his trial and acquittal in 1906, together with Moyer and Pettibone, for the murder of Ex-governor Steunenberg, following the labor war in Colorado. What is of more significance in an understanding of the philosophy of the present struggle in the Socialist Party is the fact that the Western Federation of Miners, of which Haywood was secretary, was the earliest and most formidable of the industrial unions we have had in America; and the added fact that he is a pioneer member of the Industrial Workers of the World. This body, since its organization in the Middle West in 1905, has represented the same causes and has carried them east and west to the coasts.

The trend toward industrial organization is natural in the mining regions, where the whole life of a community is bound up in the one occupation. Even in the anthracite districts all the men in the pit, skilled and unskilled alike, are organized together. The western miners made mass unionism, class unionism; and avowed economic revolution as their goal. They saw more chance for controlling their own lives through acting together as organized laborers than as citizens. The I. W. W. has spread largely among groups who have still less of a foothold in political life—the migratory voters: lumbermen and railroad construction gangs of the Northwest, the disfranchised Negro timbermen of Louisiana, unnaturalized immigrants and voteless women and children of the textile districts.

It is to the lower levels of all industries that industrial unionism makes its appeal, to common laborers who have been left to sink or swim by the old craft organizations, but whose numbers have been swelled to an unheard-of bulk by the introduction of machinery and through immigration. In certain organizations, such as the United Brewery Workers and the United Mine Workers, the form of union has responded to this changed situation; all men in the trade have been admitted to a common membership. At the recent Rochester convention there was a determined effort by a minority composed both of Socialists and non-Socialists to spread this scheme of organization to other fields.

The program of the I. W. W. is, however, not one of form merely. It aims at a larger unit than the single industry. In its class warfare it uses sabotage as well as the mass strike, and refuses to countenance time contracts—which will bind the workers from striking again and again—or any of the other conservative methods in dealing with employers which are accepted by craft and industrial unions alike in the American Federation of Labor. In the industrial field it long since incurred the enmity of that organization. It has now come in the person of Haywood to a clash with the dominant element in the organized movement which, in the political field, is striving to accomplish the same



*Courtesy of the Metropolitan*

WILLIAM D. HAYWOOD

revolutionary purpose as itself.

During his connection with the Western Federation, Haywood joined the Socialist Party and attempted, according to a former secretary of the Colorado state committee, to organize it along the lines he had found effective in his union. In 1911 he was elected a member of the national executive committee of the Socialist Party. It is significant that while the effort is on to oust him from his standing in that party, for what are regarded as "industrialist heresies," among the voteless majority in the I. W. W. he is regarded as conservative for retaining his membership in the Socialist Party.



### *The Charges Against Haywood*

The specific charge on which Haywood's recall and expulsion from the Socialist Party were recommended on December 14 was that in a speech delivered in New York on December 1 (it was at a mass meeting for Ettor and Giovannitti following their acquittal at Salem)—he repudiated political action and advocated sabotage in violation of Article II, Section VI of the party constitution.

His advocacy of sabotage was in so many words.

His repudiation of political action is assumed from his statement:

"I have never asked a worker for his vote—particularly women, children, the disfranchised and the foreign-speaking workers. Instead I have taught them the class struggle."

At another meeting, later in the same week, and before the charges were filed, Haywood said: "I do believe in political action, because it gives us control of the policeman's club." In answer to a question, he added that political action was of great educational value to the workers. In making the charges of December 14, these later statements in support of political action were entirely disregarded.

To understand the case against Haywood, it is necessary to go back over the steps of a controversy which began with a discussion of tactics and has led into the basic principles of social revolution. In the fall of 1911 Morris Hillquit, member of the national executive committee, and recognized leader of the majority group, the so-called "political actionists" in the party, criticized the tactics advocated by Haywood in the following passage in his pamphlet on Industrial Socialism:

"When the worker, either through experience or the study of Socialism, comes to know this truth (the economic foundation of modern ethics and jurisprudence) he acts accordingly. He retains absolutely no respect for the property 'rights' of the profit takers. He will use every weapon which will win his fight. He knows that the present laws of property are made by and for the capitalists. Therefore, he does not hesitate to break them. He knows that whatever action advances the interests of the working class is right because it will save the workers from destruction and death. A knowledge of economic determinism places the worker squarely on his intellectual feet, and makes him bold and independent of mind."

This outline of the workers' attitude toward capitalist law Hillquit maintained to be diametrically opposed to the accepted policies of Socialism. Said Hillquit:

"Socialists do not advocate law breaking or the use of 'any' weapons in the working-class struggles. We maintain that modern law is in

the main class law, capitalist law made to enslave the workers, and we urge a complete change of the juridical system along the lines of the Socialist program. But we advocate the introduction of such change by the regular and lawful methods established for the purpose. To preach to the workers violence and law breaking is ethically unjustifiable and tactically suicidal. The laws of political democracies, in the last analysis, always represent the will of the majority of the people. The remedy of the minority aggrieved by the law is to convert their fellow citizens to their views—to turn their minority into a majority and thus get possession of the legislative machinery for the interests and policies represented by them. Whenever we obtain control of the legislative machinery of the government, we will exact obedience to our laws upon the same grounds upon which we now yield obedience to capitalist laws."

This orderly conduct of the class struggle without infringement of the law has been, Hillquit maintained, the policy of the international Socialist movement since its inception. The tactics advocated by Haywood were, in his estimation, the use of crime and violence. He modified his statement in regard to the orderly legislative methods by which Socialism could be furthered, however, by saying:

"It is not impossible that before we reach the final stage an attempt will be made by the ruling classes to frustrate our victory by force—in that case we will fight like tigers, and mount the barricades, if need be. But then we will be fighting not as a mob of lawbreakers, but against such a mob."

As this question of tactics comes up later on in the dispute in more detail, the statements of the two divergent schools of thought can be left to speak for themselves for the present.

### *Socialism and Labor*

It was at this juncture that Haywood accepted nomination to the national executive committee of the Socialist Party and published a letter in the *Call* which contained a statement of his beliefs in regard to the proper relation between Socialism and labor.

It should be known that the party has laid down a so-called neutrality principle to the effect that, while assisting the workers in all their industrial struggles, it would refrain from participating in, or in any way interfering with, the internal affairs of the labor unions, and further that it would preserve an impartial attitude toward rival labor organizations. In spite of the statement of neutrality, it was well recognized that while all Socialists believe in theory that organization by industries is the only form fitted to modern industrial conditions, the political actionists have favored active co-operation with craft unions for purposes



of vote getting, and claimed that by continuing their method of "boring from within," they could also ultimately remold them into the industrial form. Thus it has been that while Samuel Gompers and other prominent union officials have attacked Socialism, Victor Berger, a political actionist, long since became the leader of a growing minority of Socialists in the American Federation of Labor.

With the rise of the I. W. W. the industrial Socialists just as frankly stood for co-operation with the new organization and this not only on the ground that the majority of the craft unions have no place for the craftless, unskilled workers who make up nine-tenths of the wage-earners. They held furthermore that the craft unions are in effect undemocratic and are often in the control of conservative or corrupt leaders who would stand in the way of their remolding; and that even in those cases where industrialism could be introduced, it would be a matter of the form of single industries alone. The unions would have neither the spirit nor the form of revolutionary organizations of the whole working class.<sup>1</sup>

But the divergence in the two conceptions reaches even deeper. To the political Socialists, the form of the unions is comparatively insignificant, as they believe them to be mere temporary bodies which will pass out of existence with the coming of the co-operative commonwealth. To the industrialists on the other hand, unions of the mass of the workers organized like the I. W. W. not only present the most effective engines for the class struggle today, but they are conceived of as the component parts in building the industrial commonwealth of the future. In their view, therefore, if either the form, the framework, or the spirit of the older unions remained, the coming of Socialism would be impeded.

### *A New World Development*

Some French syndicalists have held that the craft form of their organizations is an impediment, but for the most part in European countries at the present time it has been thought possible to attain revolutionary class solidarity in the industrial field through the existing craft unions. This attitude of the American industrial Socialists, therefore, is a distinctive New World development.

In his letter of acceptance, Haywood put their challenge. He charged that the party had not observed its professed neutrality and that there were "members vigorous in their efforts to co-operate with the decadent craft unions." He continued:

<sup>1</sup>The two concepts may be distinguished by the terms industrial unionism and revolutionary industrial or revolutionary class unionism.

"The Socialist Party being a working class organization, it is my belief that our purpose will never be fully achieved until we carry to the working class the message of industrial unionism, which means that the productive workers shall be organized as the capitalists have assembled them in the industries. Therefore, the work of the national committee and the national executive committee of the Socialist Party should include the education of the working class to the end of industrial as well as political solidarity."

In spite of this outspoken statement of his views on the relations of Socialism to trade unionism, Haywood was elected to the national executive committee, his vote being next largest after that for Berger and Harriman in the vote for the seven members. It was larger than that for Hillquit, or Kate O'Hare or Irvine or Spargo.

In March, 1912, while Haywood was in charge of the Lawrence strike, the central committee of Local New York carried a resolution calling for his recall. The branches rescinded this action of their delegates, however, and the motion was withdrawn. The attack on industrialist tactics and theory was thus postponed.

It was felt that the great struggle at the presidential nominating convention in May would be upon the attitude of the party toward the labor movement, both with regard to party activity on the industrial field and to its neutrality toward the rival labor organizations.

Both groups were represented on the Committee on the Relations of Labor Organizations to the Socialist Party. To everyone's surprise a report was handed in by this committee espousing neither labor body to the exclusion of the other. This report was a change from those of former years, in that it gave up that part of the neutrality principle by which the party refrained from taking part in the internal affairs of the unions, and undertook a campaign to urge the unions to organize the unskilled workers and to throw their doors wide open by abolishing onerous conditions of membership and artificial restrictions. The struggle of the Socialists for an industrial form of organization at the recent convention of the American Federation of Labor<sup>1</sup> may be regarded as in part an outcome of this resolution. There is no doubt that it was the "menace of industrial Socialism" which caused the majority group to enlarge their activities to this extent in the industrial field.

Haywood congratulated the convention on the fact that he was by this report given the right to preach organization on the economic field from the platform of the Socialist Party. He was not, however, as the event showed, to have the right to preach the sort of industrial organization which he believed essential.

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, December 7, 1912, p. 271.



### *The Amendment and Those Back of It*

The report of this committee was followed by a direct attack by the convention on the revolutionary industrial unionism which he represented. The political Socialists wished to re-affirm their belief that Socialists should advocate in their struggles none but the orderly legal methods outlined in Hillquit's letter quoted above.

Therefore the following amendment to the constitution was introduced:

SEC. VI. Any member of the party who opposes political action or advocates crime, sabotage, or other methods of violence as a weapon of the working class to aid in its emancipation shall be expelled from membership in the party. Political action shall be construed to mean participation in elections for public office and practical legislative and administrative work along the lines of the Socialist Party platform.

This will be seen to do two things: it defined and sanctioned political action; it made a concrete statement of those extra-legal tactics which in the belief of the political actionists were meant by that passage in Haywood's pamphlet already quoted, in which he advocated "any and every means" as methods of warfare. These it banned. It was by the reference to sabotage, which the I. W. W. alone of the two groups of unions advocates, that the amendment made a specific attack on that organization.

The amendment was passed by a two-thirds vote of the convention, and subsequently by a two-thirds referendum vote of the party membership. Since the passage of the amendment, its opponents have attacked it, not only on the controversial grounds set forth in the succeeding pages, but on the ground of illegality, as both the amendment and a substitute were passed by a majority vote. Only one-fifth of the party membership took the trouble to vote on this important question.

The grounds of the two-thirds vote for the amendment are ably presented in the passage from Hillquit's letter (p. 625). In the opinion of those who voted for it, crime, violence and sabotage are ethically unsound and tactically suicidal. The ethical grounds on which the advocacy of crime and violence was opposed are obvious.

On the score of tactics the argument against them is well presented by a letter from the German Socialist, Karl Kautsky, based upon the experience of the German Social-Democratic movement. Reasoning from the other side of the water, and basing his argument on the statement of the case given him by the supporters of Section VI, he held that tactics such as those intended to be prohibited by that section, are calculated to exasperate the capitalist, and to in-

duce reprisals on such a scale and of such a nature as the party is at present incapable of resisting. Mere exasperative acts can, he held, do the party no good, but only lay it open to serious injury.

The one-third opposition to the amendment does not in reality measure the strength of the industrial Socialists. There were those, for example, who resented the assumption by the party of the right to dictate in matters outside its field. There was also that small following to whom the term "revolutionary political actionists" is sometimes applied, in contradistinction to the "evolutionary" or opportunist group represented by Hillquit. These came to the defense of the tactics, though they did not accept the whole social philosophy of the industrialists.

The opposition pointed out in the first place that many of the supporters of the amendment were careful to distinguish between "advocacy" and "use," thus, they said, practically acknowledging the use of the forbidden tactics in strikes but attempting to get out from under responsibility for them and conciliating middle-class public opinion at the expense of the workers. Practically all the weekly and monthly news periodicals throughout the country later congratulated the party on having attracted to itself the support of public opinion by taking this stand for law and order. The industrialists characterized Section VI as a vulgar bid for such public favor, and called its supporters the "Yellows," themselves the "Reds."

### *Crime*

The opposition objected also to the implication that either the Socialist Party or the labor movement had ever been law-abiding or peaceful movements. Crime, violence and sabotage were the three things tabooed by the amendment. The opposition contended that crime was by the common agreement of all lawyers and criminologists a purely technical classification, meaning the infringement of laws. Both Socialist and labor movements were, they held, born and nourished in crime, in view of the fact that laws had been made expressly to repress them and they had continued to exist only by the breaking of these laws. They instanced the early history of German Socialism, when the party thrived on laws designed to suppress it. They cited the use of local traffic ordinances in American cities today to keep Socialists as well as members of the I. W. W. from speaking on the streets—ordinances which had brought about not suppression, but vigorous free-speech fights. They pointed also to the disregard by the labor movement in the past of laws forbidding the organization of trade unions, to anti-boycott, and anti-picketing laws and the injunction. They held that in the case of all these and of other laws the attitude of



the labor movement toward their violation had never been to consider whether it was ethically justifiable, but whether it was tactically expedient. And they maintained that the history of the labor movement showed that its very existence depended on such law-breaking.

### *Violence*

Opposition to law frequently involves violence. Violence, in the ordinary sense of injury to human life, or wanton destruction, the industrialist does not advocate as a principle; but he does not repudiate the workers, whether of his own or any other group, when they use it in the imperfectly organized industrial struggle of today. To illustrate: the I. W. W. is at present engaged in the defense of a seaman, a member of an industrial union, who, during the strike of the Atlantic seaboard workers, shot a policeman in a street fight. It never repudiated the McNamaras and has criticized the attitude of the Socialist Party toward the structural iron workers on trial at Indianapolis. But in so doing it does not preach assassination or dynamiting.

By far the greater part of strike violence is not, the industrialist says, a matter of advocacy by any group of workers; it is what happens. It has been, and probably will be, an accompaniment of all labor struggles until the principle of solidarity is fully grasped. Until then, he will stand by the workers who take part in it, whether spontaneously or as part of strike tactics. He holds that the riots of the Belgian Socialists, which procured for them the first extension of the suffrage, and the food riots in Budapest, which caused the removal of some of the import taxes, go to show that as tactics today violence is not always "ruinously exasperative."

On the ethical side, the opposition held that as in ordinary warfare the ethical principle of patriotism supersedes that ethics which aims to prevent murder, so in the class war they believed that the ultimate object of the liberation of the workers—and with them the whole of humanity—supersedes any narrow moral obligation toward those who in their view are the enslavers of the workers. Following out further their analysis of the repressive nature of laws dealing with labor in its relation to capital, they held that since capitalist law is nothing but codified brute force, it will inevitably at times engender brute force on the workers' side. They pointed out in this connection Hillquit's willingness to mount the barricades to oppose one form of brute force, but this they held is an outworn view of the class war, as the struggle of today is no spectacular barricade fighting, but the running battle of the workshop.

### *Sabotage*

The two principal weapons which the industrialists look to in that battle are sabotage and the mass strike. These they speak of as the "new violence," and they are the only forms of violence which their philosophy advocates. "The solidarity of labor (the general strike)," says William E. Trautman,<sup>1</sup> one of the founders of the I. W. W., "is stronger than violence and makes destruction of life needless and useless."

Sabotage is a term so new in this country that few people know its meaning; so new even in Europe that it has been applied to all sorts of private acts of vengeance and destruction. It is to make their meaning clear that the French *Confédération-Générale*, in which the practice of sabotage is most developed, specifically exclude injury to persons in their definition of the word. In their philosophy sabotage is not murder. It is not the destruction of machinery. It is the organized hampering of production. This sabotage may accomplish in one of two ways: by the so-called "withdrawal of efficiency" or by the intermittent interference with work. This last would, for example, be practised by workers who quit their jobs for a while, then return to work till the plant is in normal working order, only to withdraw again without notice; repeating this at intervals until their object is attained. The "withdrawal of efficiency" is practised in several forms. One is the minute observance of rules—as is often done on the railroads of France, wreaking havoc with the time table—or the slow and meticulous carrying out of orders from overseers. It may take the form of seemingly inadvertent but persistent mistakes, the misdirecting of packages in the express service, the wrong mixing of materials in some other industry, or the addition of something that will spoil color or taste of the product and make it unsaleable. It may take the form of the removal of a bolt, or other essential part of a machine, so that it is temporarily useless.

Sabotage may be used not instead of, but in connection with the strike, as when miners persuade pump men and engineers to come out with them, and thus leave no force to prevent the flooding of the mines. It may be used again to redeem a lost strike, the strikers on going back to work making reprisals, if only by repeating the same bungling methods at their work as were used by inexperienced strike-breakers; or it may be used in cases where a strike is won if leaders are discriminated against, in order to procure their reinstatement. It is not part of the philosophy of sabotage that it shall be used for purposeless revenge. Destruction of property and

<sup>1</sup>Direct Action and Sabotage. By William E. Trautman. Socialist Publishing Company, Pittsburgh. Price 5 cents.



machinery such as occurred at the beginning of the Lawrence strike, which can only react on the worker by keeping him longer out of work, is specifically instanced by industrialists as characteristic of unorganized workers and in direct contrast to the purposeful methods of sabotage.

Sabotage is the industrialist's active weapon. The "folding of arms" in the general strike is his passive violence.

So, too, is the free speech fight, where inexhaustible armies of men "ride the rods" from end to end of the continent to take their places successively on the soap box, thence to be led to jail without resistance. No labor struggles have on the strikers' side been freer from violence in the ordinary sense than the Lawrence strike after the strikers came under the control of the I. W. W., or the San Diego free-speech fight, and probably no struggles of the last few years have cost both property owners and tax-payers so dear. By stopping profits sabotage and the mass strike represent to the industrialists that arch violence which is most effective against the capitalist.

#### *The Cleavage Over Political Action*

It remains to take up the fundamental difference of opinion between the supporters and the opponents of Section VI in regard to political action. The industrialists criticise the functions of political action as interpreted by the majority, and make their own interpretation.

All those industrialists who retain membership in the Socialist Party believe not only in the ultimate goal of Socialism, collective ownership, but in political action as one of the means to that end. That group of industrial Socialists who believe in industrial action as the exclusive way of revolution, have already left the party. The cry of Anarchism raised against the former group referred not to any abandonment of the principle of political action, but to the tactics of violence and sabotage already discussed, incident to their program of industrial action.

Article 11, Section I, of the constitution of the Socialist Party of America contains the words: "Every person . . . who subscribes to the principles of Socialism, including political action, shall be eligible to membership." This expression, say the industrialists, speaks for itself; political action need not be accepted by a party member as the only, or even as the most important, function of the party, but it must be accepted as one function. So much for principle—as a matter of practice, the tendency of Socialist parties in many countries to more and more pin their faith to parliamentary action is a natural outgrowth of the fact that Socialists have in the last decade more and more got into legislative and administrative office.

The Socialist Party of no other country has,

however, so circumscribed its political activities as has the American party by the definition in the amendment to its constitution already discussed. On the industrial field the party's functions are limited to aiding the workers in their strikes, and, by the amendment to the neutrality clause already discussed, encouraging them to organize on a basis more democratic and better suited to present industrial conditions. These functions must, as far as any statement to the contrary can be found, be purely transient, as in the view of the dominant political actionists, unionism is only a temporary expedient. Section VI limits the political functions, which they regard as their permanent work for the bringing in of Socialism, to taking part in elections for office, and to legislative and administrative activity. With the political function still left them by Section VI the political actionists trust, apparently, to be able to dissolve capitalism and to legislate the Socialist commonwealth into existence. Such an act as Congressman Berger's resolution urging the government to take over the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad suggests in piecemeal what they would propose to do wholesale, with the ultimate result that the people as a whole would own the means of production. The industrialist's criticism is that their program includes no outline of an administrative or legislative system which is convincingly different from the state whose dissolution they desire, except that profit, interest and capitalist control are to be abolished. The Socialist state, as conceived by the political actionists, would apparently be ruled by a political legislature, as now. They put forward no constructive scheme by which the workers in the various industries could control their own conditions. These would have no rights except as citizens of the state.

#### *Industrial Action*

To the industrialist such a system would be an intolerable bureaucracy, from which the most that the worker could expect would be the "same physical care that is given to working cattle." The only means by which the worker can in his opinion gain self-government, and with it manhood, is by having the right to control the conditions under which he works. Furthermore, as the workshop and its conditions are intimately known to him, while the ballot and the whole political machinery are a bewildering mystery and one that seldom touches his life, the industrialist believes that this control of industry would be the only true and practical democracy. On the democratic foundation of organized self-governing industries he would build an industrial commonwealth whose central body—the "one big union," as phrased by the I. W. W.—would be



the machinery by which the industries would regulate their relations to each other.

The Socialist commonwealth which the industrialists aim to create cannot in their view be legislated into existence through the machinery of the present state. Nor do they consider palliative legislation, "immediate demands," an important function of political Socialism, except as they think that the menace of the Socialist vote will force palliatives from the capitalist parties.

They hold that an even greater pressure in this direction will come as a reflex from the workers' "direct action" at the point of production—their "immediate demands" on the industrial field, backed by the strike. They believe that the pressure in this field will often even gain for them from the legislatures some such recognition of their basic demand for the fruits of their labor as the British miners' minimum wage, and they point in contrast to the fact that an attempt made to obtain a minimum wage law (males) through the "legislative activity" of a labor member of Parliament about a year before the miners' bill, was killed.

In the main, the workshop and not the legislature will, in their estimation, be the place where, by enforcing progressively shorter hours and higher pay, the workers will legislate profit out of existence, and by the same act bring in the industrial commonwealth. They are willing to face the probability that the whole of profit cannot be seized without a final revolution brought on by the possessors who see themselves dispossessed.

As trade unionism is to the political actionists, so political action is to the industrialist—merely a transition field for the workers' activity, serving as a support to their constructive activity in building up Socialism on the field of production. With this limitation, they recognize all those functions of political action recognized by the International Socialist Movement, some of them now, as they claim, for the first time excluded from the meaning of the term by the definition of Section VI. The revolutionary political actionists agree with the industrialists in repudiating this narrow definition of the term.

Political action has in practical use throughout the history of the Socialist movement meant the use of such means as will bring pressure on the government, and enable the workers to control it; it has not meant merely electing to public office and the use of the legislative and administrative functions of government. By revolutionary Socialists the menace of the pressure on the other parties of a large Socialist vote is regarded as even more important than parliamentary action. So, too, is the mass protest like that used in Germany recently when war with France threatened. So, too, is the

mass or general strike, such as was used in Belgium as a protest against the limitation of the suffrage and such as was threatened recently by the extraordinary International Socialist Congress held in Basle as a protest against the possibility of the Balkan war becoming general.

Such use of the mass strike for political purposes would be excluded by the definition of political action in Section VI. The industrialists are as keen to use the strike for political as for industrial ends—on the government as on the employer. The value of the pressure of the Socialist vote as a means of forcing legislation has already been spoken of.

The other functions of political action recognized by the industrialists are fourfold. First, by putting legislative and administrative office in the hands of Socialists, political action can, they believe, give them "control of the police club" and thus enable them to protect the workers in their industrial struggles, or enable them, in the words of Karl Kautsky, the foremost German Marxian, to "deprive the government of the power necessary for violent measures against the working class." Second, the Socialist political movement still is, they believe, as it has been in the past, the great body for educating the public in the principles of Socialism and the iniquities of capitalism. It was as this purely educational force that Socialism gained for the German workers the fundamentally ameliorative social insurance legislation.

Without this educational body, indeed, the industrialist movement—at any rate, an industrialist movement with the definite aim of collective ownership—might never have come into being.

Third, the industrialist believes that the Socialist vote serves to register the support that the workers can expect for their struggles on the industrial field, and tends to prevent abortive revolution.

In the disappearance of the state, the Socialist will perform his fourth and last political function. He will use his power as a legislator to hasten on the dissolution of governmental institutions, and thus clear away such vestiges of the old state as might hamper the new industrial commonwealth. "When the state becomes the representative of the whole of society, and not one ruling class," says Friedrich Engels, joint author with Marx of the Communist Manifesto, "nothing remains to be repressed, and a special repressive force, a state, is no longer necessary. State interference in social relations becomes in one domain after another superfluous, and then dies out of itself; the government of persons is replaced by an administration of things and by the conduct of the processes of production." These words of Engels' might be called the text of industrial Socialism.



# CONTROL OF SANITARY STANDARDS

JULIUS HENRY COHEN

*[In the garment trades now on strike in New York the strikers muster over a hundred thousand men and women, and the establishments themselves run up into as large numbers as does the membership of a trade union of one of the smaller cities.]*

*The author of this article is attorney for the Manufacturers' Protective Association which, following the exhausting struggle of 1910 entered into a so-called protocol with the Cloak, Skirt and Suit-makers' Union;—is attorney for the Dress and Waist Manufacturers' Association which on January 18 last, after less than a week's strike, entered into a similar protocol with another branch of the International Ladies Garment Workers;—and is attorney for the United Manufacturers (the Independents) who, in the present struggle in the men's tailoring branch of the trade, have stood for conference and arbitration as a means of settlement.<sup>1</sup>*

*The protocol of 1910 provided a system of industrial adjustment and it created a joint board of sanitary control. Such a label as Mr. Cohen here proposes is provided for in the new shirtwaist protocol.—Ed.]*

THE Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the Cloak Industry owed its existence to the suggestion of the employers as an institution to make effective the "protocol of peace" entered into between the unions and the employers settling the strike of 1910. It took into account three parties to the controversy—the employers, the workers and the public. Seven members were selected by counsel for both sides, two representing the employers' association, two representing the unions and three representing the public. The unions and the employers are both obliged to enforce the standards established by the board to the full extent of its power. For the first time in the history of the industry a complete inspection of every shop was actually made and the results tabulated. This inspection has been and is to be repeated semi-annually. The standards set up by the Board of Sanitary Control have been enforced to such an extent that already 65 per cent of the workers (33,689 persons) are employed in shops having the sanitary certificate issued by the board. The board now has a sanitary survey of 1,888 shops. The result of its three semi-annual inspections shows that the number of shops with no drop ladders from fire escapes has been reduced from 236 to 21, or from 13 per cent to 1 per cent, the "doors opening in" were reduced from 94 per cent in the first inspection to 79 per cent in the second, and to 48 per cent in the third inspection, and 39 per cent in the last inspection. The increase in the number of dressing rooms is indicated by a reduction from 79 per cent of shops with no dressing rooms in the first inspection to 58 per cent in the second, 34 per cent in the third and less than 2 per cent in the last. In protecting the workers from eye-strain the number of shops unprotected from glare was reduced from 83 per cent in the first inspection to 73 per cent in the second, to 51 per cent in the third and to 1 per cent in the fourth. Only about 2 per cent of the shops owned and operated by members of the Manufacturers' Association are without certificates, and the failure to secure certificates in these cases is due to the delay in making structural changes in the buildings in which the manu-

facturers are located, this duty resting upon the owners of the buildings.

This splendid result has been accomplished in less than eighteen months of actual work at an expense of less than \$7,000 per annum, borne equally by both sides. The board has demonstrated in a practical way the utility of sanitary control in an industry through the combined collective effort of workers, employers and public. Not an unimportant part of the work consists in the education of the workers themselves respecting the value of sanitary control. And to quote Rose Schneiderman:

"It takes a good many arguments to convince them [the workers] that the body is nourished by fresh air, cleanliness and sunlight as well as food."

To meet this need for education, the board secured the co-operation of the Board of Education and lectures are held in public schools. The subjects include Factory Legislation, Factory Education, Industrial Poisons and Factory Sanitation. Articles have been written for the official journals of the workers, shop sanitary committees have been organized in 301 shops and a general educational campaign is being conducted by the unions. This is not work done in the spirit of "welfare work." The employer is not doing the work alone. He is doing it in co-operation with his employees and in co-operation with the public. Why should this method not be extended to other industries? The first difficulty in the way is that it involves a permanent collective agreement between the unions and the employers and this *ex necessitate* involves a strong union and a strong employers' association. By this is meant not merely strength of numbers, but strength of character. The employers' organization must be led by enlightened men who have a deep sense of responsibility and a broad outlook upon life generally. For exactly the same reasons, the union must be led by men who recognize that industrial statesmanship involves thought, study, reflection, careful planning and slow upbuilding, and that the largest returns come through education. As rapidly as working people and employers are organized with such sound leadership on both sides, the method here outlined and adopted in the cloak industry may be applied to other indus-

<sup>1</sup>See The "White" Protocol, page 557 of this issue.



tries. But even this method is not as efficient as it might be.

The responsibility for the existence of conditions that are unsafe for the worker is a responsibility resting upon the entire community. It should be shifted neither to the shoulders of the employers nor to the workers, nor to both combined. The public itself is responsible. If women's wear is manufactured under such conditions as to make for unsound men and women, society as a whole is responsible. It seems to the writer that before we get right standards of living for the community the whole basis of purchase by the consumer must be changed, and he believes that the time is almost at hand when this would seem practicable. The present basis of purchase is, as it has been for centuries, almost wholly a matter of price and adaptability to use. The question that the buyer asks is, how cheap is the garment and does it fit. The result of this is a demand on the part of the public for "bargains," and inevitably leads to an attitude on the part of the retailer of entire indifference to the conditions or surroundings under which the garment is made. The most scrupulous buyer of a department store must shut his eyes to the environment under which the garment is made. He concerns himself solely with the question of price and style, texture and work in the product. Whether it contains germs of disease, or has injured the operative in the making, must concern him not at all. The result is pressure upon the manufacturer from the consumer's end—to manufacture as cheaply as possible, regardless of the conditions under which the worker operates, and from the same consuming public pressure from another direction—higher wages and shorter hours for the worker.

There is justice in the plea of the enlightened manufacturer that he is being squeezed between these two opposing forces and that he is penalized whenever he attempts to raise conditions. The remedy would seem to be at hand if all parties would agree to it—employer, employee and the public. It is this: Whenever complete and regular inspection of an industry is under way by all three parties, as in the cloak industry, and certificates are issued to shops maintaining adequate standards, the chain of evidence should be carried one link farther—the garment itself should be certified by the board, so that the consumer will know what garment is made under "protocol" conditions and what is not. An extensive advertising campaign, conducted by both parties, would inevitably educate the public to a realization of its responsibility for the maintenance of unsanitary conditions. The responsibility from consumer to producer would be made direct and real and could not be evaded. A label on each garment would furnish the purchaser with unmistakable evidence of its conformance or non-conformance with the standards of living maintained by the best in the industry. Already in the cloak industry the union is making a campaign throughout the country for the exclusion from the industry of what are called "non-protocol" cloaks; that is to say, for the exclusion of garments made in factories that have not come

under the protocol. This work is ineffective now because there is no way of furnishing the consumer with prompt and satisfactory evidence of the facts concerning each garment. The retailer today is not called upon to distinguish between "protocol" cloaks and "non-protocol" cloaks.

It is perhaps a little unfortunate that the suggestion came first from a lawyer, and, worse still, from a lawyer representing employers. It will doubtless take a very considerable time before the feeling of suspicion and distrust on the part of working people is eliminated to such an extent as to make the plan acceptable to them. Some retailers will resent this interference with the liberty of buying upon the lowest possible plane, and it is true that it insures the permanence of a relation between an employers' organization and the union, and is therefore the strongest possible "recognition of the union." If it be said that it ties the union to a peaceable solution of problems in the industry, it must also be said that it ties the employers likewise. But if in all other respects the collective agreement is fair and above board and makes for no monopoly on either side, why should either reject it? So far as the public is concerned, ought it not to insist that methods more enlightening should be adopted in the permanent uplift of industry than those of warfare and heat? If there is to be a reorganization of industry in which workers, employers and public participate, and legislation is enacted by the workers themselves in counsel with their employers, and not by state legislatures, is it not high time that the consuming public should assume its fair share of responsibility for the creation and maintenance of sanitary standards?

The next steps in the control of sanitary standards seem to the writer to be two, (a) the fixing of responsibility, and (b) the completion of the chain of evidence. With a system of tripartite control of an industry and a complete chain of evidence fixing the identity of the garment and the manner of its production, the germane idea underlying the work of the National Consumers' League will mature and develop. If it prove workable in the women's wear industry, it will be extended to other industries as rapidly as statesmanship takes the place of warfare between the two great industrial bodies.

The need for such control is obvious. Dynamite hardly makes for permanent sanitary conditions, nor does sabotage. Order and law are essential. In joint session employers and workers should, as they best can, determine both the needs and the remedy. Certainly the twin principles of collective agreement and arbitration receive new vigor from this modern demonstration of the necessity for methods of control in industry. The enlightened employer needs his organization. The worker needs his union. The public needs both, and each needs the other. If we can substitute rational methods for physical warfare and contests of reason for contests of physical endurance, we may approach a truer American democracy and realize a higher standard of living for all.



# THE SURVEY



Volume XXIX, No. 19

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## IN FOUR MONTHS

THE SURVEY ASSOCIATES have mustered half the membership (800) set as goal for the first year under the new form of organization.

423 readers have enlisted as co-operating subscribers at \$10 each. This is 100 contributors (\$1,000 in contributions) more than on February 1, 1912.

The work of THE SURVEY has increasingly become national. The question when it was launched as an independent venture last fall was:

*Could it look to national sources for adequate support?*

The Charity Organization Society of the City of New York had for years appropriated \$3,000 annually to the educational work of magazine and committee. This it could not do to an outside organization.

The question became two questions:

*Would former contributors renew under the new form of organization?*

The great majority have already done so.

*Would enough other SURVEY readers—if the magazine were practically turned over to them as an adventure in co-operative journalism—come forward with new contributions to make the \$3,000 good?*

100 have answered "Yes."

We need 200 more answers of just that sort.

(See next two pages)

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



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Before printing the names of the January contributors who have been elected Survey Associates, there is room on these pages to put forward a "best foot" or two—if that is not too idiomatic a way to refer to the venerable practice of quoting from friendly letters. Some adverse letters will be put forward quite as frankly later. But, after all, nine out of ten of those received have been full of encouragement and constructive criticism, of downright interest and loyalty toward the venture.

They have been of the sort which make staff and council feel that this plan of carrying forward THE SURVEY as a co-operative enterprise in not so preposterous an undertaking as at first sight it may have seemed.

\* \* \*

"The idea of THE SURVEY'S going under is not to be thought of," ran a letter from the far Northwest last summer, when we were bending every effort to clear up an overhanging deficit before entering upon the new basis. "It is the one magazine that we social workers could not do without." And that same spirit has been manifested by many a reader enlisting as a co-operating subscriber under the new form of organization.

Here is a letter from a mining engineer:

"I cordially approve of the efforts you are making to obtain and present an unbiased view of our underlying economic and social conditions, and wish you every success."

And this, from an attorney who for eight years was general counsel for a great railway system:

"I have your letter, and am so fully in accord with what you say of THE SURVEY that the ten dollars seem quite an anti-climax. It has been my professional experience to have considerable to do with publications that answer to the name of uplift magazines. There is no doubt that these have accomplished prodigious quantities of good. But where an editor's ultimate criterion must be whether his articles are 'acceptable,' he cannot eternally pound away on one theme, nor can he mention with their just emphasis many subjects that are far from being acceptable to many of his readers. THE SURVEY can do, and thank goodness it does, both of these things."

"It is a real satisfaction," wrote the head of a consumers league in a mid-western city, "to feel that I have ever so small a part in helping to maintain THE SURVEY."

\* \* \*

Here is a letter from a young college graduate:

"Although I have not received one, I understand that you are sending circular letters to subscribers stating the need of \$10 from each, so I am now enclosing to you my check for same."

This, from the dean of a woman's college:

"The magazine is making a vast contribution to the general welfare, and we are all indebted to you for your work."

And this, from the chairman of the division of engineering sciences of an eastern university:

"THE SURVEY I regard as one of the best periodicals of the present day devoted to human progress, and I feel it merits support from every citizen who has the spirit of human uplift at all at heart."

An eighth and last letter from a New England public official:

"There is no magazine that comes to my desk that I appreciate more.

"I have just put in four years of rather strenuous work as mayor of the city, so that I have had an opportunity to see some of the city's problems from the human standpoint; and your SURVEY coming regularly has helped me to see them clearly."

SURVEY ASSOCIATES, Inc.



Acknowledgment has already been made by the Survey Associates of contributions received from October 1 to December 31. During January, forty-six readers of THE SURVEY renewed their co-operating subscriptions of previous years. Sixty-six readers who had hitherto been just regular \$2 subscribers enlisted as \$10 co-operators.

Seven others have given larger amounts. These larger contributors are:

William Guggenheim, New York, \$1,000	Frank Muhlhauser, Cleveland	\$25
Julian W. Mack, Washington	Albert Gehring, Cleveland	25
Miss Ida M. Mason, Boston	Miss Lucy Lowell, Boston	20
Wm. S. Mason, Chicago		50

The following co-operating subscribers, whose contributions were received during January, have been elected annual members of the Survey Associates:

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## A BIT OF A RE-MINDER

¶ No word has been received from 92 co-operating subscribers, who a year ago sent in \$10 each between October 1 and January 31. ¶ We hope to count them in under the new form of organization.

**SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC.**  
105 East 22d Street, New York City

No. 424

I enclose \$10 as a co-operating subscription to the Survey Associates.

Name.....

Address.....

Note: The \$10 is to cover the renewal of my regular \$2 subscription to THE SURVEY, plus a contribution to the educational work of magazine and National Council.



## THE PITH OF IT

**G**OVERNOR WILSON gives social workers a hearing. P. 639.

**A**NOTHER advance in the laws with respect to United States prisoners—life-term men have been brought under the benefits of the parole law. This is a reform which Attorney-General Wickersham has long urged. P. 633.

**B**ECAUSE of the objections of a single member of Congress, a bill for a federal inquiry into jail conditions has been stalled. P. 633.

**C**AN you read Yiddish—or Russian or Spanish? At length, questions like these have been written into an immigration bill by both houses of Congress. Late advices were that President Taft would veto it. P. 645.

**R**EADERS of THE SURVEY will remember Dr. Salmon's article (November 4, 1911) on The Hazards of Deep-Sea Fishermen and the need for a hospital ship which would make America's protection of her fishers somewhere near as adequate as that of the old countries. The bill for such a ship is hung up in a congressional committee. P. 634.

**T**HE Crawford-Sulzer bill, calling for an international inquiry into the cost of living, is still on the stocks. Will it get off at this session? P. 636.

**R**EADERS of The Promised Land, the autobiography of a Jewish immigrant girl, would have been interested in the meeting of the New York Consumers League last week. For Mary Antin spoke and interpreted the stories of a group of immigrant strikers. P. 637.

**E**VEN Mexico has a law providing indemnity for errors of justice; not so the United States. P. 643.

**T**HE moving picture show has reached a point in its development when the forces for good and evil in it are at war. The New York Board of Aldermen is the scene of a pretty thorough skirmish. P. 643.

**A**NATION-WIDE search for good and bad alike—such is the scope of an inquiry into industrial conditions which Ralph M. Easley proposes for the Civic Federation. P. 638.

**T**HE safety experts have long been bagging for the engineering schools; now it is the experts in industrial hygiene who want to bring the medical schools round to courses in industry and health. P. 638.

**I**N its amended form the Rockefeller Foundation bill has passed the House by a two-thirds majority, and is now in the judiciary committee of the Senate where it is reported to be encountering some division of sentiment.

# THE SURVEY

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## THE COMMON WELFARE

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## Step No. I

### NOT LACK OF SYMPATHY

but lack of time often stands in the way of your listening to the stories of individuals and families in need of help.

But the poor must reveal their needs to some one.

Last year the Charity Organization Society gave a sympathetic hearing to 6,713 families as the first step in its effort to restore them to self-support.

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NEW YORK

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# THE COMMON WELFARE

## TWO PENAL BILLS BEFORE CONGRESS.

Both Houses of Congress have acted favorably on the bill to parole United States prisoners, and the measure was signed with little delay as the friends of the measure expected by President Taft. The bill is in the form of an amendment to the act of June 15, 1910, and its object is to extend the benefit of the parole law to prisoners who have been sentenced for life terms. It has been recommended by the members of the federal boards of parole, by individuals interested in prison reform, and by the attorney general in two annual messages.

A number of the states have set an example to the federal government in extending the right of parole to life prisoners. Yet such is the inadequacy of existing machinery for collecting statistics on penal matters that it is impossible to list all those which have taken such action. It is almost always required that a specified number of years be served before parole can be granted; such as thirty-five years, less "good time" allowances in Minnesota; twenty-five years in Nebraska, Ohio and Utah; fifteen years in Louisiana, Oregon and Virginia; ten years in Texas; eight years in California and five in Kentucky. Under a new Iowa law all commitments to the state prisons are from one year to life, and all prisoners are eligible to parole. Montana permits life termers to be paroled when they have served thirteen years and three months, and Nevada when they have served seven years. A number of other states, or their governors, pardon life prisoners occasionally, some executives making it a Christmas practice to do so.

In a letter to Senator Brandegee of Connecticut, Mr. Wickersham thus described the bill and its purpose:

<sup>2</sup>A portion of the argument in favor of this bill made by the attorney-general before the American Prison Association in 1911 may be found in *THE SURVEY* of Oct. 28, 1911, page 1084.

"I concur in the recommendations made by the boards of parole in their report that the law should be modified so as to include within its provisions prisoners undergoing life sentences by providing, as is done in the statutes of a number of states, that such prisoners shall be eligible to parole when they shall have actually served some long period of years. There are now upward of 200 prisoners serving life sentences in federal penitentiaries. At present the only hope of a life prisoner, no matter how exemplary his conduct may be, lies in the exercise by the President of the power of executive clemency. I believe it to be more to the interests of society that such prisoners should be liberated on parole, subject to the supervision and regulation which is possible under the parole law, than that they should be discharged absolutely by executive pardon. In this connection I invite careful attention to a consideration by Congress of the desirability of adopting the indeterminate sentence for prisoners, such as prevails in many of the states. That system is an important, if not a necessary, adjunct to a parole law. The system has produced excellent results and is regarded by the most enlightened penologists as embodying the most successful method of dealing with the punishment of crime."

## THE JAIL INQUIRY

Because Representative T. U. Sisson objected, House bill 21594, the object of which is to secure the appointment of a commission "to consider and report upon the general subject of the treatment of juvenile offenders, together with the best system of detention of federal prisoners," was recently stricken from the unanimous consent calendar of the House. Some other parliamentary way to consider it must now be found if a vote is to be had on it. Mr. Sisson did not give any reason for his objection.

This bill has the warm endorsement not only of Attorney General Wickersham, but of the International Prison Congress and of many social work-



Minor in the St. Louis Post-Dispatch.  
Now it's the railway firemen who threaten to go out.



ers. The Committee on the Judiciary, which reported it to the House recommended one amendment, namely, that one member of the commission be appointed by the attorney general. Representative Houston of Tennessee, the author of the report, explained that the object of the bill was very plain and that it had been drawn in response to a general demand all over the country for some concerted and uniform method of treating juvenile offenders.

The great difficulty that arises constantly in the treatment of young offenders against United States laws is that in the case of all over seventeen years the national government is entirely dependent on state institutions. Mr. Wickersham has stated that there is but one institution to which we can now send such federal prisoners. That is the Elmira Reformatory in New York. Most state reformatories will not receive a federal prisoner who is not subjected to the complete discipline of the state, and there is no power in law whereby a federal prisoner can be subjected to the indeterminate sentence obtaining in most states.

A pressing reason for the appointment of the commission is the condition of the jails to which federal prisoners have to be sent awaiting trial. "The condition of many of these jails is worthy of the middle ages rather than of modern times," says Mr. Wickersham.

The measure is now placed on the committee calendar and must await its turn. It is possible

that it will not be reached before the end of the present Congress.

#### THE CASE FOR THE HOSPITAL SHIP

The case for the Hospital Ship has been, formally laid before the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries, and the bill introduced by Representative A. P. Gardner of Massachusetts, providing for its establishment, is now under consideration by the members. The need for and purpose of such a vessel to follow the Gloucester fishing fleet was described in *THE SURVEY* of November 4, 1911, by Dr. Thomas W. Salmon of the United States Public Health Service. In effect this "ship of mercy" would be an ocean extension of the Marine Hospital Service; the vessel would steam slowly about the fishing grounds, calling wherever sickness or accident made its services necessary, and removing, if need be, men who required hospital treatment.

Congressman Gardner, in introducing the witnesses for the measure, announced a change in plan. Whereas formerly it had been the idea to purchase a schooner with auxiliary gasoline power, it was now thought best to ask for a sea-going vessel, costing something like \$100,000, and capable of going under her own steam. Mr. Gardner suggested that the type of vessel best adapted to the work was that used in the North Sea for similar purposes. Charles F. Wonson, president of the board of directors of the



THE ALPHA

A mission hospital vessel of 275 tons, engaged in service among the fishing fleets of the North Sea. Such a ship is needed in American waters.





THE ST. FRANCOIS D'ASSISE

The hospital ship which crosses the Atlantic every summer to care for the men on the Grand Banks near the French Islands, Saint Pierre, Miquelon. Many American fishermen have to depend upon this ship for medical aid.

Gloucester Fishermen's Institute, Charles Skentelbery, representing the Boston Chamber of Commerce, Captain William H. Thomas, master for twenty-one years of a Gloucester fishing schooner, Richard W. Freeman, secretary of the Gloucester Board of Trade, and Constance D. Leupp appeared before the committee in support of the bill. No one opposed it.

A significant remark made by the chairman of the committee, Representative Joshua W. Alexander of Missouri, indicated the nature of the objections which the Hospital Ship will meet in Congress. He said, in effect:

"You are asking the government to aid a private industry. I am inclined to think that this would be a departure on the part of the government to do so. In other countries private contributions have in large measure sustained hospital ships."

This, of course, brings up the whole question of federal aid, workmen's compensation, sickness insurance, and so forth. Should the Gardner bill become involved in this kind of discussion it would probably be delayed in passage, if not defeated. The view of it which appeared to strike the committee as the most logical was that the Hospital Ship would merely extend the services of the Chelsea, Mass., Marine Hospital in such a way as to save lives which otherwise might be lost, and to give medical and surgical attendance to those who need it promptly if they are to receive any benefit from it at all. As Miss Leupp pointed out, there are annually many cases of fishermen who are brought to land too late to be helped, and one may see today in Gloucester

cripples whose loss of limbs was due solely to their tardy treatment.

The bill is now before the committee. Its members are:

Joshua W. Alexander, Mo., chairman.

Rufus Hardy, Tex.	James Young, Tex.
Joe T. Robinson, Ark.	J. D. Post, O.
William B. Wilson, Pa.	John M. Faison, N. C.
Charles D. Carter, Okla.	William S. Greene, Mass.
Henry A. Barnhart, Ind.	Wm. E. Humphrey, Wash.
James Wm. Collier, Miss.	E. Stevens Henry, Conn.
Steven B. Ayres, N. Y.	Asher C. Hinds, Me.
John A. Thayer, Mass.	Stephen G. Porter, Pa.
Michael E. Burke, Wis.	Wm. D. Stephens, Cal.
Claude U. Stone, Ill.	Thomas Parran, Md.

## DREDGE WORKERS AND THE SENATE

In the history of labor legislation the world over some of the bitterest controversies have centered about the establishment of an eight-hour work day. The history of the movement has been much the same in the United States and Australia, in England and on the continent; the same forces have contended for supremacy. A chapter was added on the floor of the United States Senate on January 24.

The bill to limit the hours of dredge workers on public construction to eight per day had come up for consideration. Through a curious technicality dredge workers are the only class of laborers now deprived of the benefits of the federal eight-hour law. The House had already passed the measure giving them equal privileges with other laborers. The Senate committee on education and labor had favorably reported it. Said Senator Shively of Indiana, the senator in charge of the bill:

"This bill contemplates no organic change of policy on the part of the federal government on



the subject of the length of the work day. That policy was projected over forty years ago. . . . From 1892 to 1907 it was believed by the federal authorities that dredge workers were covered by the language of the act. . . . The bill passed by the Senate, and on which reconsideration is now moved, supplies a manifestly unintentional omission in the Act of 1892."

Serious and prolonged objection, nevertheless, was made on the part of several senators. It was urged that the government would lose money, and it was argued that the bill had been reported from the wrong committee. These objections were finally put aside and a roll call ordered. It is reprinted here because it serves as an index of the Senate on an important piece of labor legislation in which, while only a few people are affected, one of the basic demands of the labor movement was involved. The bill passed by a vote of 31 to 27.

#### Those who voted against the bill were:

Bankhead, Ala.	Gallinger, N. H.	Page, Vt.
Brandegee, Conn.	Gamble, S. Dak.	Percy, Miss.
Bristow, Kans.	Gronna, N. Dak.	Perkins, Calif.
Burnham, N. H.	Guggenheim, Colo.	Sanders, Tenn.
Burton, Ohio.	Jones, Wash.	Smoot, Utah.
Catron, New Mexico	Lippitt, R. I.	Stephenson, Wis.
Clark, Wyo.	McClumber, N. Dak.	Sutherland, Utah.
Crawford, S. Dak.	Nelson, Minn.	Townsend, Mich.
du Pont, Del.	Oliver, Pa.	Wetmore, R. I.

#### Those who voted for the bill were:

Ashurst, Ariz.	Johnston, Ala.	Poin Dexter, Wash.
Bourne, Ore.	Jordan, Tex.	Pomeroy, Ohio.
Bryan, Fla.	La Follette, Wis.	Shively, Md.
Chamberlain, Ore.	Lodge, Mass.	Simmons, N. C.
Chilton, W. Va.	McLean, Conn.	Smith, Ariz.
Clapp, Minn.	Martin, Va.	Smith, Ga.
Clarke, Ark.	Martine, N. J.	Smith, Md.
Dixon, Mont.	Myers, Mont.	Smith, Mich.
Fletcher, Fla.	O'Gorman, N. Y.	Stone, Mo.
Helskell, Ark.	Overman, N. C.	Swanson, Va.
Hitchcock, Neb.	Paynter, Ky.	Thomas, Colo.
Johnson, Me.	Perky, Idaho.	Thornhill, Cal.

Thirty-one did not vote, being paired either for or against the bill. From the record it is impossible to determine exactly which of these would have favored, and which would have opposed the bill.

### CONGRESS AND THE COST OF LIVING

Readers of THE SURVEY who are interested in the project for an international inquiry into the cost of living, should write representatives and members of the committee on rules in the House, urging that the Crawford-Sulzer bill be brought to a vote at this session. The Crawford-Sulzer bill provides for an appropriation of \$20,000 to enable the President to call an international conference on the high cost of living.

The project has the endorsement of President Taft (who wrote a special message in its favor a year ago), of ex-President Roosevelt (who laid emphasis on the plan in the Progressive platform), and of President-elect Wilson. In other countries its advocates include: President-elect Poincaré of France; Lord Courtney of England; Baron Sakatani, formerly finance minister of

Japan; Bernhard Dernburg, colonial secretary of Germany; Robert Meyer, finance minister of Australia; S. Nitti, minister of agriculture of Italy; G. Findlay Shirras of the Finance Department, India, and G. H. Knibbs, statistician of Australia.

Many letters urging the calling of an international conference on the cost of living were published in the twenty-eight page report favoring this project, of the House committee on foreign affairs (Report No. 711).

The history of the bill dates back to its recommendation for passage by President Taft in a special message a year ago this month. Senator Crawford and Congressman Sulzer, now governor of New York, simultaneously introduced the bill in both houses on March 7. It was brought up by unanimous consent in the Senate and passed that body unanimously April 15. It was unanimously favored by the committee on foreign affairs in the House on May 15. It has never been a party issue.

Friends of the measure ascribe its failure to pass the House last summer to the tactics of certain members who thought it good politics to postpone consideration of the bill until after election. Now, with a full calendar, it is said to stand a good chance of being crowded out.

The situation is put this way by one of the advocates of the bill before the International Congress of Chambers of Commerce when the representatives of forty nations endorsed the plan:

"If time for such a bill cannot be found in the present Congress, it is not likely that it would be found in the special session and so would have to go over until next December, when it would again slowly take its course and at best come to a vote in the winter or spring of 1914—if at all. If the bill is once brought up for vote, it is regarded as almost certain of passage, for no valid objection to it has been offered. If there is a studied plan by any man or group of men in Congress to throttle the bill without allowing the public to know why, this plan should be ascertained and thwarted. The committee on rules, of which Mr. Henry of Texas, is chairman, can easily bring in a special rule under which the bill can receive consideration. Once brought up, the bill would probably not take more than five or ten minutes' time."

Simple as is the Crawford-Sulzer bill, its proposers believe that it would lead to clearing away some of the mysteries surrounding the problem of the world-wide rise in the cost of living and by comparison throw light on why in America the rise has been more rapid than abroad. It should lead to better statistics on which to make deductions and more of them. In particular it would doubtless result in making the statistics of our Bureau of Labor, the Canadian Labour Office, the British Board





of Trade and the official statistics of other countries more readily comparable, for at present no two countries have constructed index numbers for the same commodities or by the same methods.

Among the ultimate results, prophesied as effects of the passage of the bill, are that it would lead to "economies in industry, the extension of agricultural credit; the extension of the open door policy for international trade; wiser and more economical methods of controlling corporations; extension of scientific management; the elimination of needless wastes, of middlemen, etc.; stabler and better systems of banking and currency, and many other suggestions which have been made by individuals but never considered in the light of experience of different nations."

Sir Horace Plunkett's plan for co-operative selling by farmers has spread only from Ireland to certain parts of Scotland and England. Why should it not be adopted in this country? Raiffeisen banks have spread with great rapidity in Germany, but we know practically nothing of them as yet in this country. New Zealand seems to have practically retarded the rise in the cost of living there by twice reducing her tariff on certain imports. Why should not her experience be made useful to us and other nations?

It is such practical queries as these which have

been used in the arguments for the conference and for interpreting its scope in the broadest terms. The depreciation in the purchasing power of gold, its causes and possible remedies, have been as yet considered only by a few special students and without a sufficiently wide basis of fact to convince the public of the desirability of any line of action. Such an international conference would lead to inquiries which could be conducted by statistical bureaus already existing.

To quote Prof. Irving Fisher who has been the pioneer proponent of the plan:

"There has seldom been an opportunity for the whole world to gain so great results with so little effort and expense."

#### KEEPING THE PROMISE OF THE PROMISED LAND

It was through the *Atlantic Monthly* that Mary Antin made American readers see the immigration problem not as a problem merely, but as a vivid human experience. The Promised Land has found a place on many book shelves alongside of Riis and Steiner. It was this same immigrant author who undertook at the annual meeting of the New York Consumers League last week to show how American organizations can stir the hearts of immigrant girls with patriotism and can help make more of the promise come true.

She told of the helplessness of these workers, which makes it easy to exploit them in a strange land where there are strange customs and where there is a strange language. She told of her cousin Dora who, as the daughter of a wealthy Jewish family in her own country, was not obliged to earn her living by manual labor, but who, in this new land without friends or relatives, went to work in a shirtwaist factory at long hours and a starvation wage. Had it not been for Mary Antin herself, Dora would still have been working under such conditions with no idea of a higher level of life. Like thousands of girls, she would still be living in a crowded district and working in an underpaid shop without knowing that there were friends ready to interest themselves in her barren surroundings. To quote Miss Antin:

"Such girls as these know Socialism as the only savior in their distress, since their only reading has been literature of a Socialistic nature. They do not realize that although Socialism is one of the agencies for working out our national problem, it is being supplemented by the aid and interest of many societies like the Consumers League, which are trying to emphasize the fact that liberty means liberty for all; not liberty to exist, but to live, to enjoy, to develop."

This work of applied patriotism, she went on,



teaches love of country 365 days a year. A report on laundry workers is of more value in instilling love of country and love of fellow man in these newly arrived immigrants than any Fourth of July oration. The cry that our country is being overrun by an ignorant, uncivilized horde and that the integrity of the home is being demolished by work outside the home in dirty and ill-ventilated shops is hollow, "if," said Mary Antin, "in sending our washing around the corner we send our hearts after the bundle of wash and learn of a world of men and women who once were unknown to us."

And then as witnesses to her appeal, six tired-looking, white-faced girl strikers, filed across the stage of the Astor theater, where the meeting was held, two of them bare-headed, all in cheap and shabby clothes. Two of them spoke. The first was Ethel Riebeck, "chairlady" of the Smith Underwear Company, a seventeen year old girl who had been in this country only a few years. Although Ethel Riebeck had learned her speech by rote and her voice quavered with nervousness as she spoke before these "foreigners" who live beyond her boundaries of the Bowery and Fourth Street, the effect of what she said was stronger than if she had delivered an oration. She said:

"We work all day, and then we only make about \$4, \$5 or \$6 a week and we don't get that, either, for the summertime when work is slack, we only get \$2 or \$2.50 a week. . . .

"And we don't work in shops that are very sanitary, either. Sometimes they are not swept for many days, and we have to push away from us the dirt with our feet. And the insects run over us. Our machines are not cleaned and they smell badly, and because we are not allowed to spend more than half an hour or twenty minutes at our luncheon, we must eat sitting by the machines which are not clean."

Next a little kimono worker, Sophie Rosenberg, got up. She trembled as she spoke in her own dialect. The audience could not understand a word of what she said, but the feel of it brought wet cheeks throughout the hall. Mary Antin translated the story:

"This child of sixteen years makes \$4 a week, and part of that she must send home to aged parents in Russia. She works so many hours in the factory, from eight o'clock in the morning till six o'clock at night that when she comes home in the evening she falls, literally falls, into the house, she is so tired. She would like to learn something for education, but it is not possible, she is so tired."

"True to Mary Antin's prediction," said an officer of the league afterward, "these girl strikers found perhaps for the first time that they had unknown friends who wished to hear about their life, who wanted to lighten their hardships, who

were interested in helping them win their cause for real liberty." For besides expressions of sympathy and friendship more than \$200 was collected for distribution among needy strikers.

## INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND THE MEDICAL SCHOOLS

Two movements are now on foot to get the medical schools to give practical instruction in industrial hygiene. In fact, the situation is very similar to that in the engineering field where John Calder and other active experts on the prevention of industrial accidents have succeeded in getting some of the technical schools to add courses in safety engineering.

At the session on industrial hygiene of the annual meeting of the Efficiency Society held last week in New York, Dr. Winthrop Talbot of Cleveland, editor of *Human Engineering*, read a letter which he proposed be sent to the various medical schools of the country. This pointed out the need of instruction in industrial hygiene and urged the addition of such courses in the medical schools of the country.

The following outline was proposed as covering some of the more important topics which should be included in such course:

I. Education of the Medical Man; Training of Medical Students for their Responsibilities to Industry and the State. 1—Sanitary inspection with required clinical experience; 2—Mechanical and clerical operations in industry, with especial reference to their physiological and psychological effects; 3—Accidents; 4—Disease; 5—Fatigue; 6—Industrial legislation.

II. Relation of Employer to Physician.

III. Relation of Physician to Employee.

IV. Relation of Physician to the State and Municipality.

V. Economic and Social Results Already Obtained in the Prevention of Accidents and Disease.

VI. Conditions Conducive to Industrial Health. 1—Work environment; 2—The worker; 3—The work.

VII. Home Environment. 1—Municipal; 2—Private.

In urging his resolution, Dr. Talbot called attention to the fact that there is only one course in industrial hygiene in any school in the country, and that not in a medical school—Prof. C. E. A. Winslow's course in Teachers College, Columbia University. A few other schools have taken up some of the individual phases of the health question with which the social worker is most concerned today, but the necessity of preparing young men who intend to become physicians for their responsibilities in the industrial field has not yet commended itself to the medical schools of the country.

It was pointed out by Dr. Rosalie Slaughter



Morton that two years ago the American Medical Association had recommended that the schools extend their courses in this same direction. Committees are now at work on the complementary problems of reducing the present curriculum and adding courses in industrial hygiene and other factors in the prevention of disease.

Dr. Talbot's resolution was carried unanimously.

#### CIVIC FEDERATION ON INDUSTRIAL PROBLEMS

A noteworthy proposal was made by Ralph M. Easley at the meeting of the National Civic Federation in New York on January 29. In his address as chairman of the executive committee of the association he reviewed at length and optimistically the progressive social movements that are making headway, but added: "There are yet very many black places and perplexing problems demanding attention." Continuing, he said:

"This leads me to the proposal that the National Civic Federation organize a commission of national scope, composed of representative men and women from various walks of life, which shall make a national survey of the progress that has been achieved in this country during the last fifty years, and which, while looking for the good, shall also ascertain where there are social and industrial ills demanding eradication. Such an inquiry, thoroughly and honestly conducted, and given wide publicity, would naturally operate as a stimulus to help better the conditions under which the wage-earners of this country now work and live, and would also furnish material that would confound the libellers of American institutions who seek their overthrow and destruction."

#### GOV. WILSON AND THE SOCIAL WORKER

Castle Point, Hoboken, was the scene recently of an informal conference between the president-elect and representatives of a group of nationwide social movements. Castle Point is the home of Mrs. C. B. Alexander, a personal friend of Governor Wilson, and long a leader in philanthropic activities in New Jersey. It was through Gaylord S. White, head-worker of Union Settlement, New York, and a Princeton graduate, that the meeting was arranged.

Governor Wilson's attention was called to the social needs of the national capital; to certain changes which are hoped for from the government as an employer; and to the service which the federal government can render in the fields of health, immigration, prison labor and industrial relations. Emphasis was placed not so much on the direct action which the federal government can take in these fields, as its common service to the states through research and

statistics, and in placing the experience of one part of the country at the service of another. This division between state and national activity was even more emphasized by Governor Wilson.

Joseph P. Byers, state charities commissioner of New Jersey, acted as chairman of the conference after the informal getting together, and the proceedings took on something of the nature of a hearing on the state of the country.

A. J. McKelway, secretary for the southern states of the National Child Labor Committee, and chairman of the Juvenile Advisory Committee of the Children's Council of Washington, spoke on the District of Columbia. As Governor Wilson said afterwards, Mr. McKelway put under his nose a fresh trail, the kind of a trail that he always follows with zest. Mr. McKelway described the complicated system by which the District is governed. While its citizens are disfranchised, and its control nominally in the hands of the federal government, he claimed that in reality Washington is a boss-ridden city. He said:

"It is a triangle of profit and power manned by a triumvirate. Of this triumvirate one is president of a National Bank, with connections in speculative real estate. The second is president of a trust company, with connections in speculative real estate. The third is also president of a trust company, with connections in speculative real estate. The situation is controlled in three ways: By control of taxation, which is lowest in the privileged district and highest in the home districts; by control of credit—investments within the speculative area are encouraged, those in other districts discouraged; by control of Congress, through the committees of the District in seeing that improvements ordered by Congress work for the pockets of the triumvirate."

Josephine Goldmark, author of *Fatigue and Efficiency*, and representative of the National Consumers League, put forward the subject of industrial legislation respecting the District, and spoke in favor of the bill now pending in Congress to limit the hours of working women. The responsibility of the federal government as an employer was taken up by Prof. Henry R. Seager, former president of the American Association for Labor Legislation, who described the defects in the present federal employees' liability act, and told of the movements under way for reform.

In the field of national service, Lillian D. Wald of the Nurses' Settlement, a member of the former New York State Immigration Commission, made a plea for an internal policy toward immigration which should throw the protection of state and federal governments over the newcomers during the first year or two of their settlement. Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, outlined the scope and purposes of the Children's Bureau



and the need for increasing its appropriation so that it can perform an adequate service in revealing the facts of childhood. A beginning has been made in the direction of promoting better birth registration, as a first step in the understanding of the child problem.

Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers League, advocated the bill now before Congress, enabling any state to prohibit the sale within its boundaries of prison-made goods, produced in other states under conditions which would be illegal in its own institutions.

Homer Folks, president of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, showed that the federal government is spending on health much less than some of the states, and pointed out the opportunity for combining the various branches of the government's activities in this field, now scattered through several federal departments. A unified health service, would afford adequate statistics and tend to stimulate sanitary regulation and efficiency in different parts of the country. Disease germs know no state boundaries, and the health of one district is the health of all.

Samuel McCune Lindsay, chairman of the Committee on Industrial Relations, told of the movement for a federal inquiry in that field. President Taft's nominations to the commission have not as yet been confirmed by the Senate, and Mr. Lindsay felt that as the greater part of the work of the commission would fall under Governor Wilson's administration, it would be appropriate for the latter to appoint its membership. He expressed confidence as to the calibre of the commission Governor Wilson would nominate.

#### FEDERAL AND STATE ACTION

In his reply, Governor Wilson made the point that the government is not so much an initiating agency as a responsive one, depending on the vigorous action of citizens. He evidently confused the Children's Bureau a bit with the Beveridge child labor bill, which was before Congress several years ago and which undertook to prohibit interstate commerce in child-made goods. Child labor is only one of the subjects coming before the bureau, which has chosen birth registration as its first concern; and its function is that of gathering information, not of making or enforcing laws. Governor Wilson's underlying point, however, was a clear one—that of emphasizing the adherence to state action by a large element of the Democratic Party, and of informing social workers how best they could help his national administration in taking up matters of social concern. Those who attended the meeting came away with the feeling

that under the Wilson administration the proposals of social workers would receive, to use Governor Wilson's own words, "not only an interested but a thorough consideration." He spoke somewhat as follows:

"Several of those who have spoken have described this as a valued opportunity to them. I can speak of the opportunity as mine rather than theirs. It is seldom a man in my position hears from so many who know what they are talking about. I have the opportunity every day of hearing from those who do not.

"Every subject treated here today engages my deep interest and enthusiasm. My enthusiasm is in proportion, generally, to the practicability of a scheme. I have always been eager to forward general principles, but I do not feel the breath fill my lungs until I see the practical plan. I hope you will always come to me with plans, and you may count on me to consider those plans with interest and with friendliness.

"Most of the things that you have spoken of are without political embarrassment. One that does have political embarrassment. One that Department project. Already in dealing with medical education in New Jersey we have had political difficulties, because of the various independent schools of medicine that have sprung up on all sides. There is a fear in many minds that we are about to set up what has been called a medical trust, and it is very desirable to remove that idea. I have never seen any serious proposal to put any particular school of medicine in charge of the national health.

"With regard to the Children's Bureau another similar difficulty exists. My own party in some of its elements represents a very strong state's rights feeling. It is very plain that you would have to go much further than most interpretations of the Constitution would allow if you were to give to the government general control over child labor throughout the country. It is important to make it generally understood that the purpose of your bureau is to collect and co-ordinate information on the subject.

"I want, above all things, to enjoy the confidence of, and to have at my service the information and counsel of, those who are engaged in these fundamental things. Most of the vitality of public action comes from outside the government. The government does not originate. It responds to public opinion. You are all to regard yourselves as forces playing upon the government, and I hope that during the next four years you will find a sensitive part of the government at the top."

#### GOVERNOR SULZER'S HEALTH COMMISSION

Governor Sulzer has given the people of the Empire State an earnest of what he intends to do for public health by the appointment of a special commission. For this commission he has chosen men of experience, some of international repute, in matters pertaining to public health. The chairman is Dr. Herman M. Biggs, general med-



ical officer of the New York City Department of Health. He is a member of the board of directors of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research and honorary fellow of the Sanitary Institute of Great Britain. The secretary is Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association; commissioner of charities of the city of New York during the administration of Mayor Low; and president of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. While commissioner of charities he established the first municipal tuberculosis hospital in the United States, and it was at his suggestion and under his general direction that a state-wide campaign against tuberculosis was undertaken in the state in 1907.

John A. Kingsbury, assistant secretary of the commission, was formerly assistant secretary of the State Charities Aid Association and had charge of the state-wide tuberculosis campaign until January, 1911, when he became general agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

The other five members of the commission are: Dr. Edward R. Baldwin of Saranac Lake, who has for many years been in charge of the Trudeau Laboratory for Investigating Tuberculosis; Dr. W. E. Milbank of Albany; M. Adelaide Nutting, professor of nursing and health at Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. John C. Otis, an authority on the prevention of typhoid fever; and Ansley Willcox, president of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society.

This commission is charged with the duty of revising the health laws of the state, of formulating new laws in so far as that is necessary and advisable, and of making recommendations in relation to the organization and administration of the State Department of Health. The commission is to report its recommendations to Governor Sulzer by February 15. Those who advised the governor in this matter urged that the information regarding health conditions in New York and indeed public health work throughout the country is years in advance of statutory formulation and administrative performance.

The commission has been quickly assembling material, holding public hearings in order to give both experts and laymen opportunity to make suggestions. It is announced that "the commission is informing itself as to existing facilities and resources within the state departments, the relations between the state and local health authorities as they are and as they ought to be, the relations between health authorities and the medical profession, the extent to which needed hospital provision has actually been made by local authorities for the isolation of contagious diseases which cannot otherwise be adequately segregated, and the best means of

making the latest advances in sanitary science and preventive medicine widely known among the people generally."

In 1911, the last year for which the figures are available, the total number of deaths in New York State was 145,538. The following table shows some of the principal causes and the number who died from each:

Pulmonary tuberculosis .....	14,179
Other forms of tuberculosis.....	2,339
Diphtheria .....	1,921
Typhoid fever .....	1,310
Scarlet fever .....	1,147
Measles .....	977
Whooping cough .....	810
Syphilis .....	629
Diarrhœa and enteritis (under two years of age) .....	7,290

All of the above are recognized as partially, if not wholly, preventable. The commission is assuming in its work that if these diseases are preventable, or to the extent to which they are preventable, the machinery with which to prevent them should be established without delay. It will recommend striking from the public health laws obsolete provisions which stand in the way of effective work by the state and local health authorities. It will suggest additional legislation. It will specify the further steps which can be taken by the state and local health authorities in relation to provision for incipient and advanced cases of tuberculosis; in relation to the reduction of typhoid fever to a point at least as low as that which already exists in some other communities where the problem is no more complicated than ours; in relation to the substantial reduction of the mortality from diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, whooping cough, as well as a further and substantial reduction of infant mortality.

#### THE BLIND IN NEW YORK STATE

As the result of a recent conference in New York, workers for the blind throughout the state are uniting in an effort to secure an appropriation of \$25,000 at the present session of the legislature for the establishment of a permanent state commission for the blind.

In 1906 a temporary commission was appointed by New York state to investigate the condition of the blind. Its report urged the creation of a permanent board. The bill drafted for that purpose, however, was not passed. Last year a bill providing for a permanent commission was vetoed by Governor Dix.

Believing that the subject would come up again for discussion this year, the State Charities Aid Association undertook to do two things: first, to verify and bring down to date the census of the blind in New York state outside of New York and Buffalo, which the 1906 commission had made; and, second, to call a conference of institutions and organiza-



tions interested in the welfare of the adult blind in New York to secure harmony of action.

The conference was attended by upwards of eighty workers, representing all the more important organizations and institutions for the blind in New York state. Many of those present were either partially or totally blind.<sup>1</sup>

Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, presented a summary of the census just completed.

The 607 found living in institutions may be classified as follows:

in hospitals for the insane.....	283
" almshouses .....	179
" institutions for the feeble-minded.....	36
" other institutions .....	109
	607

The 2,050 living in families may be classified as follows by means of support:

	Under 20	20-60	Over 60	Not stated	Total
Independent and comfortable..	4	78	249	30	361
Self-supporting .....	6	248	109	48	511
Dependent on family.....	101	283	373	39	796
Dependent on community.....	2	30	146	15	193
Very poor .....	2	8	12	2	24
None .....	8	34	49	5	96
Not stated .....	21	36	42	70	169
	144	717	980	200	2050

A striking feature of this report is the number of blind persons over 60 years of age: 980 of the 1,841 not in institutions, whose age is stated, or 53 per cent. This explains why it is that of 4,388 persons on the earlier lists about whom information was sought, 1,080 had died since either 1906 or 1910. It is for the aged, helpless blind that aid is especially needed.

The discussion at the conference showed most of those present to be in favor of a state com-

mission, though there was some difference of opinion as to the powers and duties with which it should be entrusted. A committee, consisting of C. A. Hamilton of Batavia, William Sheehan of Buffalo, Felix M. Warburg and Winifred Holt of New York and E. P. Morford of Brooklyn, was appointed to consider whether there should be a state commission, and if so, what its duties and powers should be.

This committee, which was instructed to report its findings to the legislature on behalf of the conference, has decided unanimously in favor of a state commission. With some amendments, it proposes to support the bill known as the Malone bill, already introduced into the legislature. This provides for the appointment of a New York State Commission for the Blind to consist of five persons appointed by the governor, without compensation, for a five-year term.

The duties of the commission will be to prepare and maintain a register of the blind; to aid the blind in finding employment and to teach them industries which may be followed in their homes; to establish and maintain one or more schools for industrial training and workshops for the employment of suitable blind persons; to promote visits and teaching in the homes of the blind; to make inquiry concerning the cause of blindness; and to inaugurate such preventive measures as seem wise. The bill, as introduced, provides that two members of the commission shall be blind; the committee, however, will recommend that this mandatory provision be omitted, though it will urge that one or more blind persons be appointed. The committee will recommend also an amendment to the bill, providing that in the employment of officers and agents the commission give preference to blind persons. More unique is the provision, which is to be recommended unless it is unconstitutional, that no person officially connected with any institution or organization for the blind may be appointed a member of the commission. The bill, as amended, will call for an appropriation of \$25,000.

If the bill is passed, New York will be following the lead of other states which have commissions for the blind. Massachusetts was the first to create such a body in 1906; Ohio followed in 1908 and New Jersey, Delaware and Utah in 1909. The powers and duties of the Massachusetts, Ohio, and Utah commissions are similar to those of the proposed commission for New York. The New Jersey commission, which has only three members, is not empowered to conduct schools and workshops or to provide industrial aid or home teaching. The Delaware commission, with seven members, is concerned chiefly with the education of the blind and may employ instructors for that purpose.

<sup>1</sup>Among these were W. I. Scandlin, field agent of the New York Association for the Blind; E. P. Morford, superintendent of the Industrial Home for the Blind in Brooklyn and a member of the 1906 commission; F. L. Frost of the Albany Association for the Blind; Edward Tyson of the Brooklyn Blind People's Club; and William Sheehan of the Buffalo Association for the Blind. Joseph H. Choute, president of the State Charities Aid Association, presided. Among others present were Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association; John M. Glenn, general director of the Russell Sage Foundation; Dr. E. Park Lewis of Buffalo, president of the State School for the Blind at Batavia; Winifred Holt, secretary of the New York Association for the Blind; Louisa Lee Schuyler, chairman of the Committee on the Prevention of Blindness of the New York Association for the Blind; Howland Davis, president of the New York Institution for the Blind; C. A. Hamilton, superintendent of the State School for the Blind at Batavia; Felix M. Warburg of the New York Association for the Blind; Prof. E. A. Allen of Perkins Institution, Boston, and a member of the Massachusetts Commission for the Blind; and O. H. Burritt, secretary of the 1906 commission and now superintendent of the Pennsylvania State Institution for the Blind at Overbrook.



## EDITORIAL GRIST

### INDEMNITY FOR ERRORS OF JUSTICE

JAMES P. HEATON

Because we have persisted in the assumption that only guilty persons are ever convicted of crime, the United States has failed to provide legal reparation for the victims of the errors of justice. Andrew Toth, convicted of murder, after lying for twenty years in a Pennsylvania prison, was found to have been innocent. He was released and left stranded by the state without the slightest redress under the laws of the commonwealth. The legislature even declined to pass a special act of compensation. The British Parliament has several times done this under similar circumstances, as for instance in the famous case of Adolf Beck who was sentenced to penal servitude largely on the testimony of a number of women and on the careless examination of identification marks.

The case so shook the faith of the English people in the fallibility of the courts as to bring about an important change in the judicial system of the entire kingdom, and a Court of Criminal Appeals was established. In our own country it was only through the generosity of a private citizen that Andrew Toth secured a modest pension to stand between him and starvation. This enabled the unfortunate man to return to Hungary, his native country. Unlike ten European nations and Mexico, we apparently balked at putting on our statute books any law which concedes that our system of justice may through an error deprive a citizen of his liberty. If the state takes private property, the owner is recompensed. In certain minor cases when the individual is compelled temporarily to give up his liberty for public purposes such as for jury or witness duty he is compensated. But if the public unjustly imprisons a man by mistake, puts him to a heavy expense for lawyers, cuts off his power to earn a living and perhaps exacts a fine, the government offers no compensation. Yet the Federal Court of Claims is a striking example of the fact that the state should scrupulously fulfill its obligations and right its wrongs by judicial inquiry.

An act to correct this situation in cases arising under federal jurisdiction has been drafted by Edwin M. Borchard, law librarian of Congress. The bill has been introduced in the United States Senate by Senator George Sutherland and provides that any person who after a conviction proves to be innocent may within six months petition the Court of Claims to be in-

demnified for the pecuniary injury he sustained. The claimant has the burden of proving not only his innocence but also that he has not by his acts or negligence contributed to bring about his sentence. The granting of the relief is discretionary and the amount limited to \$5,000.

The bill can easily be adapted to the judicial systems of the various commonwealths for state cases. In fact this year the subject is being urged in Massachusetts, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Missouri and Illinois. Massachusetts by an act passed in 1911 already authorizes compensation for lost income to acquitted or discharged persons confined in excess of six months while awaiting trial. The reason why serious consideration has not been given this reform in the past lies partly in the basic principle that personal sacrifice must often be borne for the general good and partly in the fact that it is nobody's interest to agitate for such a law. No business interests are affected and no considerable numbers of citizens are directly concerned. Only casual victims suffer, though their number is greater than any one realizes, and they have not enough influence unaided to secure the passage of such an act of justice. Yet the obligation of the state in this matter is so obvious that as Jeremy Bentham, the first champion of the reform in England, declared it is a question whether an attempt to demonstrate it does not obscure the issue.

### FILM SHOWS AND LAWMAKERS

JOHN COLLIER

People's Institute, New York

New York city, after a four years' struggle for the intelligent regulation of its motion picture theaters, is still waiting for the Board of Aldermen to enact the first constructive legislation for which it will have been responsible in half a decade. The situation, apart from a recent set back which marks a crisis, is not unique. No American city has as yet regulated its motion picture shows in a scientific way and any attempt to do so runs counter both to thoughtless prejudice and powerful special interests.

It is well to point out just what is involved in the question of motion picture theater regulation. New York has 800 motion picture theaters; the United States has 16,000. The total audience is over 400,000 every day in New York and fully 7,000,000 in the country at large. About 60,000 children attend the New York picture theaters daily. The motion picture has become one of the dominant agencies in what Tolstoi calls the "unconscious education" of the people.

THE SURVEY of January 20, 1912, contained an account of the Folks Ordinance. This measure proposes to increase the seating capacity of pic-



ture theaters from a maximum of 300 to a maximum of 600. It creates a motion theater with music, song and recitative, but without vaudeville in costume. It goes minutely into the conditions of ventilation, sanitation, lighting and safeguarding against fire. It reinforces the authority already possessed by the license bureau, in which the responsibility for regulation is centered, to control the programs morally through a power to revoke licenses for moral offense. The measure also provides inspectors to enforce the powers of the license bureau.

This ordinance was framed by a committee appointed by the mayor after six months of work, and was endorsed by most of the civic and social agencies of New York. Month after month passed and the aldermen did nothing. The opposition came from the vaudeville interests, which would suffer from the effect of the ordinance; from the theaters, which feared the competition of the enlarged and improved motion picture shows; from the small exhibitors, who feared the competition of improved shows in their neighborhoods; and finally, from people who insisted upon the censorship of films before they were first publicly exhibited.

The effective opposition came from the special interests; the plausible argument from the advocates of advance official censorship. Tammany agreed with these people and insisted on burdening the Folks ordinance with a clause providing for a pre-publicity censorship of films.

The fusion members of the board of aldermen finally agreed to accept the censorship amendment on the plea that the mayor could veto the amendment separately. Tammany thought the mayor had no such power, and the ordinance, thus vitiated, subject to the mayor's doubtful power to exercise a discriminating veto, was enacted almost unanimously. The mayor decided that he could not select as between desirable and undesirable features and vetoed the whole ordinance because of the censorship amendment. The mayor thought pre-publicity censorship was fundamentally unconstitutional and was likewise, in its immediate application, unnecessary. The mayor said in part:

"In our fundamental instruments of government in this country, which we call constitutions, we expressly guaranteed from the beginning free speech and a free press, and prohibited the passing of any law abridging the same. The provision in the constitution of this state on that subject is substantially that publications, whether oral, or printed or by writing, or by pictures, shall not be restrained in advance, but that everyone shall be free to speak or publish what he sees fit, subject to being prosecuted afterward for libel, immorality, obscenity or indecency therefor.

"When I became mayor I had an official ex-

amination made of all moving picture theaters in this city. The result was actual proof and an official report that there were no obscene or immoral pictures shown in these places. And that is the truth now.

"At all events the criminal law is ample to prevent the exhibition of such pictures. I have asked these people who are crying out against the moving-picture shows to give me an instance of an obscene or immoral picture being shown in them, so that the exhibitor may be prosecuted, but they have been unable to do so."

The mayor concluded by urging the aldermen to enact the original Folks ordinance.

As a net result, New York is still without a law for the regulation of its picture theaters. The minority who refused even to consider the separate enactment of a censorship and insisted on the injection of censorship into the Folks ordinance, are without censorship, and the city is without a law regulating the structure, sanitation, etc., of picture theaters.

What the aldermen may now do is problematic. They may conceivably over-ride the mayor's veto and pass the ordinance with its amendment, in which case the amendment and possibly the whole ordinance will be tied up in court review for a long time to come. Or the Board of Aldermen may finally, after the past year's agitation, enact the original Folks ordinance.

There are several morals to draw from the efforts to regulate motion pictures in New York. One of these is that the regulation of motion picture theaters is a complex matter requiring scientific study and involving the solution of almost new problems of municipal regulation. Another is that any thorough-going attempt to regulate motion picture shows will excite the same silent but potent special-interest opposition that always confronts a sincere attempt to regulate any of the commercialized amusements.

The third moral is that the special interests and their representatives are always glad to use the emotional clamor of good people as a cloak behind which they can get what they want.

Meanwhile, New York's wage-earners and children suffer.

That this statement is no exaggeration is proved by the death in New York on February 2 of two women and by injuries to nineteen people in an accident in a moving picture theater. This case, which illustrates the need for intelligent regulation, happened after the main part of this article was in type. Nearly 1,000 people were crowded in a theater arranged to seat 300. A puff of smoke from the film booth led to the cry of "fire" and a panic followed. The fire commissioner said correctly that the place had conformed to all the laws and was just as safe as dozens of other shows in New York.



## THE IMMIGRATION BILL

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN

New York School of Philanthropy

After many vicissitudes the immigration bill of the winter session of Congress started on its way to the President for approval on February 1. We say "the bill" rather doubtfully, for it is a question whether so many things as the bill has been can be covered by one name.

Starting out as the Dillingham bill of last year, a literacy test was inserted somewhat less drastic than that dropped in last year's session, and then it was shorn of all its remaining provisions. The bill in this form was passed by the House, but rejected by the Senate, throwing the whole matter back to the conference committee. Here a bill was framed which again included a literacy test and also a number of other provisions along the line of the original Dillingham bill. This was promptly passed by the House. One new provision not noticed before its passage aroused instant and vigorous protest—the requirement of a certificate of character from immigrants coming from countries which issue such certificates. It was explained that this clause was framed particularly to exclude members of the so-called "Black Hand," "Camorra," or other bands of criminals, and that it would apply to Italy alone—the only country which grants such certificates. Those who opposed the provision felt, however, that it might easily be made a means of religious or political persecution by a foreign government, and was dangerous and obnoxious on that account. The offending clause was accordingly stricken out, and after another journey to the conference committee to correct an error in draughting, the bill was finally passed by both Houses.

Among other changes, the new bill provides for an increase in the head tax from \$4 to \$5; excludes aliens not eligible for naturalization; establishes heavier penalties against steamships advertising illegally or bringing ineligible aliens; provides for the stationing of matrons, inspectors and surgeons on immigrant ships and for experts in insanity at the large ports of entry; provides for the establishment of immigrant stations in the interior; and orders the deportation of aliens who become criminals in three years subsequent to entry. The most radical change—or what has seemed the most radical—is the literacy test. As framed in this bill, it excludes persons over eighteen years of age who are unable to read in some language, but permits any admissible immigrant to bring in or send for a father or grandfather over fifty-five years old, or the women of his immediate family, if otherwise admissible, whether they can read or not. This amounts practically to the exclusion only of adult males unable to read.

So much has been said for and against the literacy test on the supposition, shared by both sides, that it would exclude the great mass of our unskilled labor force, that it seems worth while to consider a little more closely just what effect it would have.

In 1911, the last year for which we have illiteracy statistics for immigrants, 122,735 of the 878,587 immigrants admitted were males of fourteen years and over who could not read. Of these 51,347 were Italians; 40,800 were Slavs of the various stocks, or Magyars or Roumanians; 9,715 were Greeks, Armenians, Syrians or Turks; 6,453 were Hebrews, and only 2,845 were from all the principal north and west European countries. Not all of these would have been excluded, as those from fourteen to eighteen would have been let in according to the present test. Even if all had been excluded, this would have meant a cut of only 14 per cent in the total immigration, and while nearly all those excluded would have been the southern and eastern peoples, their proportion to the total immigration would have been reduced very little—from 68 per cent, as the record actually shows, to 63 per cent.

The same relative reduction in our heaviest recent year of immigration, 1907, would have given a total of 1,105,401,—a figure considerable in itself and far above that of any ordinary "light" year.

It would seem, then, that both those who fear and those who hope for a radical change in the volume and character of our immigration are likely to be disappointed.

Furthermore, it is strangely taken for granted by both sides that the illiterate immigrant is a fixed quantity. On the contrary, we will venture to predict that a literacy test for immigrants to this country will be the last decisive spur to the peasants of Italy to take advantage of the rapidly developing school system of their country and become a literate people. Much the same thing will happen in Austria and Hungary; while the Hebrews from all these countries need no further stimulus, since less than 7 per cent are now recorded as illiterate within the definition of the new law.

It is strange, also, that in all the discussion of the literacy test no one has seemed to look at it as a positive advantage to the immigrant.

Those who wanted to help the immigrant opposed the test; those who favored the test did so mainly because they thought it would keep the immigrant out. Yet illiteracy is helplessness, and it is the helpless immigrant who is underpaid, overworked, cheated and despoiled, maimed and injured, and trodden under foot generally, to become a sorrow to himself and a burden to the community.



## THE TREND OF THINGS

THE following is the record, according to Robert W. Bruere (Where Philanthropy Fails, the *Metropolitan*), of a true case copied from a dispensary record. It is used to illustrate how medical, and other, philanthropies "handle their cases without reference to the industrial causes which produce them."

It is perhaps a better illustration of the lack of centralization of responsibility for charity cases attended by medical students:

Booth, Mrs. David. Case reported by society nurse who had been visiting a patient in same building. Obstetrical nurse sent at once. Found woman in serious condition: Tem. 103; P. 128; R. 28. Bathed mother and baby.

Learned following details from a neighbor, who has been with patient off and on during illness: Woman's first baby. Husband earns \$5.00 a week when on full time; is on part time and threatened with loss of place if he stays out one day. No one to look after woman but neighbors; often alone for hours. Baby came Friday night, five days ago. Delivered by "Hospital Doctor," and left without ordinary attention. Until nurse called, patient had not had hands or face washed; in absence of proper wrappings neighbor had bound old rag about her; no bedside attendance.

On Saturday, woman very ill; suffering severe pain. Second "Hospital Doctor" called; assured woman that she was getting on well, that suffering was natural. Each succeeding morning, different "Hospital Doctor" called, one ordering an ice cap, the next a hot water bottle, but none taking radical measures to relieve woman's condition. (These were student doctors.)

On fifth day, Professor brought in (by a student doctor who had a perplexed conscience as well as a puzzled judgment). Professor immediately saw cause of trouble; said woman must go to hospital for operation, but must wait a few days until stronger. Ordered her to be propped in Fowler's position, but as there was no one to prop her, order not carried out. Wednesday, Society nurse found woman in condition reported above.

Thursday. Found baby crying pitifully from hunger. "Hospital Doctor" told mother she must not nurse baby because her milk is not good, but did not tell her what to give instead; for twenty-four hours, baby has had nothing but sugar and water and a little fennel tea. Mother a little better; encouraged by Professor's visit.

Friday. Mother very much worse,—high temperature and frequent chills. Found neighbors gathered in back room of the two-room flat, tensely discussing situation. They

had repeatedly telephoned to Hospital's district office; finally one woman had gone in person and said, "If something is not done quickly, she will die," and was told, "We can't help that—we are doing all we can." Though themselves very poor, they decided to send out and pay a doctor to see Mrs. Booth. Dr. K— of S— St. came, but refused case when told it was in charge of "Hospital Doctors." He 'phoned, however, to ask why Hospital did not take woman in. They asked who he was, and why he interfered. But at 9 P. M. they sent doctor. Neighbors now in a frenzy. One woman called doctor aside and rebuked him for neglecting Mrs. Booth. He became angry, and without looking at patient left, saying: "Since you know my business better than I, you doctor her. I dismiss the case; I refuse to have anything further to do with her."

Saturday. Neighbors again sent for private doctor this morning. Dr. G— came, but like Dr. K— declined the case. Nurse called this afternoon and found patient in desperate condition. Tem. 105; P. 136; R. 30. Repeated chills, vomiting, and agonizing pain.

'Phoned to Hospital at once. Was told that case had been dismissed for good reasons, and they did not care to discuss it. Reported to Society. Head Worker got Hospital Superintendent on 'phone, and after stormy interview received promise that woman would be received. At 7 P. M. ambulance called.

\* \* \*

IN ITS announcement for 1913 the *Youth's Companion* promises an article by Sir Horace Plunkett, founder of the Irish Agricultural Organization Society, which is to bring out the point that "as European farmers were driven to co-operation by competition of other countries, so the American farmers must organize to hold their own against other interests in their own country."

Henry Wallace, president of the National Conservation Congress, will contribute an article during the year on the Socialization of Farm Life.

The Girls' Page, the Boys' Page and the Family Page will be supplied with material by representatives of no less than twenty-two universities and thirteen colleges. Teachers in six technical schools, thirteen agricultural colleges, numerous private schools and the public secondary schools of nine cities will also give authoritative information in their especial fields. Eleven normal schools will be represented in the forthcoming series of articles on teaching as well as the departments of public instruction of twelve states and eight library commissions. In the planning of the pages six governors or ex-governors have given their counsel.

\* \* \*

CHARLES E. WOODRUFF of the United States Medical Corps tells us in effect in the *Medical Record* that we have in the high



cost of living a benevolent force paralleled only as a check to the Malthusian law by the plague of the Middle Ages and the famine of the Orient. He puts it thus:

A certain percentage of every society—the least efficient—are in such chronic want that proper nutriment is beyond their reach. It won't do to say it ought to be given them when we see shiploads of food leave our harbors to be purchased by abler men abroad. We cannot prevent the owners from selling to the highest bidders while there are thousands who are underfed here. We witness children growing up into degenerates the world over through sheer underfeeding. Nor will it do to say that in time we will raise enough food for all, as man has been at that very thing ever since he planted the first grain. That is, there is always a demand for more food than exists, and man is always trying to raise more to prevent the distress and cause more to survive, but the only result has been more survivors with the same percentage on the poverty line, and many beyond, to die at the first poor harvest. A thousand years will not change a phenomenon which has been going on for many millions, and which is the cause of all advances by survival of the fittest for survival.

\* \* \*

#### UNTO OTHERS

GEORGE W. PRIEST in *Collier's*.

A song of those within the desert places—  
The dull, the strange, the erring of all lands;  
Who face the future with despairing faces,  
And stretch forth pleading, unavailing hands.

The heirs of poverty, the slaves of weakness,  
The arrogant who will not heed commands;  
The spiritless who wear a coward's meekness,  
The desperate who spill life's creeping sands.

Oh! holders of the prized and vantage places,  
Oh! slayers of the peaceful, happy days,  
Oh! scions of the wise and favored races,  
Oh! revelers along the sunny ways—

I beg a moment's pause, with earnest faces,  
That common blood and Fatherland demands;  
A prayer for those within the dreary places  
Who stretch forth pleading, unavailing hands.

\* \* \*

**McCLURES** has started a department by Inez Millholland, directed particularly to the interests of women. An article on the suffrage in last month's issue by Wallace Irwin and Miss Millholland expressed the belief that, the vote won, the work of the women citizens of the future shall be

To compel decency in party management;  
to grant the poor the right of beauty in removing unsightly buildings and hideous signs from our river-fronts and woodlands;  
to give to little children the real justice of light, food and play; to make war unnecessary; to make our cities fit to live in and our streets safe for the young; to dignify motherhood by protection from the slavery of the mills; to increase the standard of living and reduce its cost; and to supplant by



Minor in *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*.  
THE WOLF AT THE DOOR

enlightened industry the dull torpor of our submerged mass.

\* \* \*

**NO WORKER** for public or private corporation has a harder job than the traffic policeman at a windy crossing, especially on a winter's day. According to the *Scientific American*, the city of Indianapolis recognizes this fact, by appropriating \$700 for placing small heaters at twelve downtown street crossings, on which the traffic policemen can stand to keep his feet warm.

\* \* \*

#### DISCONTENT.

**BERTON BRALEY** in the *Industrial Worker*, an organ of the revolutionary labor movement.

I am Discontent.

I am the Poe of Things as They Are.

The Fighter for Things as They Ought to Be.

It was my unrest with Chaos that brought about the ordered Universe.

And my presence in the brain of the Anthropoid Ape was the beginning of Human Progress.

Through the ages I have burned in the hearts of men, driving them ever forward to better things.

I have been the inspiration of poets, the Urge of warriors, the impulse of statesmen and the Ardor of martyrs.

Good and Tyranny and Sloth and Privilege have ever reviled me, for they held me in fear, knowing me for their inevitable doom.

Kingdoms and Empires have risen and fallen because of me, deserts have blossomed for me. Creeds and religions have come and gone for my sake.

I am the spirit of Invention, of Achievement, of Reform.

I am the lover of True Order, but the hater of Established Evil and Vested Injustice.

I am the flame in which the Dross of things is consumed that the Pure Metal may remain.

I make the Thinkers think and the Dreamer dream.

I am Doubt, I am Change, I am Progress.

I am Discontent.



SOME months ago the *Outlook* published the recollections of a prisoner in a New York state prison under the title *Behind the Bars*. An editorial note explained that although the name of the author was withheld the magazine was assured by trustworthy evidence that the article was from the pen of a prisoner and was the record of actual experience. This article gave rise to correspondence between the author of *Behind the Bars* and a well-known, public-spirited physician of New York. *THE SURVEY* is permitted to print the following interesting extracts from the correspondence of the prisoner.

"You probably noted that in my article I did not name the particular prison in which I was confined nor the county jail where I was detained. I hardly care to in this letter, but I will say to you that to my certain knowledge men waiting trial in the jails of Erie, Onondaga, and Oneida counties are allowed to mingle with other men so situated. Frankly, I do not approve of it. It tends to make the younger men in crime familiar with the 'triumphs' of older men who, themselves satisfied to fight society, embellish their deeds until they seem to be real achievements.

"I recall one instance that came under my observation. A man but three months out of prison assaulted and robbed a citizen in an up-state city. He was arrested and spent some weeks in the same jail where I was. I had taken a great interest in a young lad, not twenty, who was detained as a burglar. The man to whom I refer used to sit by the hour telling the lad of his adventures and throwing around them a glamor which made him appear a sort of

Robin Hood. Result: the lad pleaded guilty and was released on a suspended sentence. Within one week he was trying a 'crooked' scheme this man had taught him.

"I sincerely believe that on the whole the prisons of New York are decently managed but it is a disgrace that all three are structural anachronisms. Think of locking men in cells as small as are the ones I describe. The doors are grated and at Sing Sing the lower half is solid. There is no free circulation of air at all and that the general health is so good is remarkable. I presume the new prison at Comstock is free from this objection.

"I could not speak of what follows in an article such as the one I wrote the *Outlook*. What General McGlaughry calls the 'hellish cell bucket' is still used for all excretions. The 'morning walk' to which I refer in the article is taken that each man may empty his bucket. On Saturday\* they are emptied in the morning, then the men have to live with them until the following Monday morning. The stench Monday mornings is often almost unbearable. If the state cannot build new prisons it could at least tear out the cell blocks and put in new, steel construction with modern closets that can be flushed. It does seem as though a rich state like New York might spare the money for this needed improvement."

\* \* \*

#### GRIM HUMOR

"He's one of our most successful financiers."  
"That so? I didn't know he was rich."

"He isn't. But he's supporting a family of five on \$12 a week."—*New York Call*.



#### THE TWELVE-HOUR DAY

Had you ever thought of working twelve hours in one day? At one task? Before a row of two or three thousand degree furnaces? Amid the rattle of wheels and chains, the roar of air-blasts, the hiss and sputter of metal, and the crack of cannon-like explosions? All about you a vast menagerie of ponderous and awesome machinery, darting long arms, swinging huge caldrons of liquid-fire in the semi-darkness over your head, twirling mighty Bessemer converters with their grumbling molten maws, or pushing past you coffinlike shapes of white-hot metal that glowed incandescently? Always the intense heat, always the presence of danger, always the spur of the speeding-up system to keep you stumbling forward, intent on getting out the tonnage?

Had you thought of doing that for one hour? And then for two? And then for three, and four, and seven, and finally for twelve hours? Had you? . . . That is the barbaric twelve-hour day which obtains in the steel industry.

—P. C. MacFarlane in the January *Metropolitan*



## PERSONALS

**I**F you could have seen "Don" North, crowned with a chaplet of green leaves one night last August, leading the initiation at the Springfield Boys' Club summer camp up in the Berkshires, and bidding his fiercely mustached henchmen administer the Royal Niagara or Royal O-tis-Why to candidates, you would have found the fun contagious and have voted him a real "boys' man." But had you seen him exactly one week later, you would have realized that he is a rare spirit, one who is fit to actually lead, not merely direct, boys. On this evening the boys who had brought the mail from the distant Berkshire post-office burst into camp with the bad news that a "state farm boy" had burned the house in Springfield where Mr. North was staying.

Piqued, because he had been asked to sleep in a tent instead of in the house, he had destroyed Mr. North's furniture, records, library—all the property he possessed, even including his wardrobe. An hour afterward the writer, coming to the campfire, saw this leader of boys talking to a group; there were the usual upturned faces, and the frequent laughter that one expects when Donald North is on deck. Thinking of what a loss he had just suffered, it seemed certain that the boys had spared him the news of his loss. How else could he be so light-hearted now? And so he was asked whether he had seen the account of the fire, and if he was insured. But he only smiled thoughtfully and put his arm around the smallest boy (whose parents are dead), saying, "No—now I'm just as hard up as you, eh, Jiggy?" and the fun went on.

Afterward I found out why he smiled so thoughtfully after this particularly hard knock. His early boyhood was spent in the shadow of Southwark Cathedral and Lambeth Palace, in the heart of London. His father, who was an architect, had his office "atte Bowe," opposite Chaucer's Southwark Inn. Luck broke against him early and, while a mere boy, he was fighting hard for a living. Of these days his friend, George Budd, now of Holyoke, Mass., writes, "At eighteen he sat in the paybox of the Allan Line on East India Docks, London, and kept his nerve when gunshots came through the window. When ill luck came his way he tackled any rough job. When a Malay cook came at him with a kriss he knew just how to show that cook what is meant by 'a kriss for a blow,' or when there was a strike, he took on a wharf or engine-room job. In an incredibly short time Donald reached a responsible position in the service, and became his captain's intimate and personal friend. He never came home from any voyage without tokens of appreciation from some good men, and many were the invitations he had to settle in all the four quarters of the globe."

Although scarcely twenty-five years old, he was a self-made man already. Then his ship was wrecked. Many opportunities ashore were beckoning to him. Life's pleasantest ways were

opening to this young man, whose freshness of spirit and unselfish tact had made him a favorite with wealthy people as well as with the less fortunate. At this time he saw the forking of the ways, but chose to cast in his lot with the friendless.

He entered the physical directors' course at the Young Men's Christian Association College at Springfield, Mass. There he soon became a leader, not only in studies and athletics, but particularly among the class of boys who need help. For two years he was volunteer superintendent of the small local Boys' Club. When he graduated he was at once recognized as the one man to continue the work.

Within two years he had so stirred the business men of Springfield that he was able to build a clubhouse for the 2000 boy members. The citizens subscribed \$60,000 for this purpose in one week.

The boys themselves did much to secure this sum, and certainly the business men themselves helped a great deal. But what really worked the miracle of making the hard-headed western Massachusetts Yankee chip in so generously was the clean-cut, square young man who seems born for this work. For there are few people who are as hard physically as Don North, or as tender spiritually. Children appreciate such people. It makes no difference how selfish a boy has been made by indulgent parents, or how hard by cruel and drunken parents—they all follow him as though he had the pipe of the piper of Hamelin.

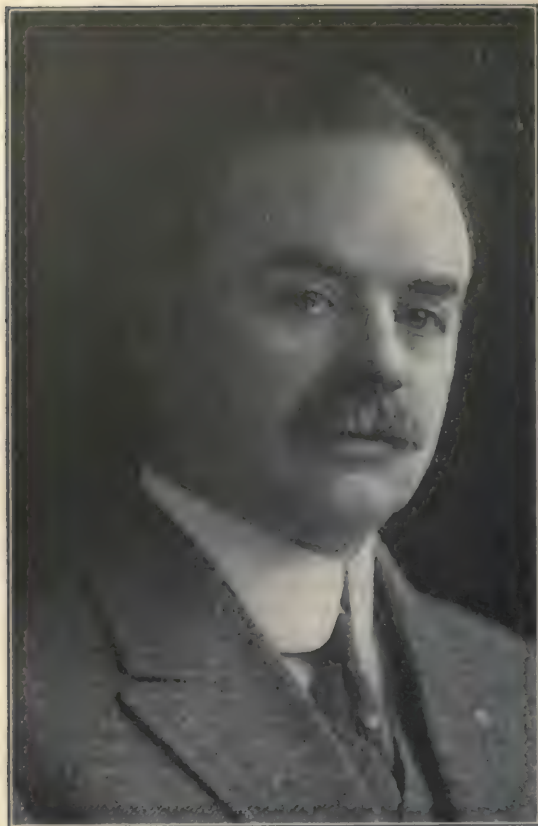
Mr. North is juvenile probation officer of the city and county, and it is interesting to note that there is a truly scientific method to his work. He is emphatic in warning those who deal with young "offenders" that they must avoid at any cost "snap" judgments. He urges that special, not uniformed police officers should be detailed regularly to look up the antecedents and records of boys and girls who are brought into court. He is a keen diagnostician of character. He never ends his experiments with boy character. They are practical, too, these experiments. During the six years of his work with boys the number of youths brought into court in Springfield has been reduced more than 60 per cent.

Every agency is at work in this Springfield Boys' Club. Athletics of every sort, from boxing and wrestling to pool and games before the open fire, are encouraged. Last year there were over 1,000 lessons given in carpentry, and many more in pottery, cobbling, drawing. Every kind of gymnastics is taught. The club has a savings bank, an employment bureau, an orchestra, and a swimming pool which is not yet completed. Several patrols of boy scouts are active.

It is not strange that Catholics and Jews, fine ladies and policemen, clergymen and "hard guys" all fall into the same tone when they speak of this man. With unending sympathy in his heart and a quiet smile on his lips, he goes on hoping where he cannot believe, always working like a Trojan for the friendless, the poor and even the criminal boy.

WALDO ADLER.





R. M. LITTLE

**R. M. LITTLE**, who recently accepted the general secretaryship of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, is a graduate of Monmouth College and of the Allegheny Divinity School. He was also a graduate student in the University of Chicago, and a student in the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. While serving in a pastorate in Chicago, he became interested in social work, particularly in the field of charity organization.

Francis H. McLean, general secretary of the National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, writes thus of Mr. Little and his work:

"The force of his personality, and his natural abilities of leadership made him very soon one of the most valuable volunteers in the Chicago Bureau of Charities. He served an apprenticeship in the Woodlawn District, and then became chairman of the general advisory committee. Later he was a member of the central board.

"Mr. Little took charge of a church in Bellevue, a suburb of Pittsburgh, about the time that the Pittsburgh Associated Charities was organized. It may be safely said that the fate of that organization depended in the early troublesome days upon the service which Mr. Little gave it outside of his regular duties. The writer remembers vis-

iting Mr. Little and insisting that he must lend his personality and his large and varied experience in the work to the new organization which, born at the time of a financial crisis, was desperately struggling for life. Since then his service has been continuous, and his knowledge of the work as intimate as that of a paid worker."

Mr. Little has served upon many committees and boards of other social agencies. He was the prime mover in the campaign resulting in the establishment of the Allegheny County Industrial and Training School for Boys. At the present time he is a member of the boards of the Boys' School, Woods Run Settlement, and the Milk and Ice Association. Last year he was president of the Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Corrections.

\* \* \*

**A** FEW weeks before the death of Mary Graham Jones of Hartford, Conn., who did so much during her life for the betterment of child life and neighborhood life in her native city, she submitted to the city authorities a plan for providing small local playgrounds for young children in various parts of the city. Her scheme was that each playground should be near enough to its neighborhood to make it convenient and safe for the children to reach and use it. The report recommended the leasing from the city at nominal rent of a dozen or more vacant lots, the preparation of the lots to be in the hands of the park department and their supervision in the hands of the department of education.

The juvenile commission of Hartford petitioned the Board of Aldermen for permission to lease these lots and for an appropriation to pay for their support. The request was granted and \$2,500 was allowed for the first year's expense. Nearly all this sum was expended and the work was carried out under the supervision of the superintendent of parks, with various successful results. It seems highly probable that the work will be continued another summer and perhaps something may be done during the winter to provide for skating and like sports.

Thus the citizens of Hartford feel that Miss Jones has left their children a city-wide playground system as an enduring legacy. The Mary Graham Jones Playground is the name given by the North Street Settlement of Hartford to a place set aside for all neighborhood children under nine years of age. Miss Jones had spent sixteen years in settlement and child welfare work in Hartford. In 1900 she became head-worker of the North Street Settlement.

\* \* \*

**THE** American Home Economics Association asks the co-operation of all who are interested in establishing a memorial to Ellen H. Richards, first president of the association and founder of the *Journal of Home Economics*, who died last year. The memorial is to take the form of a fund to start with \$10,000 for research, investigation and publication along the lines of the work of the association. Benjamin R. Andrews, Teachers' College, New York, is secretary.



## COMMUNICATIONS

### THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE

[THE SURVEY is glad to publish the following letter, at the joint request of sender and recipient.—Ed.]

MR. FRANK TUCKER, President  
National Conference of  
Charities and Correction,  
New York, N. Y.

DEAR SIR:

I attended my first Conference of Charities and Correction last year in Cleveland. I had been told, "Go to the National Conference to get acquainted, and you will be inspired by meeting and talking with the foremost leaders in this work."

I stayed at the Hollenden, wore a badge to show I was a member of the conference, and attended the meetings. No one spoke to me and I indeed felt a stranger in a strange land.

Each day for a week I saw the same people, meeting them sometimes in the elevator or the restaurant of the hotel, or in the business headquarters of the conference. I saw people who knew each other having the pleasantest kind of times together. I saw these same people at the meetings and heard them speak of co-operation, etc.; yet how are we new people to meet up with the conference members if no one even passes the time of day with us?

I am not the only one who feels this way. I heard two women talking on this subject. One said she had been going to the conference for five years and knew very few people. She said, as my friend had told me, that in personal conversation with co-workers one gets more out of the conference than at the meetings. Besides this year the people from the same state could not get acquainted, for at the morning session of the states it was not arranged as usual for the people from the same states to sit together. I heard many people complain of this.

I am twenty-five years of age, a college graduate, and well dressed. I am willing to meet people half way. I write this letter to commend the man who from the platform at one of the sessions said "conference members should be more friendly, they should welcome new faces."

Would it not be possible at the Seattle conference, where in all probability fewer delegates will be present, to begin the practice that every person wearing a conference badge must speak and make an effort to be friendly to those wearing the same kind of badge.

As president, Mr. Tucker, this will be your conference. Do this for the conference members. Speak to all yourself and ask such as Dr. Devine, F. H. McLean, Jane Addams, Mary Richmond, Alice Higgins, E. P. Bicknell, C. C. Carstens and H. Folks, to do the same. The others will do as you prominent people lead.

Before the conference begins have notices sent to all the members that the slogan of the fortieth Conference of Charities and Correction be "LET EVERY ONE SPEAK TO EVERY ONE ELSE," and

let it be the phrase for the future of the greatest gathering of people in the country, viz the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

I write this in the name of the many lonely people who attend the above mentioned conference.

Yours very truly,  
A MEMBER OF THE CONFERENCE.

### COUNTY CONFERENCES

TO THE EDITOR:

Following the suggestion in THE SURVEY of December 14 that the time is ripe for the organization of county conferences of charities and correction, it is encouraging to report that the suggestion has been approved by the Board of County Commissioners of Hennepin County, Minnesota, and a resolution promising co-operation on the part of the board has been adopted. The addition of health to the subjects charities and correction was made at the suggestion of the state health department, the officials of which participated in the last state conference of charities and correction.

The county conference is not intended to take the place of any existing organization, but it is intended to provide a way for an intelligent survey of the county as the field of study, to discover the causes contributing to poverty, delinquency, and disease, the character and cost of the means appointed for their prevention and relief, and ways whereby efforts may be unified, and better team work promoted.

The resolution referred to is worthy of publicity here:

"Resolved: That in pursuance of the request that this board invite and co-operate with other organizations to secure the organization of the Hennepin County Conference of Charities, Correction, and Health, we will so co-operate, and will grant the use of our rooms for their meetings."

With this for a starter, county conferences may come into fashion.

C. E. FAULKNER.

Minneapolis, Minn.

### THE SALEM TRIAL

TO THE EDITOR:

I am much obliged to Mrs. La Monte for her comment upon my recent letter in reference to Ettor and Giovannitti.<sup>1</sup> It shows that I did not make myself clear. Let me try again.

There was a strike at Lawrence. In the course of this strike some innocent persons were killed. It became the duty of the state to investigate the facts and, if possible, to detect and punish the persons who were guilty of the crime. In this case, as in the recent case of Becker, it was plain that the persons who instigated the shooting were the most culpable. Suspicion fell upon the two persons referred to. They had come to Lawrence, not to make peace between the contending parties, but to convince the strikers

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, Dec. 14, 1912, page 330.



that they had been suffering great wrongs from their employers. Their language was inflammatory: they naturally fell under suspicion. At least thirteen citizens of Massachusetts composed the grand jury, who agreed that there was probable cause to believe that these two persons were guilty of instigating the crime of murder. Accordingly, they were put on their trial.

Now, it seems to me that if we are going to have protection for innocent hard-working people and they are to be secure in walking our streets without being shot, the state could not have done less than it did. What I objected to in my letter was the giving of sympathy, under the circumstances, to these two persons. It is true that the trial jury rendered a verdict of not guilty; but all this verdict means under our law is, that the evidence did not prove them guilty beyond all reasonable doubt. Our law is very merciful, and they got the benefit of the doubt. I hope that the fact that they were tried and kept in prison for a time, even though finally acquitted, will be a warning to those persons in this country who think that revolution and dynamite are the best way to redress social wrongs; and who forget that a great majority of our working people are prosperous and happy, and that they are entitled to protection against mob violence and mob law.

EVERETT P. WHEELER.

New York, N. Y.

## OF CERTAIN SMALL COERCIONS

TO THE EDITOR:

In his editorial comment of January 4, Professor Patten not only addresses certain questions to the social workers of the country but draws vivid contrasts between "dozens of little coercions" and "doses of freedom." It is not my purpose to undertake to answer his questions. The program of the social workers has been so definitely outlined by action taken at Cleveland in June at the time of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, and is so definitely formulated in the platform of the Progressive Party, to which Miss Addams gave her adherence, that further reply seems superfluous.

I should be glad, however, to ask Professor Patten in return to consider more carefully the nature of certain "small coercions" against which the women of the country and the social workers as well are now protesting. Professor Patten contrasts the value of a "suffragette agitation" with the value of a "clearer vision." He cannot, however, be ignorant of the fact that the efforts of women to become politically free have revealed as no other agency has been able to do, the nature and extent of the coercion, exercised over the voters of the community by the organized forces of vice and alcohol. The women think that in their efforts to secure political freedom so that they may be able to serve the community, they should have Professor Patten's acquiescence in increased control exercised over these common foes of the race. In Professor Patten's judgment the "only effective check to the natural expansion of clear ideas and social

emotions is offered by the members of the degenerate, defective or dependent classes." Commercialized alcohol and vice may be included in these groups; but will the classifications likewise include the competitor who remains in the market by adulterating the food supply of the people, the unintelligent producers of unclean and unsafe milk, the employer of children in the southern cotton mills, those who fatten on the labor of underpaid girls in our department stores and factories? I fancy these "enemies of the people" would be greatly surprised to find themselves so classified. Nor is the strength of their position or the disastrous consequences of their freedom lessened by so characterizing them. "Little coercions" upon them mean "large doses of freedom" to the child, the women workers, the men helpless before conditions of physical hazard in our industrial establishments.

Political action without philanthropy is of course like the human skeleton equipped perhaps with muscle but lacking the nervous and circulatory systems. Philanthropy on the other hand without political capacity is like an invertebrate structure, inert and incapable of efficient self direction. It seems entirely in accord with her general experience of helplessness when relying on philanthropy alone and with her observation of the social aimlessness of the older political parties that Miss Addams should demand that the strength and stability of one be added to the life and persistence of the other.

SOPHONISBA P. BRECKINRIDGE.

(Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy.)

## SEX HYGIENE

TO THE EDITOR:

I am sorry to see that some of the patent medicine companies are taking advantage of the popular interest in sex hygiene teaching to advertise their goods. This will tend to throw discredit on the movement itself.

I have come across a woman who is traveling for the Viavi medicines. This Viavi is made from herbs which are picked by moonlight, on a magic date, and kept in retorts for eight or nine years, hardly failing to have incantations said over them.

At each of the towns which this woman covers, she gives a free public lecture, showing charts of the female organs and describing alarming symptoms, common to everyone, which call for Viavi. In one Alabama town she obtained permission from the superintendent of schools to lecture to the high school, which she did, calling her talk sex hygiene. One can readily see what a morbid apprehension might be aroused in the boys and girls by this sort of talk.

This evil is to be classed with that of the quack doctors for men's diseases, and the social hygiene societies generally realize the danger from the latter. I would like to point out the work of the Social Hygiene Society of Portland, Ore., in suppressing these quack doctors, as a good example to be followed everywhere. Finally, let me say that proper and adequate sex hygiene



teaching will protect our boys and girls, and later our men and women, who are now such frequent dupes and victims of these frauds.

MARGARET F. ELIOT.

Dallas, Texas.

[The *Journal* of the American Medical Association has issued a pamphlet on this subject under the title: *Viavi, a Widespread Fake Founded by the Law Brothers of San Francisco*. The contents is detailed and thorough. Its substance is well indicated by this sentence from Samuel Hopkins Adams printed on the cover: "A fake concern called the Viavi Company, which preys on impressionable women, has organized an elaborate 'lecture bureau,' mostly women and clergymen, to spread its doctrines, the chief of which is that every woman has something wrong with her, and that whatever it is, Viavi preparations will cure it."—Ed.]

## CO-PARTNERSHIP WITH WAGE-EARNERS

TO THE EDITOR:

In an address to the British Labor Co-partnership Association (profit-sharing) Earl Grey, late governor general of Canada, said:

"The events of last year have forced the nation to realize that it is necessary to set its industrial house in order, with the view of preventing the recurrence of experiences which, if they were repeated on any sufficiently frequent and extensive scale, would quickly reduce this country to an intolerable condition of insecurity, poverty and despair.

"The time would appear, therefore, to be opportune for asking the public to consider the reasons why we, the members of the Labor Co-partnership Association, believe that in the successful application of co-partnership principles to productive enterprise lies the chief hope of industrial efficiency and industrial peace."

We have had warnings enough in our own country. There is an irrepressible conflict between the buyer and seller of labor. There is an increasing class of wage-earners, depending for a living on hired jobs, from railroad presidents down to day laborers. Ready money begets extravagance. The self-reliance, self-control and foresight of a farmer is lost in specialized work and wages. There are millions of farm acres to be had for the cost of the improvements, but men prefer the town work for ready money and no responsibility. The employer has no power to compel a farmer to quit farming and work for him: he offers the opportunity, the farmer and immigrant do the rest. Farm products bring twice what they did in my time before the war, and still the factory and clerking wages and town attractions keep crowding on the employer. Then arises the question about wages, not free wages, but forced wages, backed by strikes and boycotts and assaults. Then the irrepressible conflict, the general strike, the appeal to arms.

Unless we can so educate the country people as to keep them on the farms, the crowding of factories and the scarcity of the food supply must make serious trouble, so serious that tariffs and trusts and currency fade into insignificance.

Co-partnership with wage-earners is one way to restore the equilibrium in incomes and restore

a sense of responsibility and mutuality. I started it twenty-seven years ago. All my employees and customers are my partners and associates. They own a large majority of the capital and will own it all. Mr. Carnegie approved of it long ago and said in his last book it must come. Mr. Roosevelt put it in a message. The highest authorities agree with Earl Grey and with me. Let the employers generally adopt it and let the unions insist on it in a fair division of the proceeds between capital, management and labor.

Nothing is more discreditable to a class of reformers than the cynical charge that profit-sharing aims at advantage over employees. On the contrary, it is always the opening wedge to a genuine mutual interest and understanding.

There is great unrest, not alone on the part of the lowest paid, but of the majority of all classes. There is not enough of what people want to go around. If one faction gets more, it comes out of the other wage-earners. Shorten the hours and you reduce the total supply. Raise wages and you raise prices and the cost of living. It never comes out of the rich or the employer: they only add it to the price. But in co-partnership more is produced because all get the benefit, it is more evenly divided, all fare better. There will still be room for discussion about relative wages and shares, but there is little room left for class conflict or unrest.

N. O. NELSON.

## WAGES FIXED BY LAW

TO THE EDITOR:

The country has lately passed through the throes of a political revolution, the dominant note of which has been the desire to secure greater equality of social justice. All the various political parties have had more or less to say on the subject of the relations existing between capital and labor, while one of them has declared for a minimum wage law. That legislation along these lines is sorely needed is manifested by the reign of industrial anarchy as a result of an utter lack of method or system, and the absence of a system indicates the presence of a graft.

The report of the United States Bureau of Commerce and Labor for 1910 states how labor received only 20 per cent of the value of the product which it served to create. High prices for the cost of living have depreciated the purchasing power of the wage-earner's money until he has actually received only about 17 per cent. The report also shows that after all expenses and charges are left, there still remains over two billion dollars surplus to be divided as profits among the employers.

Robbing labor is the mother of all graft and is the primary cause of the unequal distribution of wealth, with its by-products of millionaire and tramp. It is also the direct cause of all differences which may exist between capital and labor. Strikes, lockouts, dynamite plots, private detectives, poverty and prostitution are simply its effects. Heretofore many attempts have been made to remedy the effects while ignoring the causes.



I herewith present a simple yet comprehensive plan for removing the cause of industrial unrest, confident that when that has been done its evil effects will speedily disappear. Congress should pass a compulsory arbitration act containing a clause stipulating how in no event shall the award to labor be less than 33 1-3 per cent of the value of the product which labor has worked to create. Approximately one-third would pay for the raw material and fixed charges, one-third would go to the employer as profits and the remaining third to labor as wages.

This is the scientific and absolutely correct method of determining just what compensation the worker is entitled to; namely, how much value did his labor create? Based on that he should receive a fixed proportion to be determined by the law-making body of society. Dividends are based and declared on the value which the invested capital has earned; why not wages also?

The operation of such an act would virtually establish a minimum wage, the goal of all labor unions, thereby eliminating the necessity and expense of the same to the workers. It should also prove the proper antidote for the higher efficiency, speeding up, bonus and piece work systems and automatically increase wages in the proper ratio to the increased cost of living. It would place all employers on an equality in so far as the wage scale affects them and save society the cost and annoyance of strikes.

The weaker wage-earners—women, children, nonunion men and foreigners—are now preferred by the employer because their necessities and lack of organization compel them to accept a low wage which has increased their numbers to an abnormal extent. A guaranteed equal wage would anticipate the demand for equal suffrage which is merely the preliminary to the demand for an equal wage; minimize the evils of child labor; insure industrial liberty, and check the growth of anarchy among foreigners by demonstrating that there are some laws in favor of his class. It would restore the equilibrium in the number of individuals of various classes employed which would mean more tramps at work, more women in the home, more children in school; bring an end to the war over the closed shop and check the excessive immigration of undesirable aliens.

JAMES DEEGAN.

San Pedro, Cal.

#### MR. RUBINOW REPLIES TO MR. FOX

TO THE EDITOR:

I am constrained to impose again upon your valuable space in regard to the question of the brewers' compensation and pension fund.

Mr. Fox's chief objection to my criticism is based upon the charge that I "have no knowledge of the brewing business." To this indictment I cheerfully plead guilty. I would never presume to teach the members of the United States Brewers' Association anything in regard to methods of making or selling beer; but the

treatment of injured and superannuated employees and the organization of compensation schemes and pension funds presents many problems of its own that should not be approached without technical knowledge, which is required for their proper solution no less than for the brewing of beer.

Mr. Fox most emphatically states that my assumption that the plan only provides for compensation in case of total disability is "entirely unwarranted" and that that assumption "did not occur to any one of several experts and attorneys who have studied the subject." I can only reply that these experts and attorneys have evidently read something into the language of the by-laws which is not there. I challenge anyone to find in the by-laws as published by the association a single reference to partial disability. As a matter of fact, of all cases of permanent disability less than 5 per cent are total and all others are partial. That alone is sufficient indication of the expert skill with which the plan was prepared.

Notwithstanding his charge of ignorance and prejudiced hostility, Mr. Fox really admits most of my allegations. He admits that in a number of cases the scale of compensation is lower than is provided by compensation laws already passed. It may be "an ordinary business precaution" to force the employee to accept less than is guaranteed to him by the law, but that sort of precaution is neither just nor legal. Mr. Fox evidently entirely misunderstands the situation. Under the system of employer's liability when the injured employee cannot recover unless he proves negligence on part of the employer, the employer may well say to his employee, "Here is a modest compensation for you. You are welcome to take it or sue; you cannot do both." But when there is a compensation law on the statute books of the state, the employer has absolutely no right to force the employee to accept a smaller amount than is guaranteed to him by that compensation law.

Furthermore, will Mr. Fox kindly explain why a man's rights for an old-age pension should be endangered by any procedure he may take in connection with compensation for an injury? Mr. Fox cannot see the point of my objection to the Brewers' Association fund acting as a liability insurance company for the employer, and this very inability to see the point is, I think, quite characteristic. For the 1½ per cent of wages which the employees contribute, they want an unlimited insurance against compensation and employer's liability, which alone would cost them twice as much at any private casualty company, and they do not for a moment care whether such unlimited liability might not ruin the fund financially and wipe out all accumulated rights of the members.

Mr. Fox dismisses rather lightly my question as to the rights of the employee who is forced to leave the brewing industry. While it may be true that the demand for labor is more steady in that industry than in many others, nevertheless, the fluctuations in it are not insignificant.

<sup>1</sup>See The Pension Plan for the Brewing Industry by Mr. Rubinow in THE SURVEY for December 21; also the reply by Hugh F. Fox in the same issue.



The census of 1911 records that the greatest number of persons employed at any time during the year in the brewing industry was 43,363, and the least number 36,523, giving a difference of 6,941 between the maximum and the minimum. The average number of persons employed from month to month fluctuated between 37,000 in December, January and February, and nearly 40,000 in July and August, so that there is, Mr. Fox notwithstanding, a decided seasonal fluctuation in the trade.

The second charge which I made against the fund, as the reader will remember, is that of financial inadequacy. THE SURVEY is hardly a place for thrashing out differences of actuarial opinion; nevertheless, I think I can indicate in very simple English the gross errors that were committed in computing the probable cost which led to the perfectly ridiculous conclusion that 2 per cent of wages is sufficient to pay accident compensation as well as old age pension.

In order to determine that rate, a special investigation was undertaken. Workmen were asked through a question blank to state whether they had suffered any injuries and the replies indicated a rate of about 60 accidents per 1,000 employes per year. Of course, no information could in this way be obtained of the fatal accidents, and therefore the actuary estimated one fatal accident per 2,000 employes per annum. The experience of Germany and Austria shows nearly one accident per thousand employes, or twice as many as were assumed in computing the probable cost of insurance and surely no one would for a moment suppose that the brewing industry in this country is safer than it is in Europe. The weakest point of the computation, however, is the utter disregard of permanent injuries. There is no indication at all that some of the injured employes might not have been able to return to work, and might be at present somewhere outside of the brewing industry. Now, again referring to European statistics, there are at least seven permanent injuries per annum to each thousand employes, and thus in computing the probable cost of accident compensation, the Brewers' Association's actuary, on a basis of 40,000 employes, has disregarded the cost of 20 fatal accidents and 280 permanent injuries per annum, and the cost of these permanent and fatal injuries, even though they may be few, is greater than the cost of numerous temporary disabilities.

Then again Mr. Fox does not agree with my criticisms of the proportion of  $2\frac{1}{4}$  per cent as indicating the number of employes over sixty years of age. Taking the male population of this country over fifteen years of age as a whole, 9.7 per cent of them are sixty years old or over. Taking the men in gainful occupations only, the percentage is 8 per cent; in mechanical and industrial pursuits it is 6.7 per cent. If it be true that the percentage is only  $2\frac{1}{4}$  per cent in the brewing industry, the question is, what becomes of the others? Does the brewing industry kill them off so rapidly, or does it drive them to natural retirement or other occupations?

"It has been," says Mr. Fox, "the general custom of the American brewers to retain their old employes, even though they cannot do efficient work."

With all due respect to the brewing industry, that is the purest cant and nonsense. An employer may, out of humane consideration, keep a worker for some time after his highest efficiency is gone, but I have yet to hear that the brewing industry of America is an eleemosynary institution for the tender care of the weak and aged. It is true, the plan need not be final and provision is made in the by-laws for its revision, but while sections 8 and 9 of Article III very generously provide for the increase of benefits, nowhere is there the slightest indication that the contributions to the fund might be increased also.

Finally, Mr. Fox refers to my Latin motto as an evidence of "prejudiced hostility," and charges my criticism as lacking constructive value, in extenuation of my display of bad taste in quoting Latin, I might say that the intention was rather to explain the causes for the unfavorable referendum than to indicate my own attitude toward the matter. The meaning of Virgil's old saying is that we all fear the gift from persons we are suspicious of. That was undoubtedly the attitude of the brewery workers who cannot be supposed to go into such detailed analysis as I have made. My personal attitude is entirely different, and I do not at all consider the contingent plan proposed as a suspicious gift. I look upon it as a very businesslike effort to curtail the cost of accident compensation and solve the problem of superannuation without cost to the industry—an effort which is both impossible and vicious.

I. M. RUBINOW.

New York.

## STATE INSTITUTIONS AND EDUCATION

TO THE EDITOR:

State institutions, almshouses, and all custodial keeps are overcrowded. The problem for their care and maintenance is becoming more and more weighty.

At the close of 1908 the New York state charitable institutions reported 30,458 inmates, or one in every 208 of the state's population. In 1901, 5,301 were admitted. Of these 12 per cent or 644, were over sixteen years of age. Three-fourths of the 644 were married and 69 per cent were in comfortable circumstances. In almshouses and public hospitals there were in 1909 93,856 patients; in state insane asylums there were 32,658. These together make 127,271 or one for every 56 of the population.

Statistics show that in these institutions syphilis was the cause of commitment in 19 per cent of all male cases and 5 per cent of all female. Of these, 16 per cent of the males and 3 per cent of the females were of urban rearing while 3 per cent of the males and 2 per cent of the females were from the rural districts. Even in these institutions, sufficient statistics are as yet, lacking. As an indication in a slight way of the conditions outside, an authority in one of our second class cities quotes 1300 recorded cases of



syphilis in unmarried girls under his observation. These facts are, however, sufficient to indicate the prevalence of this vile invader of the social body. Until the race has mounted to that intellectual plane, where its individual members can see the real advantage of self-restraint and having seen the advantage shall have the power to practice it, this social evil will persist, remain a menace to the public, and overflow our now too-crowded institutions.

Various methods are now on foot to eradicate this evil. We are all familiar with them. They are, it is true, highly commendable and doubtless do much good; but do they reach the right people? One is surprised at the number in our cities and towns who have not heard of syphilis. Still more deplorable is the fact that only a few appreciate its full and awful meaning. Many are so ignorant that, having contracted the disease, they not only take no care of themselves but even go so far as carelessly to further its spread. It is needless to say that until a positive cure for this disease is found, marriage of leutic cases should be forbidden; though this would not eradicate the trouble, for unmarried people are sowing, broadcast, this neapolitan disease. Here, we pass those much-discussed subjects of the enormous prevalence of the disease and its dangers to public health, the dangers to the innocent members of society, the dangers to the off-spring, etc.

But how can the campaign be most effectively carried out? Even in this age not all people can read, but thank God, the majority can at least think a little, and most of them can see. These people must be reached, instructed and given glaring examples. In all, we may not arouse an interest in social welfare and high moral standards. These must be reached through that powerful sense, Fear.

A contribution to the solution of our problem is dominant in the institutions of our state. First of all, we need a burning desire and a concerted action to wipe this plague from the land. Then we need experienced, earnest men who will tackle the work, *con amore*. At present we have nineteen state hospitals for the insane, seventeen state charitable institutions, ten private institutions supported by the state, and county and city almshouses, to say nothing of the prisons, lockups and reformatories. Statistics show that on an average, one-fifth of all the persons held in these keeps are there as a result of syphilis. The state may well afford to set aside certain days every week or month as may seem fit for the purpose of enlightening the public. On these days competent men would be in attendance. The people would be notified and sufficient inducements held forth if need be, to have all see and learn. At this time lectures could be delivered drawing for illustration upon the abundant material at hand in these institutions. If one doubts the impressiveness of the method, he has only to visit one of the many institutions and walk through one ward. He will then be convinced. How much more strongly would one

think, if, on attending a series of lectures and demonstrations a clear explanation of conditions with their causes, dangers and modes of prevention were set forth, not in a morbid way, but so presented that even the depraved mind would grasp its significance and think. No man or woman can see conditions set forth, having had their significance explained by lucid descriptions, and straightway turn aside and forget all.

Another advantage of institutional demonstrations is this: some people, often the ones who most need instruction, are in such circumstances either through poverty, pride or modesty that they would feel too much out of place in a lecture or demonstration given elsewhere. Few there are who would hesitate to visit an institution. Inducements can be found by which all will desire to attend. When once people feel they are welcome, that efforts are being made to help them and that all will receive equal recognition and attention, half the battle is won.

The campaign against tuberculosis has not been without avail, but it is a fact well recognized by the medical profession that syphilis by lowering the vitality and weakening resistance produces a condition favorable to the development of tuberculosis. Until the spread of syphilis is effectively checked, the fight on tuberculosis will be but partially successful. The campaigns must go hand in hand.

From an economic standpoint, we may well afford to pay competent men liberal salaries for this work. As an average \$8,648,023.61 is yearly expended for supporting our state patients. Taking one-fifth of this as our syphilitic maintenance fund \$1,729,604.72 could be saved a year by eradicating this trouble. Well can we afford liberal salaried men for such a cause looking forward to the almost sure outcome. We could see the now over-crowded institutions gradually but surely lessening their census and so a lessened state expense. We have the proposition to face, we have the material with which to face it. Why not use them? Can you not even now see the result of such a movement?

CHESTER T. STONE.

Syracuse, N. Y.

## THE SURVEY AND THE PULPIT

TO THE EDITOR:

I am enclosing your letter of recent date asking me to subscribe. In reply I would say that while all you say in your letter is true, it seems to be no paper for a preacher to take. I read it regularly for two years at the Akron Public Library, and it was my undoing. In the first place, I felt led to teach Dr. Strong's Studies of Social Christianity in my Sunday School class and the superintendent waited upon me and told me it must stop. There was objection to it on the ground that all the men were becoming Socialists. Then I took the material of THE SURVEY into the pulpit and lost my pulpit thereby; at least, when my conference met, I had to move. So you see, whatever I may think personally of your periodical it has an *unsettling*



effect upon me. I simply cannot read the material in *THE SURVEY* and keep my mouth closed. So I am not going to take it this year. Next year I will read it again.

In the meantime I will read Thomas à Kempis or some other "good" reading, and do you go on publishing the same stuff for there is indeed nothing else like it in America. And at least this much I do and will do when others ask me where to get information on matters of this kind, I *always* say "Get *THE SURVEY*."

AN OHIO MINISTER.

## THE BURNETT BILL

TO THE EDITOR:

Isn't the Burnett Bill rather shortsighted? If there is no obscure aim behind its clannish or political motive the bill is simply despicable.

Ability to read or to read and write has already been confuted over and over as a wise test of exclusion. The criminals are seldom illiterate. If they have no trade, immigrants, whether illiterate or not, will find difficulty in securing employment, unless they will serve as common laborers.

But most important of all is the need of liberal immigration for the development of the country. The most prosperous countries are the most thickly populated, such as Belgium and Holland; and the least prosperous are those which were slow to see the advantages of immigration. It is true that a new arrival will bring keener competition in some trades, but even those very occupations will profit indirectly by it. Every newcomer, even if he is not a first class producer, is a full fledged consumer. All the activities of commerce and industry must be put in motion to provide for him lodging, clothing, feeding and transportation. There is not a trade that will not benefit by it, either by securing his services or by supplying him with its wares.

The main trouble is to be found in unwise and incompetent distribution of immigrants. I would recommend that more ports be opened as terminals for immigration. The contract labor law should also be so modified as to encourage collective settling and pioneering under intelligent supervision. This may seem reactionary, but if we look back to our early history we find that our forbears generally came in groups and small colonies either banded together under the leadership of some strong personality, or else under contract with some prosperous colonist. Nobody would have dreamt of tackling a new continent single-handed. Most of the pioneers were really under contract labor. With the experience of the past, it should not be difficult to devise a middle way to secure a proper distribution of immigration, that will develop our resources.

The reading test will not exclude undesirables but sturdy, healthy and honest immigrants, who by natural law wander to seek and enjoy happiness.

ALEXANDER GAZZOLA.

Cedar Manor, N. Y.

## JOTTINGS

### AID FOR JEWS IN THE BALKANS

An order from the Supreme Court of New York has been issued directing that the balance of the fund raised by the American-Jewish committee for the relief of sufferers in Russian massacres be transferred to this committee for "the alleviation of the consequences of persecution of Jews in any part of the world, and rendering them all assistance in the event of the threatened or actual invasion or restriction of their rights, and to afford relief from calamities affecting Jews wherever they may occur." Five thousand dollars of this fund, which amounts to about \$190,000, was thereupon appropriated for the purpose of helping the Jews in Turkey and the Balkans who have suffered from the Balkan war. In response to the appeal issued by the committee to the American public, over \$18,000 had been raised independently for the same purpose.

### WINNERS OF ECONOMIC PRIZES

Not so very long ago essays in political economy were almost sure to be concerned chiefly with the technical phases of the production or distribution of wealth. This month, however, the committee which passed judgment upon the papers contesting for the economic prizes offered by Hart, Schaffner and Marx, makers of men's clothes, gave the first prize of \$1,000 to the author of an essay entitled *Industrial Education, Its Problems, Methods and Dangers*. The winner was Albert H. Leake of Eglinton, Ontario, inspector of technical education for that province. The second prize of \$500 was awarded to Harry E. Smith, instructor in economics, Cornell University, for a paper entitled *The United States Federal Internal Tax History from 1861 to 1871*.

### FOCUSING PUBLIC OPINION IN THE NORTHWEST

By making more than one hundred promoters of social legislation in the state of Washington acquainted with their law makers and with the actual process of translating community needs into effective statutes, those responsible for the state conference of charities and corrections last month feel that it accomplished a valuable purpose. The legislators became acquainted also with subjects that lie close to the hearts of a large group of earnest citizens.

The conference, held in mid-winter during the session of the legislature, was preceded, weeks in advance, by free legislative institutes. These were held in Spokane, Seattle, Tacoma and Wenatchee. Proposed legislation was thoroughly discussed at these meetings, so that when the conference came together, it was able to represent much of the public thought throughout the state and focus this opinion at the capital city while the legislators were at work. The purpose of the institutes was educational. While it was the intention to formulate needed social legislation, no vote upon definite measures was taken. The conference itself refused to become



a lobby and voted not to take a stand upon any specific measure.

The topics that most deeply engaged the attention of the meeting were: a state bureau of immigration, employment agencies, the minimum wage, mothers' pension, protection of the feeble-minded, a court of domestic relations, sterilization of the unfit, the "Iowa Red Light Injunction and Abatement Law," increased appropriation for the state board of health for educational work in sex hygiene, adult probation and wages for prisoners.

#### TIN PLATE ORDINANCE IN PORTLAND

Portland, Ore., has passed the "tin plate ordinance." This provides that on all hotels, rooming houses, lodging houses, tenement houses, apartment houses and saloons, the name of the owner of the building and his address shall be fastened near the main entrance so that it can easily be read. The measure is one of a number recommended by the local vice commission to solve the social evil. Those who do not comply with the ordinance will be subject to a fine of \$100 on conviction in the municipal court. The proprietors of hotels, rooming houses and tenement houses are preparing to contest the bonding ordinance passed on the recommendation of the vice commission. Proprietors of such buildings are required by the measure to file a surety bond of \$1,000 with the city as a guarantee that they will not permit immoral conditions to exist on their premises. The act provides that the bond shall be confiscated after a second conviction of a violation of its terms.

#### LINCOLN'S BIRTHDAY CONFERENCE

The seventh annual Lincoln's Birthday Conference for social workers in New York city will be held at the Union Theological Seminary, Broadway and 120th Street, on February 12. It is the purpose of the seminary faculty, in arranging these conferences, to bring together men and women who, although they may differ radically in convictions, still share the common aim of promoting social justice and good will.

The speakers at the morning and afternoon sessions include: Rev. Thomas C. Hall, Rev. Dickinson S. Miller, Rev. William Adams Brown, Rev. John Haynes Holmes, Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, Anna Garlin Spencer and Rev. John P. Peters.

#### FEDERAL WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION BILL

After a delay of nearly a year the House of Representatives committee on the judiciary has reported favorably the Sutherland Workmen's Compensation Act, which has already been passed by the Senate. The bill as amended applies to employees of express companies as well as to those of railroads, and gives state courts concurrent jurisdiction with federal tribunals in its enforcement. The House committee increased from \$100 to \$120 the maximum monthly wage to be used in calculating the percentages of compensation—which ranges from 10 to 50 per cent. As some of the committee questioned the

constitutionality of the act, a "saving clause" was added, providing that no employee or dependent who shall have lost the right to compensation under the act, by reason of its invalidity, should be deprived of any other right of action he might otherwise have.

#### LECTURES ON MUNICIPAL ACCOUNTING

A series of eighteen lectures and conferences on the accounting tests worked out in the government of New York City is being conducted by the Bureau of Municipal Research. Students of city administration will have an opportunity to learn at first hand from men who have cooperated in the reorganization of the accounting and business procedure of New York departments the specific methods which have been elaborated. Heads of divisions and responsible employees of city departments and members of the bureau's staff, will explain the method of approach that has been employed with most success in the field studies of municipal departments.

#### SEX EDUCATION OUTSIDE OF SCHOOLS

The Matter and Methods of Sex Education Other Than Instruction in Schools is the subject that will be discussed at a meeting of the Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis which is to be held at the New York Academy of Medicine, 17 West 43rd Street, February 13, at 8:30 P. M. The main speakers will be Dr. Eugene LaF. Swan, Nellie W. Smith, Laura B. Garrett and Mabel M. Irwin. The discussion will be started by Dr. Ira S. Wile, Dr. Rosalie S. Morton, Dr. Mary Sutton Macy and Harriet E. McDaniel.

### THE SOCIAL WORK OF THE FEDERATED CHURCHES

Every social worker should obtain the report of the Commission on the Church and Social Service presented at its quadrennial session in Chicago.

It includes the statement of principles adopted by the Commission and gives a remarkable survey of the progress of the churches in this part of their mission.

This report is only one title in a large amount of instructive literature regarding the progress of the social movement throughout the Churches, some of which gives surprisingly hopeful information. It is all issued free.

The Commission on the Church and Social Service is a department of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, which includes 30 denominations.

FRANK MASON NORTH, Chairman  
CHARLES S. MACFARLAND, Secretary  
215 Fourth Avenue, New York



# THE SURVEY



Volume XXIX, No. 20

February 15, 1913

## MID-MONTHLY DEPARTMENTS

CIVICS    HEALTH    INDUSTRY  
EDUCATION    SOCIAL AGENCIES  
CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

### *"Mothers' Compensation"*

*Ben B. Lindsey*  
*Judge of the Juvenile Court of Denver*

### *Welfare Work*

*H. P. Bope*  
*Vice-president of the Carnegie Steel Company*

### *Halving up on Work and Play*

*H. E. Miles*  
*Chairman of the Industrial Education Committee of the  
National Manufacturers' Association*

### *Trachoma in the Appalachians*

*Alfred C. Reed*  
*United States Public Health Service*

This Issue Ten Cents

Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**S**IX weeks of strikes have rent the clothing Trade in New York. P. 661.

**E**IGHT hours a day in our national capital for working women was the rallying cry last week of well-led besiegers of the House Committee on Labor and the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia. P. 659.

**M**OTHERS' pensions are an issue in almost a third of the states of the Union. Definite information is at hand regarding such bills in fifteen states. P. 660.

**U**NKEMPT fringes of our cities are suggesting to housing reformers that perhaps we have devoted too exclusive attention to housing regulations in the centers of our larger municipalities. P. 673.

**T**RACHOMA has commonly been regarded by us as an eye disease of foreign origin for which we must be on our guard at the ports of entry. Dr. McMullen, of the federal Public Health Service has disclosed a dangerous backfire of trachoma in the midst of the Appalachian mountains. P. 679.

**A** SUBSTANTIALLY perfect industrial school in a month is possible in any progressive, up-to-date community, says H. E. Miles, chairman of the Committee on Industrial Education of the National Manufacturers' Association. P. 682.

**T**ELLING the churches where they are is the aim of the New York Federation of Churches which has perfected arrangements for aiding individual churches in New York in the study of the social conditions of their neighborhoods. P. 689.

**A** COMPACT and effective statement of the welfare policies of the United States Steel Corporation. P. 701.

**J**UDGE Ben. B. Lindsey interprets the Mothers' Compensation Law of Colorado, of which he is an advocate on the ground that for the first time in history society through this act literally "bears one another's burdens." P. 714.

**L**AST month the medical benefits under the British Insurance Act went into effect. On January 12 the government announced that, in spite of the refusal of the members of the British Medical Association to serve under the act, it had made up panels for every county and borough of Great Britain, and that these panels comprised the names of 15,000 doctors. As it became more and more evident that the government would be successful in making up the panels, the associa-

# THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE  
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tion freed its members from their oath to abide by its ultimatum. It accompanied this release, however, by an emphatic protest against the coercive methods which it alleged the government was using to compel physicians to serve.



# THE COMMON WELFARE

## A DETERMINED SIEGE OF OUR LAW MAKERS

It was over the LaFollette-Peters bill limiting the hours of labor for women in the District of Columbia—the "model" bill prepared by the National Consumers' League. The besiegers were: Maude Younger of California; Mrs. Florence Kelley and Josephine Goldmark of the National Consumers' League; Dr. George M. Kober of Georgetown University; Miss Obenauer, special agent of the Federal Bureau of Labor; and Grace Coulon, a laundrywoman employed in Washington, D. C. Representatives Peters and McCall also took part in the siege.

The besieged were the members of the House Committee on Labor and the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia. Joining the fray, more as besieged than as besiegers, were half a dozen merchants and laundrymen of the District, with an attorney, Joseph I. Weller.

Several solid mornings were occupied by the hearings, and it was evident that the bill and the principle underlying gained sympathetic interest, from both committees.

The testimony of Miss Obenauer, the agent who made the investigation for the Labor Bureau, was the most effective. She found the worst conditions in the department stores and laundries—there are practically no factories in Washington. Barring Christmas week, she discovered that 80 per cent of the department store women worked from fifty-five to fifty-nine hours per week. During the holiday rush, overtime was worked by a large proportion up to seventy hours and over each week. Overtime, she found, was rarely paid for. On Saturdays 58 per cent of the women individually interviewed worked from eleven to twelve hours, except during two or three months in summer.

As to pay, it was learned that the average weekly wage for department store saleswomen, as reported by the pay rolls covering 1,760 women was \$6.55. The poorest paid, excepting the apprentices, were cash girls at \$2 a week.

That these facts were startling to the Senate committee may be gathered from Senator Gallinger's surprised question: "Do

you mean to say that a woman behind the counter receives \$6 and a fraction?"

Just as Miss Obenauer's evidence was in its field expert, so also was that laid before the Congressmen by the other advocates for the bill. Mrs. Kelley's clear and patient explanation struck at the "stock" objections to such measures, notably the old criticism that an eight-hour day would drive customers from the stores before they had finished their shopping. Maud Younger related the twenty-months' experience of her state with a similar law. Miss Goldmark marshalled evidence as to the constitutionality of the legal principle involved in the bill, and quoted medical testimony as to the effect of fatigue upon the physique of women. Mrs. Coulon, the laundrywoman, tersely told the conditions under which doubtless many statesmen's shirts and collars are washed.

An amusing incident occurred when the attorney for the retail merchants and laundrymen, proposed an amendment to the bill shortening its enumeration of the classes of employment involved. When he concluded Senator Works of California exposed the effect of the proposed version by drily remarking: "Why, that leaves out your business entirely, doesn't it?"

The merchants, laundrymen and other employers who opposed the bill urged that an eight-hour law for the District of Columbia would give an undue advantage to neighboring cities where there is no such restriction of women's hours of labor.

The chief emphasis was laid on the fact that without the so-called privilege of overtime work the earnings of the women would be insufficient to live on. Employer after employer emphasized this point, seemingly without realizing the true bearings of the admission. Seven

employees in all testified before the Senate Committee and about an equal number before that of the House. But more significant and tragic were the letters addressed to Senator LaFollette and to members of the committees by working women who urged the passage of the bill, but did not dare to appear openly in its behalf for fear of losing their positions.

ON February 19 at Albany there will be a public hearing of the bills proposed by the New York State Factory Investigating Commission. Among these are bills to abolish child labor in canneries and in tenements, to end night work for women in factories, to minimize fire hazards, to reorganize the Labor Department on a new and more efficient basis, and to establish a Minimum Wage Commission. Since all these bills are of vital social concern the various organizations having to do with labor legislation urge that the New York readers of THE SURVEY make every effort to be present at this hearing. Those who can attend are asked to notify the New York City Consumers' League, the New York Child Labor Committee or the American Association for Labor Legislation.



The hearings, while they did not result in immediate favorable action on the bill, were encouraging to its sponsors. The passage of this model eight-hour bill for women in the District of Columbia would mean more than a local forward step. Favorable action by the nation's law makers would have great influence in twenty or more states where similar legislation is pending. Unless the bill is passed before March 4, the siege will start all over again. For the present the fate of the bill lies with these committee members:

*Committee on District of Columbia (Senate.)*

Jacob H. Gullinger, N. H.	Thomas S. Martin, Va.
William P. Dillingham, Vt.	Frank O. Briggs, N. J.
Charles Curtis, Kan.	Thomas H. Paynter, Ky.
Wesley L. Jones, Wash.	Joseph F. Johnston, Ala.
Wm. S. Kenyon, Ia.	John Walter Smith, Md.
John D. Works, Cal.	Atlee Pomerene, Ohio
Albert B. Fall, N. M.	Marcus A. Smith, Ariz.

*Committee on Labor (House.)*

William B. Wilson, Penna.	Frank Buchanan, Ill.
Walter L. Hensley, Mo.	Finly H. Gray, Ind.
James P. Maher, N. Y.	John J. Gardner, N. J.
Arthur B. Rouse, Ky.	Edward B. Vreeland, N. Y.
David J. Lewis, Md.	J. M. C. Smith, Mich.
Wm. Schley Howard, Ga.	Willis C. Hawley, Ore.
	Wm. S. Vare, Penna.

## PENSION LEGISLATION FOR NEEDY MOTHERS

Mothers' pensions are an issue in more than a third of the forty-two states whose legislatures meet this season. Definite information is at hand regarding such bills in fifteen states. In some of them several bills are competing for the lawmakers' approval. In four of these states, Ohio, California, Minnesota and Pennsylvania, public investigating commissions are proposed by those who believe that the questions at issue are too important to be passed upon without a more thorough knowledge of conditions than is now possessed.

In Massachusetts, the commission appointed a year ago has made a divided report. Two members favor "subsidies" (Bostonese for pensions) while one opposes the plan. The bill urged by the majority creates a special state administrative body, the Commission on Subsidies for the Children of Widows. In this commission is vested the power to make the initial investigations and to grant the pensions. Disbursement and follow up work, however, are to be in the hands of the local Overseers of the Poor. The state and the localities furnish the funds jointly. A unique provision forbids the commission to ask private societies for help in making up the pension or to call upon relatives except those who are legally responsible for the support of the pensionaire. Another bill, supported by the opponents of this measure, reads case work standards into an existing statute. Under this adequate money relief may now be given by the Overseers of the Poor or the State Board of Charity. The bill also provides for supervision by that board of all families having dependent children under fourteen years of age who are aided by overseers. Separate reports on these families must be made to the state board. Both these bills are in committee.

Two bills are being considered in New York state. One is a state wide measure. The other is limited to the city of New York. In its present form it establishes a board of trustees to conduct a "department of home assistance" to administer directly, and also by grants, to private societies, public assistance to widows with two or more dependent children in their own houses. This department is to be separate and distinct from the Department of Public Charities which is by law now charged with the responsibility for commitment of dependent children institutions.

Conferences have been held between social workers favoring and opposing this bill. A voluntary committee is planning to make a thorough inquiry intended to ascertain the facts of the situation and specifically what further assistance should be provided to widows and their children by private agencies or by governmental action.

The New Jersey bill, also still in committee, is meeting with strong opposition. At a conference of representatives of various child saving organizations held in Trenton, January 20, the following resolution was adopted:

"Resolved, That this conference feels that the time is not right for the passage of a mothers' pension law, but that the chairman of this conference appoint a committee to study the question in its relation to existing sources of relief in New Jersey, said committee to report to this conference at its next meeting."

By the bill the pensions are to be granted by the Courts of Common Pleas out of county funds.

All four of the Pennsylvania bills are in the hands of a sub-committee and a hearing was held on February 5. Three of them allow local courts to grant the pensions and one creates for this express purpose a state commission composed entirely of women. A group of Pittsburgh social workers is urging a commission of investigation.

Ohio's pension proposal is embodied in the Children's Code of the commission appointed to codify the laws relating to children. A hearing has been held. The agitation for some pension legislation has gained great headway. Certain leading social workers, however, are urging delay until a commission can study the subject thoroughly and impartially.

In Indiana, a mothers' pension bill has passed one branch of the legislature after a hard contest, but its further progress is uncertain.

Iowa sentiment strongly favors the bill now in committee in the legislature. No organized opposition to the proposal is apparent.

The Minnesota House of Representatives has reported the Campbell bill favorably. There is opposition to it, however, and the counter proposal of an investigating commission is urged by leading social workers.

Two mothers' pension bills are before the Nebraska legislature. Both are apparently still in the hands of the committees to which they were referred.

In Colorado, where a pension law adminis-



ed by the Juvenile Court went into effect on January 21 a bill has been introduced to repeal it and to substitute the public relief authorities as the local pensioning agencies.

A pension bill has been reported out by a committee of the House of Representatives in the state of Washington. More opposition is looked for in the Senate. Public sentiment, so far as expressed, favors the bill. The Congress of Mothers is responsible for the Oregon bill, which is now before the state Senate, having passed the House unanimously on January 24.

Several bills are pending in California in spite of the fact that mothers' pensions have been granted for several years in a few cities of the state under certain general provisions of the Juvenile Court Law. As in other states, the opponents are urging a commission to study the subject.

Bills have just been introduced in Michigan and Tennessee. In Illinois there is almost general agreement among those who have had experience with the administration of the present law that it must be amended in important particulars. The question of whether the administration of the law shall remain with the Chicago Juvenile Court is now under consideration in that city.

A bill is expected soon in the Arizona legislature. In Wisconsin there is strong sentiment in favor of such legislation. A bill is being prepared by the Legislative Reference Bureau, which has been corresponding widely with persons in touch with such laws in this country and abroad.

### SOME CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN EUROPE

Co-operative societies are constantly extending their field of activity in Europe. The Society of Consumers in Hamburg with 57,000 members has a yearly trade of four million dollars. Two model bakeries of this society, as well as their slaughter house and sausage factory have been most successful. Recently a large farm was bought for supplying dairy products, cattle for the market and rye and potatoes for distilling alcohol.

The drivers of Madrid have formed a co-operative society with the object of acquiring the sole ownership of their vehicles. Until the purchase is completed, the owners of the vehicles share the profits.

The Co-operative Alliance of Switzerland a few years ago went into the manufacture of shoes. Recently the syndicated milling interests refused to furnish flour to some co-operative bakeries, whereupon it was decided to acquire one of the largest flour mills in Zurich which will supply flour at a much lower price. The members of the co-operative glassworks in Albi, France, who are both stockholders and workers, recently went on a strike, because the director

tried to equalize wages which ranged from seventy-five cents to \$2.40. A correspondent with a German's love for sociological differentiation writes: "In spite of the fact that everybody in the glassworks was an organized workingman and an adherent of most radical Socialist principles, the individualistic and egotistical spirit dominated in their communistic society." Only with great difficulty did the Socialist Party succeed in ending the strike.

### SIX WEEKS OF STRIKES

Last week was the sixth of the garment strikes in New York. Among the men's tailors the outlook for settlement was gloomy. In women's wear, in none of the three divisions in which strikes were in progress had the International Ladies Garment Workers approached a settlement comparable to the protocols to which it is a party in the shirt waist and cloak, suit and skirt trade. All but the Brooklyn local of the kimono and wrapper workers had concluded agreements with their employers' associations. The white goods workers had as a group rejected a protocol which was in other respects a gain for them but did not establish the preferential shop. In all three divisions of the trade, on the other hand, the solidarity of the workers has been broken by single shop settlements.

With six weeks in the street, the pressure of need is being felt by the strikers. Some strike benefits are being paid and a dozen or so lunch kitchens for pickets have been set up by the union, the Woman's Trade Union League, the Socialist Party and other organizations. The strikes of the workers on women's garments alone are said to cost the union \$1,200 a day.

Mass picketing, on the model of that carried out at Lawrence, has been tried by the United Garment Workers and there were some clashes with the police and detective agency men when this method was first put into effect. There have been individual cases of "beating up" on both sides and some egg-throwing on the part of girl strikers. Following the precedent set in the shirtwaist strike two years ago, the use of the word "scab" is held by the authorities to be a form of violence and adequate cause for arrest and fine. Among others, one of the organizers of the Woman's Trade Union League, Leonora O'Reilly, was arrested and fined on this charge, which she emphatically denied. Many fines and, for men, some workhouse sentences have been imposed. To the women strikers no workhouse sentences have been given, few have been kept in a cell over night and only one group, the women in the United Garment Workers employed on men's tailoring, have been forced to appear in the night court.



As the white goods and kimono workers are as a group exceptionally young girls, so young that one of their organizers calls their strike the "Children's Crusade," it is a matter of congratulation that their lawyers have been able to keep them out of the night court, which played such a conspicuous part in the shirt waist strike of 1910.

But some of the dangers to which the night court would have exposed them have come to them in other ways. At one strike headquarters at least, strange men have been reported as loitering, giving out cards, advertising places where the girls could get "easy employment." The girls' stories of what was said to them—though their broken English makes it hard to get a very full statement—can not point to anything other than that these men were procurers or cadets, quick to seek their quarry in the midst of strike idleness and want. Since these first experiences precautions have been taken by the strike leaders to keep out all men who could give no proof of their right to enter the halls.

#### ECHOES FROM THE BALKANS

Even the Balkan war enters into the story of human struggle bound up in these Manhattan strikes. The agreement which the State Arbitration Board drew up for the East Side branch (some 2,000 strong) of the Kimono and Wrapper Workers' Union, and the East Side Kimono and Petticoat Manufacturers Association was in no sense a protocol. The explanation lies in part in the personnel of the trades.

It must be remembered that the waist makers who the fortnight before came under the "white protocol" had behind them a union with an aggressive membership who went out with previous experience of strikes and with a very definite knowledge of what they wanted to get and a pretty good assurance that they would get it. Negotiations had been going forward for weeks. The kimono workers on the East Side, on the other hand, were until this strike began totally unorganized.

They are most of them very young girls and many of them are included in the latest immigration to this country, a migration of Spanish Jews, resident in Turkey and the Balkan states who have been making their way to this country to some extent for the last two years, but in new and greater numbers since the Balkan war began. Most of them are abjectly poor and speak no language but Spanish and some one of the Balkan tongues. They do not for the most part work in the same shops with Russian Jews or associate with them; they are just the sort of new immigrant labor which easily becomes the victim of exploitation. The strike organizers

believe that something has been accomplished in the beginnings of organization among them more important than the concessions embodied in the agreement drawn up before the arbitration board. Under this agreement, which is to be in force for one year, hours are limited to fifty, with four hours overtime—"and these four hours shall be worked in four separate days." A promise is made by the manufacturers that no discrimination will be made against strikers or against union members. Other clauses provide that both employes and manufacturers shall co-operate to improve the sanitary conditions of each factory and all new employes engaged by the members of the association shall be furnished with sewing machines free of charge, and all machines shall be kept in order at the expense of the employers.

The wage scales are low for both piece and week workers. For the latter it is vaguely provided that "all who have not received an increase within the past three months shall receive an increase from fifty cents to a dollar according to efficiency." For piece workers the following scale is set:

NAME OF ARTICLE.	CENTS PER DOZEN.
Aprons, 2 pockets.....	15
Aprons, 1 pocket.....	12
Aprons, Butcher.....	20
Aprons, Princess.....	40
Aprons, Savana.....	20
Aprons, Savana Fruta.....	25
Bibs.....	20
Dress sacques, Ribb.....	45-50
" " Scallop.....	15-20
" " square neck, short.....	40
" " " " long.....	50
Sailor sacques.....	50
Long Scalloped.....	8-10
One piece kimono.....	2-3
One piece trim.....	15
Petticoats.....	12-14-20-25
Rompers.....	40
Yokes, kimono, long.....	50
" " " " short.....	25-35

Future wage adjustments are to be made through the Board of Arbitration. The three thousand kimono workers on the West Side have, as this issue goes to press, concluded a protocol along the lines of that in the waist industry.

#### THE STRIKE OF THE MEN'S TAILORS

The big employers in the men's trade have had their backs to the walls from the beginning of the strike. The outlook last week was that the workers must ultimately give in, and the employers for their part lost the season.

A more hopeful attitude was taken by the smaller employers organized as the United Manufacturers' and Merchants' Association (Wolf Elias, president) and the United Clothing Contractors' Association (Charles Gross, president).

Here the hitching in negotiations has come, not from the employers but from certain of the labor



leaders who are accused of resorting to outright jingoism.

Conferences of representatives of these employers with Thomas A. Rickert, president of the United Garment Workers' Union and other union officials, were held for three days and thrashed out the details of a proposal drawn up by Julius Henry Cohen, as attorney for the manufacturers. The terms of the agreement represent concessions on both sides. The union demand for hours was, for instance, forty-eight; the employers felt that they could not go below fifty-four, but fifty-two was finally reached as a compromise with the following concession of principle by the manufacturers:

"We believe in the ultimate forty-eight hour week in our industry, and will be ready to put it into operation just as soon as competitive conditions will justify."

On wages an immediate increase of 5 per cent was conceded, with a further increase of the same amount to take effect in April.

Though no effort was made to put into effect a full protocol agreement, as neither side felt that the industry was yet ready for it, the agreement provided in a wage board and arbitration board some of the machinery for the permanent adjustment of relations between employers' and workers' organizations. The acceptance of these clauses by the representatives of the unions is said to have come only after considerable controversy between the national and the local union organizers. The latter preferred to retain the old method of single shop strikes, with settlements through the interposition of union officials. They are afraid, it is charged, that they will lose their hold, if not their jobs, under the orderly adjustments of shop difficulties by the protocols, and for their part, they charge that the protocols tie the hands of the men. Other factors doubtless enter into the situation. The agreement was referred to a referendum vote and was rejected.

The two bodies of employers who would have accepted the proposal claim that they now cover 90 per cent of the men's wear trade. The older, and for the most part larger, manufacturers are organized in the New York Clothing Trade Association. To quote the words of a committee of citizens, they "refused to enter into any dealings with the union, refused to arbitrate, and insisted upon an immediate truce as a preliminary to further negotiations." This committee was composed of R. Fulton Cutting, Canon George William Douglas of the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, Cleveland H. Dodge, William Church Osborn, Charles L. Bernheimer, chairman of the Arbitration Committee of the Chamber of Commerce; Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell University, William

Jay Schieffelin, Felix Adler, and Henry Moskowitz.

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### COLONEL BOPE'S ADDRESS

Colonel Bope's address, published on page 701 is at once the most compact and the most effective statement yet made by an officer of the United States Steel Corporation on the welfare policies of that organization. It is, by the same token, one of the best statements made by any of the big corporation leaders in the country of what might be called their conservation program with respect to the human resources in American industry.

That the largest employer of labor in the United States should have so developed safety work, sanitary supervision and relief plans is stimulating; but if the impression got abroad that only the large employer could afford to do these things, it would be unfortunate. Colonel Bope points out that the Steel Corporation is expending \$5,000,000 a year in these directions. The manager of a small plant in a small town can not spend a million or perhaps even a thousand dollars a year.

It is to be noted, however, that the Steel Corporation employs over 200,000 wage-earners and its outlay approximates \$25 per man. The work therefore is at once brought within the capacity of a small plant. In its leadership in these fields the Steel Corporation is showing not only what the great employer can do, but what the small employer can do.

It is the announced policy of the head of the Steel Corporation that the conditions in its mills shall be better than those which the men could secure through unions. Colonel Bope's article is an amplification of just what that policy means on its constructive, pro-welfare side. The flare-ups among the workmen of the Pittsburgh district within the last few weeks illustrate its limitations—its negative, anti-union side. Evidently there is not entire acquiescence among the 200,000 employes of the Steel Corporation in having all decisions made for them from above. Early in the year there was a strike of a thousand railroad men who handle the switch engines and cars in the Carnegie plant at Homestead. This was the first time since the great strike of 1892 that those mills have been practically tied up by labor troubles. The Edgar Thompson works at Braddock were also shut down, and the Carrie blast furnaces across the river banked. The strike failed and the men filtered back to work.

On January 25, 1,250 men employed in the American Steel and Wire Mill at Rankin struck for higher wages, abolition of the tonnage



system of payment, and reinstatement of men who, it is alleged, were discharged for trying to organize the shops. A bystander was shot in a disturbance while the strike was on, and later the American Federation of Labor threatened a strike in every mill of the Steel Corporation. General Manager Jewett said to the men, "You will have to decide whether you want

Steel Corporation has not as yet included as a welfare item the substitution of the eight for the twelve-hour day—although the practicability of the three shift system in continuous work has been demonstrated in the independent plants at Granite City, and although it was recommended a year ago last month by the stockholders' committee of the Steel Corporation itself.



#### A CANNER'S PLAYGROUND

The canners of New York have long contended that the "sheds" of a canning factory are not a part of the factory proper, and that the labor of the children in these sheds is not factory work, but merely "play." In 1905 Justice Mayer of the New York Court of Appeals, in line with this contention, ruled that children so employed were exempt from the provisions of the regular factory law.

Miss Chamberlain made an extensive investigation of the canning industry for the New York commission last summer, and one of the proposed bills of the commission would abolish the work of these little children in the canning sheds.

to work for us or for the labor agitators." The same policy holds true with respect to self-constituted workmen's organizations in time of peace. The Steel Corporation will neither recognize nor bargain with them.

It is thus that we have the contrast, pointed out by Mr. Fitch in his articles on the steel industry last year, of a corporation which stands above all others for co-operation in business dealings, which has applied the principle to its safety and welfare work, but which—when wages or hours are up for consideration—refuses to apply it even to the extent of bargaining with two men together out of its pay roll of 200,000 employees.

However this policy be regarded—as making for industrial efficiency or as violating the instincts of democracy—one thing is clear. It puts entire responsibility for work conditions on the employer.

This brings us to a further contrast which will be noted by readers of Mr. Taylor's article on the steel plants at Granite City in the February magazine number of *THE SURVEY*. The

## THE NEW BEAN BAG

MARY CHAMBERLAIN

Assistant Secretary, New York City Consumers' League

The canners have discovered a new outlet for the spirit of play in an amusing game called "snipping beans." We are entirely indebted to the canners themselves for this discovery. Froebel with all his genius never thought of including snipping beans in the kindergarten "gifts." To common knowledge no recreation center or public school has realized the wonderful effect of snipping beans on the mind and body of the child. The new Montessori method utterly fails to estimate the psychological value of breaking off the tips of beans all day long. Even Noah Webster of dictionary fame evidently had no thought of snipping beans in mind when he defined play as "any exercise not for task and not for profit." For this "snipping" game, although not in the least harmful like "craps," is rewarded at the end of eight or more hours by twenty-five, fifty or ninety cents according to whether the con-



testants are under ten years, ten to twelve years, or twelve to fourteen years old respectively.

Of course, it is not to be expected that the child who receives these benefits could fully appreciate such advantages. In fact last summer one child who was brought to the attention of the New York Factory Commission had glorious opportunities of play which all of us might envy for our own children and yet this ungrateful little wretch gave no word of thanks except to grumble "I'm awfully tired" and to murmur because this healthy exercise split her fingers! This ten year old ingrate, Milly Vacanti, played on August 20 from 4:30 in the morning to 9:30 at night, a total of 12 1/3 hours. On August 21 she evidently begged to be roused early again, for she frolicked from 4:30 A. M. till 5 P. M. in all, 11 1/2 hours. The next day, August 22, was Sunday, and although some more lenient parents allowed a few hours recreation to their children, Milly's orthodox mother refused to let her go out in the sheds, but kept her home working in the "shack" all day long. And then the next day, alas! It rained so heavily in the morning that no bean toys could be garnered in the fields, so that poor Milly and the other disappointed children had to satisfy themselves with stupid games like tag or hide-and-seek out in the yard in the afternoon. But on August 24 the reward came in eleven hours of merry "snipping," on August 25 in a scant seven hour measure of fun, and on August 26 in one long unalloyed day of pleasure from 4 o'clock in the morning until 10 o'clock at night.

What a shame it is that the canners have formed this "play trust," when here in our own city thousands of little children who cannot play in bean sheds must work long hours in dirty, ill-ventilated sweatshops.

Just as there are a few discontented souls among the children, naturally we expect to find some self-satisfied people who are slow to welcome any innovation whether it is in work or in play. When Mr. Potter, who directed the canery investigation for the Factory Commission, reported that of the Buffalo children who emigrated to canning factories in the summer 50 per cent were backward in their classes, a few old-fashioned fogies were caught mumbling that "all play and no work makes Jack a dull boy!" If these people would only remember that no amount of "reading, riting, and rithmetic" can make up for the health and spirit generated by wholesome recreation, they would stop throwing stones at the canning industry and give their attention to the servant problem or something else that really needs improvement. But every reform—dress reform, tax reform or play reform—must always be hindered by certain unthinking, unprogressive members of the community.

## "PENSIONS" AND THE SOCIAL WORKER

MARY E. RICHMOND

Russell Sage Foundation

Of all enviable gifts commend me to the one which enables a man to think both quickly and justly at a time of emotional excitement. It was at such a time, when the Venezuelan message of '95 had just been sent to Congress, that an editor of my acquaintance, who had unbounded admiration for Mr. Cleveland, announced sorrowfully but without a moment's delay that the President had blundered. Newspapers of every political faith were shouldering their muskets and marching to the front by the relatively safe approach of the editorial column, but this one man was almost alone in seeing at once what a good many people did not find out until a week later.

Social workers are facing at the moment a more puzzling tangle than the eastern boundary of Venezuela ever was. It must not astonish us that many of them hesitate, for mothers' pensions is not one question but a dozen.

In the first place, it contains two distinct ideas that are often confused: the idea of a payment on the basis of *proven need* that cannot be humanely met otherwise, and the idea of a payment on the basis of *service rendered*. The latter is a pension; the former is relief.

After true Oriental fashion, in the second place, pension advocates attempt to set our widows in a class apart. How surely this must fail in the Occident is shown by the various state pension measures just drawn, some of which include not only widows remarried, but the wives of husbands totally disabled, insane, feeble-minded, imprisoned, or deserting, and mothers who are not wives at all. Some bills "for constitutional reasons" even include both parents.

This drift is inevitable. In so far as pensions are intended to be used in caring for children who live with their natural guardians, the laws granting them are neither more nor less than laws granting public relief to families. Their champions may "run the chromatic scale up" in asseverating that their provisions are justice and not relief, but the only law under which such payments could become a true pension would be one granting a stated sum or sums to all of the same class, to all widows with children, for instance. It is true that we social workers have been using the word "pension" loosely in connection with relief work, to cover a good many kinds of grants, and that we are responsible, in part, for the present confusion of terms.

There are many, however, who accept every implication of the word "pension" and who urge motherhood as such upon our attention as a service which justifies endowment by the state; and



those who take this view are writing in favor of and campaigning for the public relief measures (miscalled mothers' pension bills) that are now before fourteen different legislatures. They regard them as an entering wedge to another and quite different social policy. We must give attention to this endowment of motherhood idea—it concerns all social work—but, reserving this separate subject for another occasion, let us ask ourselves, as social workers, what our responsibility is for the scores of bills with varying provisions that are now in committee.

These bills assume, most of them, that a grant of six, eight or ten dollars per child per month will automatically assure improved health, improved morals, and improved citizenship. In so far as this assumption is widespread, is not the fault partly ours? Have we not failed to make clear the only conditions under which material relief can be transmuted into human values? The fixed sum per child takes no account of these, nor of the readjustments that must be made to changes in bodily health, in temper, in power of endeavor, and in natural resources.

Many of the current proposals also ignore public and private provisions now existing for meeting the same needs. One bill is fantastic enough to enjoin the public officials who are to administer the proposed law from seeking supplementary or substitute aid from any private agency; and most of the state-wide measures would create a central relief authority charged with the same duties as those of the present county relieving officers, without suggesting any means by which to readjust or regulate the duties of the latter. But is not this merely an exaggerated example of our own attitude? Have we not, for the most part, turned our backs upon the administrators of public outdoor relief in this country, and busied ourselves about everything under the sun rather than about their work? The danger of new and conflicting public relief authorities is obvious enough. The new departments are to set about an old task under a new name but with no new or else with very inadequate new machinery. But what do they or we, for that matter, know about the old machinery? It has the great advantage of being on the spot, and of having the well localized form of organization which is absolutely necessary for relief work, but what, beyond that, do we know as to what it is doing or what it is neglecting to do? Content with a general suspicion that the work was not being very well done, we have not thought its processes worthy of study, and now a new public outdoor relief is impending, to be administered independently and contemporaneously with the old, but for neither the new nor the old have we any basis of fact—statistical or otherwise—to show the extent of the needs that it aims to meet, the probable cost of achieving the results aimed

at, the fundamental conditions of success, the qualifications necessary in those who are to bring this success about, or the relation of the whole process to the other functions of government. These are not administrative details, as some would have us believe. The difference between the work of the ward surgeon who operates and kills and the one who operates and cures is not a difference of operative detail, but of fundamental skill and knowledge; a difference of nice adjustment; that is, a means to ends.

Good documentary evidence could be produced to prove that, during the last decade, many private social agencies engaged in family work have made great advances in the adjustment of means to ends with child welfare in view, that they are now throwing many more safeguards around child life in families than ever before. We have no body of evidence from the public agencies charged with the same duty; no plumb line has been dropped into their daily activities. Should we not bestir ourselves, community by community, to discover what is happening to this fundamental work for families? Should we not, in all our town surveying and stock-taking, make an inventory of family relief too, and, on the basis of its showing, strive to create in each community something more than a perfunctory interest in the task of the outdoor relief official? The state can help by investigating, by stimulating local interest, by encouraging an interchange of ideas, and by frequent inspections, but the community itself must care, and must take part in the process of making better things happen.

There are few more specious appeals than the claim that mothers' pensions are an emergency measure, that we must legislate somehow, anyhow, at once, and trust to getting the question onto a right basis later. It was not time wasted to get the facts and to base our legislative program solidly upon them in the recent factory investigations of New York state, nor to do this in the workmen's compensation campaigns of several states; we are applauding the long-delayed but now well-launched effort to study the social evil in all its ramifications before rushing into we know not what, we know not why. Here is an equally important cause in which we must also make haste slowly. Bills have been introduced into some of the legislatures creating commissions to study and report upon the question of mothers' pensions. They have been drafted not by obstructionists, but by those who are deeply interested in the welfare of all neglected children. Without attempting to marshal the further arguments on either side of this much disputed matter, suffice it to say that the need of more facts and of more deliberation should lead all practical social workers, whether they favor pension legislation or not, to favor these commission measures.



# MID-MONTHLY DEPARTMENTS

CIVICS

HEALTH

INDUSTRY

EDUCATION

SOCIAL AGENCIES

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

## CONFERENCES

### FEBRUARY AND MARCH CONFERENCES

**CHILD LABOR**, Ninth Annual Conference of National Committee on. Jacksonville, Fla., March 13-16, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 E. 22d St., New York.

**CHILDREN**, Conference on Dependent and Delinquent. New York, March 7-8, 1913.

**RELIGIOUS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION**, Decennial Convention of. Cleveland, Ohio, March 10-13, 1913. Information may be secured from the Religious Education Assn., 332 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago.

### LATER MEETINGS.

#### INTERNATIONAL.

**BLIND**, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, 1914: probably July 20. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.

**CHILDREN'S WELFARE**, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treuh, Huygenstraat 106, Amsterdam.

**PRISON CONGRESS**, Quinquennial. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

**SCHOOL HYGIENE**, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.

**STUDENT CHRISTIAN FEDERATION**, World's. Lake Mohawk, N. Y., June 2-8, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, John R. Mott, 124 East 28th St., New York.

**UNEMPLOYMENT**, International Association for Fight Against. Ghent, Belgium, 1913. American Corres. Officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

**YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION**, International Conference of. Cincinnati, May 15-18, 1913.

#### NATIONAL.

**BOYS**, General Assembly of Workers with. Culver, Ind., May 17-30, 1913. Information may be secured from the Boys' Work Dept., Y. M. C. A., 124 E. 28th Street, New York.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, National Conference of. Seattle, Wash., July 5-12, 1913. Sec'y, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.

**HOME ECONOMICS**, American Association of. Ithaca, N. Y., June 27-July 4, 1913. Information may be secured from Marguerite B. Lake, Forest Hill, Md.

**INFANT MORTALITY**, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fourth annual meeting. Kansas City, Mo., Oct. 23-25, 1913. Exec. Sec'y, Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore.

**MEDICINE**, AMERICAN ACADEMY OF. Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting. Minneapolis, Minn., June 13, 14, 1913.

**MOTHERS**, National Congress of. Boston, May 15-20, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. A. A. Birney, 808 Loan and Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

February 15, 1913.

**PRISON ASSOCIATION**, AMERICAN, Indianapolis, Ind., Oct. 11-16, 1913. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

**YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION** of the United States of America, Fourth Biennial Convention of. Richmond, Va., Apr. 9-15, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, Mabel Cratty, 600 Lexington Ave., New York.

### STATE AND LOCAL.

**BAPTIST CONVENTION**, NORTHERN, Detroit, Mich., May, 1913. Cor. Sec'y, Rev. W. C. Bitting, St. Louis.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October, 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shlirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, New York City Conference on. May 14-15, 1913. Sec'y, John B. Prest, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York.

**EDUCATION**, Society for Advancement of, in the South. Chattanooga, April, 1913. Sec'y, H. E. Bierley, Chattanooga, Tenn.

**SOUTHERN SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS**. Atlanta, Ga., April, 25-29, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, J. E. McCulloch, Nashville, Tenn.

## EXHIBITS

### LOCAL.

**CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT**, New Britain, Conn., April 26-May 2. Sec'y, E. W. Pelton.

**CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT**, Rochester, N. Y., about April 1.

**CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT**, High School, Newport, R. I., last week of March. Chairman, Harriet E. Thomas, 263 Thames Street.

**CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT**. Atlanta, Ga., April 28-May 3. Chairman, Walter E. Rich, Atlanta.

### NATIONAL.

**CONSERVATION EXPOSITION**, NATIONAL, Knoxville, Tenn., Sept.-Oct., 1913.

### INTERNATIONAL.

**KINEMATOGRAPH EXHIBITION AND CONFERENCE**, INTERNATIONAL, "Olympia," London, Eng., March 22-29, 1913.

**PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION**, San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 20-Dec. 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Frank A. Wolff, Washington, D. C.

**PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION**, San Diego, Cal., Jan. 1-Dec. 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego.

**STUDENT CHRISTIAN FEDERATION**, World's. Lake Mohawk, N. Y., June 2-8, 1913. Exhibits including "social study and service." Gen. Sec'y, John R. Mott, 124 East 28th Street, New York.

**SCHOOL HYGIENE**, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Chairman, Committee on Scientific Exhibit, Dr. Fletcher B. Dressler, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.



# INFORMATION

**CHILD LABOR**—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y., 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

**CHILD HELPING**—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

**CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE**—American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, 1211 Cathedral Street, Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Studies preventable causes of death and illness; urges birth registration, maternal nursing, parental instruction.

**SCHOOL HYGIENE**—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M.D., Harvard University Medical School; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

**MENTAL HYGIENE**—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City. Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of the insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

**MENTAL DEFICIENCY**—The American Association for the Study of the Feeble-minded publishes the proceedings and papers of its annual meetings in the *Journal of Psycho-Asthenics*. Address Dr. A. C. Rogers, secretary, at Faribault, Minnesota.

**EUGENICS**—Eugenics Record Office, Cold Spring Harbor, L. I., N. Y. (American Breeders Assoc., Eugenics Sect. Charles B. Davenport, Sec.). Membership \$2. a year. National repository of data on hereditary family traits. Schedules for family records furnished free. Advice as to suitable matings. Publications at cost. H. H. Laughlin, Supt.

**NATIONAL HEALTH**—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Executive Secretary, Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all the government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

**TUBERCULOSIS**—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., will be sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

**SEX HYGIENE**—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

**WOMEN IN INDUSTRY**—National Consumers League, 106 East 19th St., New York, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Gen'l Sec'y. 87 branch leagues. Reports, pamphlets sent on request. Minimum membership fee \$1.00 includes current pamphlets. Minimum wages boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

**WORKING WOMEN**—National Women's Trade Union League, to better industrial conditions through organization and legislation. Information given. "Life and Labor," events in industrial world. Three months for 25c. Mrs. Raymond Robins, Pres., 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago.

**EVENING CLUBS FOR GIRLS**—National League of Women Workers, Hotel Savoy, New York. Organizing Sec'y., Jean Hamilton.

Recreation and instruction in self-governing and self-supporting groups for girls over working age. Monthly magazine—"The Club Worker," Twenty-five cents 1 year.

**YOUNG WOMEN**—National Board, Y. W. C. A., 600 Lexington Ave., N. Y. C. Official magazine: The Association Monthly. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty. The advancement of Christian Social Service. Free literature (all departments).

**HOME AND INSTITUTIONAL ECONOMICS**—American Home Economics Association, for Home, Institution, and School. Publishes *Journal of Home Economics*, 600 pp. per vol. \$2.00 per year. Conducts Graduate School of Home Economics. Meeting: Boston, June 27-July 4, 1913—Address, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md.

**FOURTH OF JULY SUGGESTIONS**—Division of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan tower, New York City. A pamphlet giving information on plans for Fourth of July programs and legislation. Material gathered from local experiences in 1912. Price 10 cents.

**RECREATION**—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y. Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

**BOY SCOUTS**—National Headquarters of the Boy Scouts of America, 200 Fifth Ave., New York City. James E. West, Chief Scout Executive. Local Councils organized in principal cities, towns and counties. Literature on request. Monthly magazine, "Boys' Life" \$1 a year. Memberships: Associate \$3, Sustaining \$10.

**MUNICIPAL PROBLEMS**—National Municipal League 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

**CITY PLANNING**—National City Planning Conference, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at \$5 a Year Includes All Literature.

**THE SMOKE NUISANCE**—Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement; How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

**SHORT BALLOT and COMMISSION GOVERNMENT**—The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, President; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters*.

**CHARITY ORGANIZATION**—Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, 105 E. 22d St., New York City. To study, teach and publish in the charity organization field. Pamphlets on family treatment, community study, relief, transportation, etc., sent free.



# DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but memberships not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**—The Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. **BUREAU OF INFORMATION** on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 5, 1913.

**ORGANIZED CHARITY**—American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City. To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs in the United States.

**THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE**—The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service. For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

**STUDIES IN SOCIAL CHRISTIANITY**—*Jany.*: Poverty, *Feb'y.*: Wealth, *March*: Socialism. See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York City. Price 50c. per year.

**EPISCOPAL SOCIAL SERVICE**—The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church. For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

**UNITARIAN SOCIAL ADVANCE**—The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service. Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees, Rev. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

**METHODIST SOCIAL SERVICE**—Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature; Bureau of information, Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; Invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities. Rev. Harry F. Ward, Sec'y., 2512 Park Place, Evanston, Ill.

**BAPTIST SOCIAL SERVICE**—Baptist Department of Social Service and Brotherhood. To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies. S. Z. Batten, Secretary, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

**CONGREGATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCY**—The Congregational Brotherhood of America, Henry A. Atkinson, Secretary, 19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Ill. Programs and information furnished. Study Course; Speakers' Bureau; Publications. Service available for Institutes, Conferences and Addresses. Correspondence and inquiries invited.

**PRESBYTERIAN SOCIAL SERVICE**—Bureau of Social Service, The Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rev. Charles Steizle, Supt., 156 Fifth Ave., New York. Sociological surveys made. Clearing house for city problems of the Church. Correspondence Course in Applied Christianity. Methods for Church Publicity.

**THE AMERICAN SEAMAN'S FRIEND SOCIETY**—Rev. J. B. Calvert, D.D., pres. George McPherson Hunter, Sec'y. The national seamen's society has stations in the United States and abroad, relieves shipwrecked and destitute seamen. Annual membership includes all literature, \$5.00 a year. C. C. Pinneo, Treas., 76 Wall Street.

**REMEDIAL LOANS**—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham. Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

**SOCIAL BETTERMENT FOR NEGROES**—National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, 281 Fourth Avenue. E. R. A. Sellman, Chairman; G. E. Haynes, Director. Develops welfare agencies. Trains social workers. Aids travelers. Supports probation officers. Seeks industrial opportunities. Correspondence invited.

**NEGRO AND RACE PROBLEMS**—National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 26 Vesey Street, New York. O. G. Villard, Chairman, Board of Directors; M. C. Nerney, Secretary; W. E. B. Du Bois, Director Publicity. Publishes Crisis Magazine. Investigation, Legal Redress, Literature, Lectures, Lantern Slides.

**IMMIGRATION**—National Conference of Immigration; Land and Labor Officials, 22 East 30th Street, F. A. Kellor, Sec. Information affecting aliens *after admission*, especially in reference to labor, land, education, protection and distribution. No matters of admission or restriction dealt with.

**IMMIGRATION**—North American Civic League for Immigrants, New York-New Jersey Committee, 95 Madison Ave., N. Y. C. Protection, Education, Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants. Printed material furnished upon request. Grace E. J. Parker, General Secretary.

**IMMIGRANT GIRLS**—Council of Jewish Women (National) Department Immigrant Aid meets girls at docks; visits, advises, guides; has international system safeguarding. Work in Religion, Philanthropy, Education, Civics, Invites Membership. Address Sadie American, Exec. Sec., 448 Central Park West, New York.

**AID FOR TRAVELERS**—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex. For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Sec'y., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

**SURVEYS AND EXHIBITS**—Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, 31 Union Square, New York City. A national clearing house for advice and information on social surveys and exhibits and for field assistance in organizing surveys and exhibits.

**PROBATION**—National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y. Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

**LABOR LEGISLATION**—Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws. Official Publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members. American Association for Labor Legislation, 131 East 23d St., New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

**PRISON LABOR**—National Committee on Prison Labor, 319 University Hall, Columbia University, N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stagg Whitin, Ph. D., Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. \$5 a year.

**SETTLEMENTS**—National Federation of Settlements. Develops broad forms of comparative study and concerted action in city, state, and nation, for meeting the fundamental problems disclosed by settlement work; seeks the higher and more democratic organization of neighborhood life. Robert A. Woods, Sec., 26 Union Park, Boston, Mass.



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Acute suffering due to urgent need must be met promptly.

This emergency relief holds the same place in our service to the poor that First Aid to the Injured holds in medicine.

It is often necessary but never final in solving the problems of poverty.

Although not primarily a relief society, the Charity Organization Society obtained and spent during the last year for immediate relief \$78,215.93.

**The Charity Organization Society**

105 EAST 22d STREET

NEW YORK

*Supported Entirely by Voluntary Contributions*





BUSH PLAYGROUND, BROOKLYN

The Bush Terminal Company, following the example of a number of other industrial concerns, as part of its social welfare work has set aside this playground which is administered by the Parks and Playgrounds Association.

## CIVICS

### IRRESPONSIBILITY IN THE SMALL TOWN

A FORMER RESIDENT

In our big cities today we are developing every conceivable phase of social, mental, moral and physical activity for the betterment of the people—particularly the young people. We are building great public libraries, lofty-spired churches, magnificently equipped public school buildings, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Association plants, the most effective sort of social service settlements. That is to say, we are trying to occupy people's minds and lives with thoughts and activities along the line of good to such an extent that the preponderance will more than offset what is sometimes a stronger attraction along the line of evil.

But what of the small town—the town or city of from 3,000 to 10,000 people—where men and women live as neighbors and where the enormous power of unlimited money for the promotion of these same social, mental and moral phases is lacking? Is it not time that an urgent plea was made for some sort of community consciousness which will awaken the self-satisfied residents of small communities to a proper sense of their civic responsibility? People who live in congested cities—as well as people who live in villages—believe that the vices and evils of the world are found in the cities. It is apparently a lack of thought that is responsible for the ignorance and apathy concerning this vital subject.

Those who were born and reared in a small town and have since gone to larger communities always love to go back at graduation time. A visit "back home" during commencement festivities is most enjoyable. The writer, a few months ago, enjoyed these sensations and revelled gloriously in them.

Then, in the midst of these reveries, I asked a friend what had become of little Jimmie Brown, an old playmate and school companion. My pleasant dreams of the long ago came to an abrupt end. Jimmie Brown was dead—dead of syphilis. I asked another old friend, a physician, how prevalent the disease was. He told me that he was treating five similar cases.

The population of this small town was just three thousand. How many other young men and young women were similarly afflicted there was no way of telling, except by interviewing the other doctors. Even then the figures would not have been accurate, for the shame of having such a loathsome malady no doubt drove a number of victims to other towns for treatment.

Next, I inquired about some of my girl school-mates. A majority of them had married, several were teaching school, others had moved away. Still others, alas, had been ruined at home and could now be found, I was told on the best authority, at addresses in questionable neighbor-



hoods in several large cities. Boys and girls had always strolled about the streets until late at night during the summer months. There was no other amusement or entertainment for them except an occasional melodramatic or wild west show. Unescorted girls were still in the habit of meeting the late night trains, though nowadays if this practice was indulged too freely the town marshal interfered. One house of prostitution was openly operated—and is still. The proprietress is referred to by both men and women as "Aunt Tom and her girls."

I began to wonder what local forces were at work for the moral regeneration of the community. Inquiries showed that the Woman's Club is the leading social factor. It has more than a hundred members, seventy-five of whom are active. All are prominent socially. The club sessions have been so well attended that it has become necessary to abandon the use of members' homes and engage a lodge hall for the meetings. And can you imagine what these women were doing at that very moment for the so-called "good of the town" in which they were rearing their boys and girls? They were spending their club funds and energy in the work of improving the driveway and the general appearance of the cemetery!

They were trying to keep fresh and green the memory of the dead and meanwhile were allowing the lives of their children to fester and rot away! While their own boys and girls were being contaminated by the prevalence of a virulent form of the social evil, the women were absorbed in cutting the grass and straightening the cinder paths over the dead bodies of their local heroes and heroines. Even the work at the cemetery was not what it should have been, I was told, because the outgoing president had appointed committees which the incoming president claimed the privilege of nominating.

I am not attacking women's clubs. They are doing a noble work where their energies are not misdirected. But, oh, what brilliant opportunities they do miss in the smaller communities! In my home town the most capable woman from every standpoint had just completed her term as president and the next in ability had succeeded her. Either might easily have led the entire club membership in a battle for some worthy object among living beings. Neither of them saw the large opportunity for a moral campaign.

Perhaps the young men and women are not entirely blameworthy for falling into the evils which are lurking in every community. There was no Christian Association for either boys or girls. One moving picture show flourishes, but it is used more as a meeting place than for educational or instructive amusement. There are at least a score of men who, by the expenditure of a small fraction of their comfortable fortunes, might easily build and equip a Young Men's or Young Women's Christian Association plant or some other institution equally profitable from a social standpoint. Yet nothing of this sort has been done.

This small town has a public library stocked with several thousand books, the gift of a now

famous native son who wished to do some real good. But the library is open to the reading public only one afternoon and three evenings a week. Lack of sufficient funds for the librarian's salary is responsible for this short period of usefulness. Nor is there any connection between the school library and the public library. The school trustees asked for a branch of the library in the school building, but because the trustees would not permit the library to control school books the library officials refused the request.

It was amusing to see the look of suspicion and distrust in the faces of those to whom the social center idea was merely suggested. This is not because the residents are benighted, for they are not. There are good roads, well paved city blocks, a magnificent little court house, efficient schools and thriving business. But the proposition of utilizing a large public school investment for twelve months in the year instead of seven, was almost too advanced an idea even for the local and county school superintendents.

In attempting the moral regeneration or "clean-up" of a small town, there is always one factor to be encountered. It is a compact public opinion which is more than likely to ask: "What are they getting out of it?" It is the dreaded existence of Mrs. Grundy which deters many a battle against what is recognized as a civic and social menace. This is exactly where a women's club acting as an organization has a distinct advantage over any individual. It can do things with concerted action with a fairer chance of winning public sentiment.

One day I was accompanying a friend home. He carried a loaf of bread under his arm. I asked him if the bakeries were good and he replied that two of them were, but the other was not much patronized because a consumptive baker was employed there. I asked him why he didn't do something to get the man out of such a place for the good of the community. He replied, "Well, I guess not. It's none of my business. We don't buy bread there. Besides, I've got enough enemies in town already." What a blissful existence it must be to have no enemies!

Fear of making business or social enemies is probably the most important reason why the public of the small town is lacking in civic responsibility. My home town is no different than thousands of others. A dozen, yes, more than a score, of towns of varying sizes which are in the same moral predicament and suffering from the same physical blight have come under my own personal observation.

In these towns are hundreds of intelligent and capable women interested in some frivolous movement or social game. If the women's clubs of the score of towns of from 3,000 to 10,000 or 15,000 population with which I alone am familiar were to direct the energy they now fritter away on the social game or club politics against some of the insidious evils which beset the paths of their own boys and girls a social revolution would follow. What a power in any community such a body of women would be! No movement would dare defy them long. This is not a dream, for the women of some communities have made it a glorious reality.



## THE EDGE OF THE CITY

UDETTA D. BROWN

*[We have heard so much of the housing evils in the centers of our cities, great and small, that perhaps many of us unconsciously think of the edges of the city as a paradise, at least by comparison. Yet when we come to look at these fringes which year by year are spreading over the country side we find them often not better but in many respects worse than the crowded districts of which we are growing ashamed. Here, on the neglected vanguard of our advance, we are creating new slums to plague us in the future when they shall have grown so large and foul that we can no longer continue our neglect.]*

*Miss Brown's brief description of conditions in Shadyside might, with a change of names, be applied to similar villages on the outskirts of a hundred of our growing cities. There is nothing peculiar about Shadyside except that it has for a background the majesty of the Palisades. On the edges of level cities in the Middle West, of cities among the New England hills, of cities in Canada and in the South, similar conditions exist. But here and there organizations like the Committee of the Palisades show that our leaders are beginning to recognize the evil promise of these conditions.—Ed.]*

From Riverside Drive, New York's beautiful parkway, one looks across the Hudson to the Palisades on the Jersey shore. A few years ago this region across the river was open country with here and there a little village as completely absorbed in its own affairs as if the metropolis were half way across the continent. Today all this has changed. On top of the cliffs suburban towns have germinated and grown until they form an almost continuous chain. Meanwhile the New Jersey cities have shared the growth of the metropolis and have pushed their borders constantly farther and farther, surrounding and transforming the villages they found in their way. Among these is Shadyside, lying between the foot of the Palisades and the river. With the coming of the factories along the water's edge came a cosmopolitan population of Germans, Italians, Hungarians and Slavs who now far outnumber the Irish founders of the village.

The commuters who have established homes on the top of the Palisades once contented themselves with the glorious distant views of the Tappan Zee and the lower bay or the monumental buildings taking form on Manhattan, quite ignoring the ragged little community nestling beneath their feet. But lately they have become aware that to ignore is no safeguard; Shadyside, for good or ill, has its influence upon those who live above it, upon their health, their morals, their peace and their government. So they began to consider Shadyside, and to make its acquaintance.

Their study of Shadyside revealed the usual housing evils. The privy vault is all but universal; open sewers and surface drainage are the rule; contaminated wells are still in use to some extent; uncared for garbage and stable refuse and filthy unpaved streets are added difficulties in the way of good living conditions; and overcrowding both of lot and rooms is a growing evil.

The dwellings are as varied in style as the inhabitants are in nationality. The houses range

from three-story, brick tenements to the rough board and tar paper shack. Some tiny cottages, one-story high, with peaked roofs and trellised porches, still recall an older day. Here and there are found substantial stone or brick buildings, either two family houses or tenements. Up on the hillside is an old colonial mansion, many of its windows agap, its front lawn replaced by cow sheds and bare earth; its great rooms now divided to make homes for many families.

The only toilet conveniences provided for most of these dwellings, whether occupied by one family or half a dozen, is the yard privy. Many of these privies and the ground near them are filthy beyond description; this is especially true where the out houses have been built over flat ground instead of over vaults. Where proper vaults have been constructed most of them are neglected and foul, a menace to the health of the community. Many of the shelters are so poorly built that they offer little privacy. Sometimes these closets are placed near the house, but more often they are fifty feet or more from it. It is unusual to find a closet clean, well-kept and with the door locked for privacy.

Indeed the whole sewerage problem is a difficult one. There are no proper sewers built and maintained at public expense. Instead the sew-



WINDOWS DARKENED BY HILLSIDE.





OPEN SEWER

Near this point it flows into the Hudson

ers of Shadyside consist of wide, deep ditches along the side of the road, through which waste water from the houses and surface drainage flow when they are unobstructed. Some of the yards are provided with made gutters leading to the street but in most cases the waste and surface water runs to the road in a gully or lies in puddles in the yards. Pipes and culverts under the road are designed to carry the waste water from the roadside sewers to the large open sewer which flows into the Hudson.

Unfortunately, these sewers are so clogged and the pipes are so poorly graded that much of the waste water stands for days stagnant and slime-covered, an offense to sight and smell, a menace to health. Here and there efforts have been made to board over the sewer in order to keep down the stench. Waste water from the houses is sometimes brought down to street sewers or to wooden troughs leading to them in iron pipes from which spasmodically come forth soap suds, bluing water or beet juice, according to the household activities. Often the water just spills out of the waste pipe onto the ground and thence to the street in a water-worn gully.

The water supply is adequate and good. It

has been piped into most of the houses, but a limited number of them still use wells. These are often placed so near the vaults that contamination by seepage seems inevitable. It would probably be a matter of small expense to install water pipes in the remaining dwellings.

Beside the foul privies, surface water and open sewers which disfigure the out-premises of the dwellings, there are many stables, chicken houses and pig pens. One stable occupies a large part of a back yard, leaving only a narrow passage across the rear of the house. Old bedding straw from this stable has been raked out to the side yard, where the filthy mess of straw and manure breeds flies for the neighborhood. In several yards there are pig pens. Both pigs and goats roam about freely, the pigs preferring the low muddy road, the goats taking to the hillside and roof tops.

The general sanitary problem of Shadyside is further complicated by the question of garbage disposal. No collections are made. Some of the more careful housewives take their refuse to the dumps at least once a day; others throw ashes and scraps into the street or yard; once a small boy was seen to bury a bucket of garbage half an inch deep under the ashes in the front yard. Garbage is quite often thrown into the privy vaults. The dumps are on one side of the main road, opposite the dwellings. They are unsightly and unwholesome—a source of disease. Here pigs, goats and chickens feed on the refuse.

Neither road nor streets are paved in Shadyside, except where short ends of tar paper from a nearby factory are laid over the mud of the sidewalk to make the way passable. River Road, which is the main thoroughfare, is a veritable slough. After every rain the heavy automobile trucks from the factories sink almost hub-deep into the soft mud. Many of the women throw their garbage and ashes into the muck. In this filth wallow huge hogs, nuzzling for food and grunting when a passing auto disturbs their meal.

Although there is plenty of open space at Shadyside we find the lot overcrowding so characteristic of mushroom communities. The dwellings are huddled together with little regard for lot lines and with no apparent effort to secure adequate light and ventilation. Though



SHADYSIDE'S SCAVENGERS.



the windowless room is present here to only a limited extent, lot overcrowding and the custom of placing houses within a few feet of the hillside makes many rooms gloomy and dark in spite of large windows.

Especially among the more recent immigrants some room overcrowding is found, although no special study was made of this condition. Three or four beds, crowded into a single room, gave ample evidence of this evil; still more convincing was a glimpse of a room fairly filled with sleeping men. "Seven", the woman explained in broken English, "they work nights."

Such is Shadyside—unhealthy, unsightly and squalid, like an overgrown awkward village, pressed into a narrow area instead of spreading out along the river and to the heights above. The task of housing betterment is a difficult one, but is rendered more hopeful by the spirit of co-operation among the residents and their realization of many of the existing evils. With proper leadership most of them would bear a good part in the right kind of civic housekeeping which would go far toward remedying many of the existing evils.

### SOCIALIZING THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

LOUIS H. PINK

"Wider use of the school plant" has now become a byword throughout the country. The idea that attractive buildings owned by the people should not be closed at night, is winning approval. But as yet only in a relatively few places has it occurred to people that if the public schools should be used to their maximum why not libraries and other public buildings? Los Angeles, Cleveland, Newark and Chicago are among the few that have acted upon this idea.

An inquiry into the extent to which the public libraries in Brooklyn serve as social and educational centers discloses some of the causes which hamper their wider use at present. Similar reasons apply in other cities. Nine of the branch libraries which are located in Carnegie buildings have auditoriums. Six branches have no auditoriums but contain club-rooms. But no member of the general staff is charged with the supervision of the social activities of the libraries nor are any of the assistants assigned to the various branches directed to organize and conduct such work. The organization of the library service does not provide for the adequate social use of the library buildings.

The auditoriums are used occasionally for public lectures and a few of them have been rented by taxpayers' organizations as meeting places. A charge of \$5 a night is made to neighborhood organization for such use. The last report shows that but \$70 was received from this source. Several of the branch librarians, who are interested in the extension of the social activities, have made it a point to notify the organizations of the district that the auditoriums and club-rooms exist and can be used, but no systematic plans have been made and the auditoriums and club-rooms are today practically unused.

The libraries close at nine o'clock, so that it is impossible for clubs of older young men and women to utilize club-rooms in the evening with any satisfaction. The adequate use of such rooms by the younger children in the afternoon and early evening is handicapped by the lack of organization of the work, and of leaders for such activities.

The nine o'clock rule does not apply to the auditoriums but they have been little used, excepting for the public lectures, and for classrooms in connection with the library work. Organizations of young folks are unable to use the club-rooms of the library because of the early closing hour, and cannot afford to pay the fee for the use of the auditoriums.

The fact that although no attempt was made to secure applicants, thirty-seven clubs of younger boys and girls applied at one branch for the use of the library as their club center, shows how easily the work could be developed. Sixteen of these were accommodated. Of these, five were debating clubs, four literary, five athletic and two social and religious. One of the clubs was conducted entirely by one of the boys. Another called the Girl Pioneers was conducted along the line of the Camp Fire Girls. The alumni associations from several neighborhood schools applied for the use of the club-rooms as they could not get accommodations at the school building, but hired a private hall because of the early closing hour. One reason why this branch was used so extensively even without special encouragement was that there are no public recreation centers in the neighborhood and no playgrounds, settlements, or other social agencies.

To provide for the adequate social use of the buildings there should be some department of the library service, or some person responsible for the organization and conduct of the social extension work. There should be a definite plan of work. If possible, one of the regular employes at each library should be assigned the duty of the supervision and control.

If a local committee or Board of Directors composed of those interested in the churches, the civic and social organizations, boys' clubs, settlements, and other public-spirited citizens could be formed for each branch library having an auditorium or club-room, the movement would be more democratic and more vigorous. Such local committee could be given the use of the rooms and liberty to make the most of them. It would be the duty of the local committee to secure volunteer workers to take charge of clubs and activities, to organize clubs and advertise the use of the library throughout the district. They might well consider it within their province to organize neighborhood councils, conferences on local improvements, even dances, entertainments and motion-picture shows.

The use of the auditoriums and club-rooms by literary and debating societies, social clubs, athletic clubs, especially by civic organizations, should be encouraged and the library should be made, within its limited territory, a "peoples' center" in the full sense of the term.





THE NEW BOSTON CITY CLUB BUILDING

## NEW BUILDING FOR BOSTON CITY CLUB

The Boston City Club will shortly begin the erection of its new home, the largest and finest city club building in the country, on the corner of Ashburton Place and Somerset Street. In addition to the \$500,000 previously assured, the sum of \$200,000 was necessary to finance the proposition, and the club decided upon a ten-days' campaign to raise that amount. The work was divided among ten teams, and in seven days \$220,000 was subscribed. Three-fourths of this amount came in comparatively small sums from the club membership.

The club has now 3,500 members with about 700 names on the waiting list. The future home will provide for 5,000 members and the limit will be raised to that number. The new building will be ten stories high, and will contain an auditorium seating about 1,000. The dining requirements of the members will be provided for by a large grill room two stories high, vaulted and designed to give it a distinctive character, a main dining room on the top floor, occupying nearly the entire space and commanding excellent views, and by twenty small dining rooms seating from ten to thirty people, the latter for small banquets. The main lounge will take up nearly one entire floor, being arranged so as to have many nooks for quiet conversation, with the fireplaces, settles, and other homelike features that have so charmed both members and visitors in the old building now occupied. A distinctive feature of the new club house will be the numerous entrances. The strangers' entrance will be entirely distinct from the members' entrance, giving access for the public to the auditorium, art gallery, and private dining room floors, entirely apart from the others.

The club has never, as a club, sponsored any particular movement for civic betterment, but has provided a forum where all such questions

can be freely discussed, but various movements which have contributed to the civic improvement of Boston have had their origin in such meetings as, for example, the present Chamber of Commerce.

## THE CITY CLUB OF CLEVELAND

Cleveland has joined the list of cities now maintaining vigorous and active city clubs. The movement was started during the sessions of the Charities Conference in June, 1912, when a number of representatives from other city clubs were in Cleveland. Several meetings followed and in November, the club was organized with a membership of 152. D. E. Morgan, former member of the City Council, was elected president. The club now has a membership of over 400 and is planning to have permanent quarters.

The framing of a new charter under the home rule amendment will be the subject to which the club will first give its attention.

The new club is organized on the plan of the Chicago City Club. It will take no action, as such, on any public matter. For the first two or three years it is the intention of the organizers of the club to confine its work to discussion.

A program is now being arranged for the rest of the season. Mayor Brand Whitlock was the first speaker, and discussed some impressions of municipal government in European cities.

Mayo Fesler, secretary of the Municipal Association, is secretary of the Club.

## FEDERAL LEGISLATIVE REFERENCE BUREAU

That the legislative reference bureau plan is a live idea in the national capital, and that the proposal to equip the Library of Congress with a department of this kind will probably, in the near future, be actively pushed, was indicated during the consideration by the Senate of the legislative, executive and judicial appropriation bill. Senator Owen of Oklahoma brought up an amendment proposed by himself providing for such a bureau, but the senator in charge of the bill made the point of order that the amendment was not germane. Thereupon Senator La Follette said:

"I have made a partial canvass of the members of the Library Committee and I believe we will be able to have a bill more complete and comprehensive than any amendment which could now be offered reported from that committee before another appropriation bill passes the Senate. Then I hope, Mr. President, to take the time of the Senate very briefly to set forth what has been done in Wisconsin by the establishment of the legislative reference department."

There is now pending in the House a bill of this kind, introduced by Representative Nelson of Wisconsin, hearings on which were held almost a year ago. It is apparent that the idea, though new to many Congressmen, is one that is growing in favor.



## HEALTH

NEWSPAPERS have recently announced that Prof. F. B. Mallory of the Harvard Medical School has just discovered the bacillus of whooping cough. Professor Mallory himself makes no claim of discovery. The bacillus he found in the respiratory tract of two fatal uncomplicated cases of whooping cough he holds is the same as that discovered in 1900 by two French observers, Bordet and Gengou. These men succeeded in 1906 in obtaining the bacillus in pure culture, and then they showed that the blood of persons suffering from whooping cough contained a substance defensive to these germs. Their work was confirmed, and the bacillus is now generally accepted as the cause of whooping cough.

Professor Mallory's work consists in demonstrating how the bacillus causes the symptoms of whooping cough. It seems that the effect is very largely mechanical. The bacillus, which is very minute, is found in enormous numbers between the cilia of the cells which line the respiratory tract. These delicate, hair-like projections normally have an active motion toward the upper part of the tract, and in this way secretions and particles of dust are moved on until they can be coughed up. But when the cilia are interfered with by the lodging of these bacilli the secretions are retained, and as a result we have the spasmodic cough characteristic of this disease. There is also some evidence of a mild poison formed by the bacilli.

\* \* \*

MANY associations devoted to public health and to social reforms are now turning to the cinematograph as a valuable aid in popular propaganda. But Dr. George M. Gould of Atlantic City, in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, raises a voice of warning of the evils of eye strain which follow in the wake of this much admired form of amusement and instruction.

"The symptoms do not in my experience differ essentially or greatly from those commonly caused by eye strain of any kind or from any variety of abuses of the eyes. The most common, of course, are headache, sick headache, migraine in one or several of its thousand protean forms. A few symptoms that are perhaps more frequent and emphasized more than others are intense ocular and cerebral weariness, a sort of dazed 'good-for-nothing' feeling, lack of energy, of appetite, etc., to which almost as frequently may be added 'upset stomach.'"

These symptoms are, of course, increased if the person has some defect of sight which has not been remedied by proper glasses. Dr. Gould enumerates four causes of eye strain in moving picture shows. First, the tremulous, jerky move-

ment of what should be fixed solid points for the eye to rest on. Both the mind and the eye are confused by this utterly unnatural movement. The second comes from the fact that the individual images which make up these pictures are often superposed so slowly that they are perceived separately, instead of being fused into a flowing unity. In this way the retina receives a swiftly passing series of slightly differing pictures, instead of what should be a continuous one. "Eye and brain have never had to endure such a series of disconnected stimuli as this unendurable fluttering." The third cause is found in the fact that the points in the individual pictures demanding the attention of the eyes are first in one part and then in another, so that the eyes dance from one point to another in order to follow the continually shifting interest. The fourth cause is the wretched lighting of these pictures.

The growth of the cinematograph business in the last twelve years has been enormous. Dr. Gould estimates that in our country alone there are between 12,000 and 20,000 moving picture theaters.

"The total investment in the business is thought to be about \$50,000,000. It is seriously proposed to carry on a large proportion of school teaching and of medical, hygienic and scientific instruction by means of the cinematograph. . . . If it is true that about 5,000,000 spectators are in daily attendance at the picture-show theaters, the consequent eye strain injuries and sufferings must be enormous, however conservatively estimated, and there is little likelihood of their exaggeration by hygienists and physicians."

\* \* \*

ANY one who has carefully followed the discussions of biologists, sociologists, physicians and statisticians on the vexed question of alcohol as a poison, must realize that there is probably no subject, except perhaps the psychology of sex, on which it is more difficult to take an impartial stand, one absolutely unaffected by unconscious prejudices. Even when prejudice is conquered there still remains the difficulty of collecting and handling the facts bearing on this question with any real accuracy. How can we, for instance, report on the question of racial degeneration consequent on alcoholism when we can never eliminate all other factors of degeneration in the class we are studying? We cannot even find any absolutely normal non-alcoholic class to serve as a basis of comparison—what the biologists call a control. This is one place in which the value of animal experiments becomes evident, for it is possible to do away with both these sources of









## TRACHOMA, A NATIONAL MENACE

ALFRED C. REED,  
M. D.

UNITED STATES  
PUBLIC  
HEALTH SERVICE

*Courtesy of Journal of American Medical Assn.*

### A MOUNTAIN CABIN IN KENTUCKY

This is the type of dwelling in the region where the investigation of the United States Public Health Service showed that trachoma is a menacing danger.

In the mountains of Kentucky live a people of the purest American ancestry. Stalwart, brave, unmixed with other blood, they are of the same mettle as were the pioneers who followed Boone to the virgin wilds beyond the ranges. Pocketed in the inaccessible mountains, the mighty train of American development has swept by them, leaving them sidetracked, forgotten and neglected, in the hills of their adoption, an unknown people in the midst of a busy, careless nation.

The poorer among them live for the most part in small log cabins, which are scattered sparsely through the mountain region. The families of these mountaineers number usually from ten to fifteen members. All eat, sleep and spend their home life together in the one room of the cabin. They use a common wash-basin, often a large stone with the surface hollowed out, just outside the door. Hanging next to it is the large family towel which does duty for days in succession. The cabins which have windows at all have only small ones. Ventilation is always bad, and all openings are scrupulously closed at night in the winter time.

Close intermarriage, lack of even rudimentary sanitation, and monotonous, ill-suited diet result in the children being predisposed to tuberculosis, infectious diseases, and other ills. Ring-worm of the scalp, uncorrected defects of vision, adenoids, enlarged tonsils, and hookworm infection are common obstacles that prove insurmountable for large numbers of the children. Their unkempt and neglected condition is pitiable. Of mentally backward and defective persons there are many, although the typical mountaineer is intelligent and wide-awake even though illiterate.

The social and economic needs of these mountaineers of Kentucky, Tennessee, Carolina and

Virginia are beginning to be recognized, but it has remained for Dr. John McMullen of the federal Public Health Service to call striking attention to a serious danger now menacing them. In a recent investigation Dr. McMullen found that trachoma is present to an alarming and unsuspected degree among the mountaineers and that the blindness and defective vision resulting from it are responsible for an incalculable impairment of social, economic and intellectual efficiency.

Trachoma is a communicable disease of the eyelids which, if untreated, usually progresses to blindness, and practically always causes more or less interference with vision. Dr. McMullen examined about 4,000 persons, and found 500, or 12½ per cent, to have trachoma. From 3 per cent to 18 per cent of the school children were affected. Most of the cases receive no treatment, and each case becomes a local focus of contagion. One of the important factors in the spread of the disease is the common family towel. It appears that the disease must be of long standing in these mountains, and that it is getting progressively worse.

Trachoma is characterized by its chronic course, resistance to treatment and tendency to relapses and exacerbations. As a consequence, treatment must be long-continued and carried on with persistent, unremitting care. The prevention of the spread of the disease among the southern mountaineers must be furthered by a campaign of education in personal sanitation and hygiene. Dr. McMullen emphasizes particularly that the mountaineers must be shown the importance of sanitation, fresh air and clean homes. Stereopticon lectures in public buildings and schools, showing right and wrong methods, would have a good influence. District visiting nurses and social workers can preach the





A GROUP OF TRACHOMA VICTIMS

The attitudes of the people in this group are those naturally taken to protect and shade their eyes.

gospel of sanitation in the individual home. All such social work must be carefully organized to include the entire affected territory. Especially in school children, cases of trachoma should be isolated. Proper lighting and ventilation of schools must be combined with correction of refractive errors in the pupils and proper school instruction in personal hygiene.

The actual care and cure of existing cases offers the greater problem. Public clinics ought to be established similar to the one now conducted by Dr. J. A. Stucky, under the auspices of the W. C. T. U. Settlement School at Hindman, Ky. Movable field hospitals in connection with these clinics could afford surgical treatment to those cases requiring it. The work of the field hospitals should be supplemented by district visiting nurses, and the same territory should be covered periodically. Great patience and long-continued effort as well as considerable money will be needed to eradicate trachoma from these mountains. But the task can be accomplished with persistence and enthusiasm.

Trachoma has been found most destructive among the American Indians, particularly among those living on reservations. In some of the reservations in the Southwest trachoma is found in from 65 to 95 per cent of the Indians. Over 6,000 Indians were treated in 1911 for trachoma, and at the trachoma hospital of the Indian Service at Phoenix, Ariz., over 800 were operated upon and treated.

Dr. M. H. Foster, in a report to the secretary of the treasury on January 23, 1912, stated that of 1,364 Alaskan natives examined by him, 15 per cent had some eye trouble, and 7.2 per cent from all parts of Alaska suffered from trachoma. In some sections of the southwestern portion of Alaska the disease was present in 25 per cent of the native population. Dr. Foster urged the great need of a government home for blind natives in Alaska, and the provision of some trade or occupation to relieve their present pitiful condition.

In the fiscal year 1911, 2,504 cases of trachoma were certified in immigrants. In the fiscal year 1912, 718 cases were certified at Ellis Island alone. Considering the pitiful results in the victims of the disease, the serious extent to which it is already prevalent in the country, and its economic and social menace, it is doubly important to prevent the entrance of new cases and new foci of contagion.

Trachoma has been shown to be a public health problem of national concern, and prompt, persistent and energetic measures must be undertaken both by local, state and national health officers to prevent its further spread and to eradicate it where already present.

### COLD STORAGE FOOD

Newspaper tirades and hastily compiled magazine articles have led the public to believe that cold storage is a device for cornering the market, for making fresh food dear when normally it would be cheap, and for hoodwinking the consumer into buying old and deteriorated farm products under the impression that they are fresh. Strong as is this prejudice, it must be admitted that most people really do not know just what cold storage is or what it should be. Certainly the public is not ready to go back to the days before refrigeration and be content with the restricted winter diet of the last generation.

The American Public Health Association has helped to clear the confusion on this matter by a conference on the subject. The conclusions drawn by those who took part seemed unanimous that cold storage is unequivocally a blessing, but that it needs regulation. This must be directed, not so much to the storage plant, which usually represents a triumph of engineering skill, but to the selection of the food which is to be stored. As Professor Winslow says, public health suffered in the pre-storage days because of the difficulty of providing a proper variety of food during all seasons. Cold storage food may be bad, but that means that it was bad when it went into storage.

"I believe that instead of taking so much pains about what comes out of cold storage," says Professor Winslow, "the proper place for health men to operate is on the placing of things in cold storage. If we could keep out of the warehouses that food which is just on the edge of spoiling and is put there only to save it for a little time, we should make a great gain."

The same fact is insisted on by H. D. Pease in his paper on the storage of fish and mollusks.



It is the treatment of the fish before refrigeration that determines whether or not the stored product will be fit to eat.

As to the time element, Professor Winslow believes it is comparatively unimportant and that attempts to place a limit by law of three months, six months or nine months are futile.

"They may be of consequence to the public purse, but nature limits these things, and the proper basis should be seasonal periodicity. A year is the natural and should be the legal limit in climates like ours, because then the next crop comes into competition with the old crop, and if any limit is needed,—which I do not believe,—then it would be natural and proper to have it the limit nature has set to production. I do not believe that any limit is necessary, and my reason is this, that the accumulation of the charges for storage, interest, taxes and all those things, will, in 999 cases out of 1,000, oblige the packer of foods in cold storage to get rid of them, even at a great loss, before the next season's crop comes in."

The physics of refrigeration described by P. H. Bryce evidently presents a problem of great difficulty to the sanitary engineer. It involves not only the maintenance of a proper temperature, but a system of ventilation which will abstract humidity from the incoming air when the humidity outside is great, lest the dampness favor germ growth. The ventilating system must also add humidity when the incoming air is too dry, lest the food dry up, and secure the circulation of air around the whole surface of the stored food, for if two surfaces touch each other and exclude the air the food may spoil.

The flood of ill-designed, crudely drawn bills presented to legislatures in the different states on the subject of cold storage is criticised in an article by H. E. Barnard. The passage of many of these bills would have meant the destruction of the cold storage industry in that state, yet the importance of cold storage is recognized increasingly every day. The Canadian government has adopted the policy of subsidizing the construction of refrigerating warehouses. A committee appointed by the French government to study the increase in the price of foodstuffs in that country has reported that an important factor in food prices is the lack of facilities for cold storage in France.

Mr. Barnard was chairman of a committee appointed by the National Association of Food Officials in 1911 to draft a model cold storage bill, and he summarizes as follows the provisions of such a bill:

"The committee defines cold storage as a warehouse for the holding of food products at or below a temperature of 40 degrees Fahrenheit. It assumes that the states have already at hand machinery for the sanitary control of food-producing establishments, and it provides that the operators of cold storage warehouses shall obtain a license from the State Board of Health for conducting the business after a sanitary inspection has shown the warehouse to be in satisfactory condition. The bill provides

*Roll on, thou stiff and dark old towel-  
roll,*

*A hundred hands are wiped on  
thee each day;*

*Thou leavest mystic records, like a  
scroll,*

*And finger prints off all who pass  
thy way.*

*And where be those who saidst thou  
should not stay?*

*They pass, but thou rollest thy  
length immense.*

—Judge.

that a complete record shall be kept of all goods entering storage and that a quarterly report of such facts shall be presented to the State Board of Health.

"It is believed that such reports will prevent the cornering of the food supply. It provides that no article of food shall be placed in storage if not sound and in good condition, or unless it has been prepared in accordance with the Pure Food and Sanitary Food Laws.

"The committee is unanimous in its belief that cold storage legislation should not antedate pure food and sanitary food legislation, but rather should follow and supplement it.

"When food is placed in storage the date of entry is plainly marked on the container, and when removed it is again marked. No goods shall be held in cold storage for a longer period than twelve calendar months, except under certain conditions referable to the State Board of Health. It provides that goods which have been in storage must be labeled 'Cold Stored' in such manner that the consumer knows when he purchases his eggs, for instance, that they are storage eggs. It provides that the State Board of Health may make all necessary rules and regulations to secure a proper enforcement of the law.

"As an evidence of the honest desire of cold storage operators for reasonable legislation, it is worthy of note that the preliminary draft of this bill, except in certain minor points, is acceptable to the cold storage interests."

## JOTTINGS

### MEDICAL DEPARTMENT FOR THE BELL COMPANIES

In connection with the pension plan of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, the Western Union Telegraph Company and the Western Electric Company, a system of medical supervision and preventive sanitation is to be gradually established. The purpose is to preserve the health of the employees. Dr. Alvah H. Doty, former health officer of the port of New York, has been employed as medical director of the Employees' Benefit Fund Committee. In announcing the appointment of Dr. Doty, President T. N. Vail of the telephone company said:

(Continued on page 718.)



# EDUCATION

## WORK AND CITIZENSHIP

### THE WISCONSIN EXPERIMENT IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

H. E. MILES

PRESIDENT WISCONSIN STATE BOARD OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION; CHAIRMAN COMMITTEE ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS

Providence seems to be waiting with innumerable suffering children on one side and an abundance of willing and competent teachers on the other—waiting only for the old-fashioned school teacher to open the door of his prejudice and inexperience to let the social and industrial forces that have built up this country share in a common-sense direction and control of our chaotic educational situation. Such a control has been accomplished to the satisfaction of the educators and people of Wisconsin. When will the rest of the country wake up and act? The way is clear and simple.

#### *A Perfect School in a Month*

In any progressive, up-to-date community a substantially perfect industrial school for children of fourteen to sixteen years of age can be started in from four to twelve weeks. What is more, it can secure superior teachers who will incidentally exert a reflex influence upon our present out-of-touch, out-of-date school workers to the untold betterment of the present common schools.

There is nothing of speculation in this statement. It is a statement of simple fact demonstrated in most, if not all, the places where it has been tried. Such a school was started at Racine, Wis., a year ago on about forty-eight hours' notice from the state authorities, and on four weeks of preparation by the local authorities. Twenty-five such schools were started in other places in Wisconsin last September. In Sheboygan, for instance, a bright, prosperous industrial community of 40,000 people, the class in woodworking is taught by a splendid German of middle age with heart as young as the children's. He was an apprentice in Germany, then a journeyman, and then, in this country, journeyman, foreman and employer, successively. No seventy dollar a month common-school teacher has a tithe of that man's experience and ability as an instructor.

At the end of six weeks there were 350 children, fourteen to sixteen years old, from the industries in this school, with 100 more on the waiting list, and estimated still 150 more to come in when the authorities fully enforce the law as they must.

#### *Teachers in Abundance*

Industrial education must begin with the millions of industrially inclined children fourteen years of age. The buildings are ready in our present school plants, adequate with little or no extension, and there are so many more teachers than are needed as to make this question neg-

ligible. I have given the experience of Sheboygan and Superior, industrial towns without college or other so-called superior sources of supply. Racine is the same sort of town; she started with a teacher of woodworking, professionally trained. He soon left for a higher salary. In the emergency the foreman of the pattern room in one of the big factories took his place and was found to be one of the best teachers on the force. He discovered, too, that the professionally trained teacher had made no allowance in his pattern work for the shrinkage in the metal, and had been making patterns that would not "draw" out of the sand.

Says the superintendent at West Allis: "We are especially fortunate here in getting men teachers from the shops who have had college training. In the West Allis shops we find college men from the best technical schools of the country who are serving as apprentices. Our nearness to Milwaukee enables us to get women, too." Says Mr. McIver of Oshkosh: "We have no difficulty in getting teachers for our carpentry, etc., or for the girls' work in sewing, etc. I find that men who have had actual shop experience in commercial work, together with some school training, are the most desirable."

The charge that there is lack of teachers can only be made by those who are quite uninformed, more especially by teachers and public educators themselves. This is because they turn their backs upon the real source of supply and look to normal schools and to teachers of their own sort for instructors in vocational education. Germany and other countries that have successful vocational training do not admit such instructors. They require that vocational instructors shall have spent a considerable period, usually three years, in actual employment in the industries.

If those who are responsible for this new phase of education in this country will look to the industries for men to teach the vocations, as they would look to the law for men to teach law or to dentists for teachers of dentistry, and theologians for theology, they will find more efficient teachers than they need.

#### *Wisconsin's Demonstration*

By the Wisconsin law the local industrial schools are in the control of a committee consisting of two employers, two employes and the city superintendent. This union of the social forces most interested becomes a new social leaven and is directly responsible for splendid results. It cannot be said which is happiest and



## THE NEW EDUCATION

[For years public education in the United States has been criticized as being too aloof from life. Manufacturers and social workers, progressive educators and even unlettered parents (in their own way) have been as one in feeling that precious years, to a greater or less degree, are being wasted. To dislodge academic inertia and to preach that these years should be ones of real preparation for life and labor is the common program of the growing movements in the field of vocational education.

When it comes to the method by which this end is to be obtained there is divergence. One is to give boys and girls who have reached fourteen the practical vocational training calculated to help them to become efficient producers.

Mr. Miles, who recently retired from the presidency of the Racine-Sattley Company of Wisconsin, makers of implements and vehicles, is an ardent promoter of this method. He has brought the manufacturers of the country, in their national association, to his way of thinking and he was instrumental in instituting the vocational schools in Wisconsin. He conceives them as a means for turning out a working citizenship that will more than match Germany's and that will conserve the country's greatest waste (beside which all others are insignificant) i. e., human capacity. Mr. Miles believes, moreover, that the development of vocational education should be separate from the present school control, and that the shaping of the new schooling should be entrusted to the experience and vision of men actually engaged in the world's work. Massachusetts started out with a separate industrial board; and now both industrial and elementary schools have been brought under the same supervisory agency.

There are those, on the other hand, who fear that pressing industrial needs may, if unchecked, skew elementary education as far in one direction as the commercial demands of a generation ago skewed it in another. Their program is to reorganize the present structure of elementary education rather than create a new wing. By introducing manual, industrial and social activities into the existing curriculum, they believe that children may be given a broader and more permanent cultural and vocational foothold.

This presentation of Wisconsin's experience by one of the men who has thrown himself into it is of wide interest at the present moment, as the subject of industrial education is to the fore this winter in Illinois, Indiana, Pennsylvania and other states whose legislatures are in session.—Ed.]

most devoted to the work, the employes, the parents, the employers, the school teachers or the pupils.

The following word comes from the city superintendent of Superior:

"My experience with the work thus far in Superior has been exceedingly encouraging. The quality of young men who are seeking help in the industrial school leads me to believe that many young men will be far more serviceable to their community, and will be helped much personally by the opportunities they have in the industrial school.

"Our day continuation school is not only interesting boys and girls who never were much interested in the regular day schools, but it relieves the regular day schools of problems which were a constant source of annoyance, and problems which they could not personally solve, and leaving them free to expend their energies on others who are being benefited by their efforts. There is hearty co-operation on the part of everybody concerned, and at present every permit pupil

in the city that comes under the law is attending the continuation school regularly."

The influence of this sort of work, the effects of the wonders to be accomplished by approaching the mind through the motor activities, the creative desires and everyday interests of the young people will almost revolutionize the practice of the common school teachers, as they themselves now declare.

## Where Shall the Control Be?

Be it known in particular that the views here expressed concerning the necessity of separate and practical boards of control are not primarily the business man's views, though he is wholly devoted to them. They are primarily the views of the most enlightened of our educators, the Wisconsin law being written and advanced by her foremost educators, and accepted devotedly, intelligently and determinedly by all her people upon the initiative and suggestion of these educators.

Back of these educators and their findings lies the experience of all the foremost industrial nations of the world, who, by sore experience, found a teachers' control in the end impossible



and unendurable; and the joint control humanly perfect.

The teachers who wish to keep in their own hands this control are either selfish at the great expense of the child life of the nation or are uninformed. Sherwin Cody of Chicago, secretary of the permanent committee on commercial studies of the National Education Association, says of the proposed law in Illinois that at bottom this is the question, "Will the educators accept 49 per cent of the control, and give the business men 51 per cent, or will they insist on having 51 per cent or nothing?"

If any state or community expects to play with this question by leaving attendance at vocational schools optional, its effort is too inconsiderable for attention. Vocational education is not a boon, nor a privilege. On the part of the child it is a birthright; upon the state it is an essential, inescapable obligation. We are trying now to live "half slave and half free," half educated and half uneducated. The difficulties in so doing are everywhere apparent.

Surely no student of our social life can believe that the working people and the captains of industry will yield a point that vitally affects millions of our people, except as they be assured in advance that the schools will take the life of the day as it is, and fit the children thereto. In this matter of assurance is the crux of the question, and that assurance comes through the appointment of special state and local boards, consisting substantially, as in Wisconsin, of equal numbers of employers, employees and educators.

You cannot "fool all the people" for long, nor often. As a leader in the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education says: "We educators have fooled the public twice, once with mechanical drawing, and then with manual training, making both remote, unrelated, of very little practical value. Shall we try to fool the people a third time? If we do there'll be worlds of school teachers looking for jobs."

In Illinois, Indiana and some other states the school teachers insist on keeping the control. In so doing they would only fulfill the prediction of C. A. Prosser, substantially this: "It seems, in some quarters, that we shall begin wrong, and cut and fit as Germany did for fifteen years before we get right."

#### *Connecticut and a Single Board*

It has been said that insistence upon separate boards of control befores the real issue, which is only a matter of the quality of instruction to be given, and that, for instance, Connecticut is doing well with a single board of control. It might similarly be said that it makes no difference what sort of a board of directors a corporation has, if only its executive officers are right. What assurance is there that the executive officers will be right, unless the directors are such as know how to choose the executive officers, and require right procedure from them? The present Connecticut board consists of four manufacturers, two lawyers and one educator.

We might well be satisfied with so practical a board. It is like giving to the friends of vocational education their own sort of board, and then abolishing the other board, the old-time board as it exists in some of the states, and giving to the vocational board all the schools of the state.

Connecticut, however, is doing little more than experimental work in vocational education, spending what might be called a large sum of money in two cities only, Bridgeport and New Britain. When she gives vocational education to every child that needs it, to newsboys, cash girls and all, she will find that it is all that a specially selected state board, assisted by special boards in each locality, can do to institute and develop fully the new system. She will find it worth while to profit by the experience of five European nations, infinitely ahead of us in this respect.

Indiana has a state board of professional educators. In negotiations for legislation for vocational schools this board absolutely refused to admit to its membership any laymen. Then it conceded two, and at last three or four out of eleven, and also "advisory" committees in the localities.

Illinois and about two-thirds of all the states have no state boards, but, instead, state superintendents elected by the people—"the essential quality in the superintendent being that he is a 'vote getter.'" The state superintendent in Illinois is a professional autocrat, desirous, apparently, of perpetuating himself. He has proposed and advocated only bills so perpetuating himself and his powers. The last bill I have seen having his support provides for a state board of education of which the state superintendent shall be chairman, and which would "give him advice and suggestion." How is that for a substitute for the real thing?

#### *Cultural Values*

It is here that the school teachers' propaganda is weakest. Culture is what you *do not* get in our common schools. It is what the children in Wisconsin's industrial schools get all the time, and through every pore: love of work, industry, concentration, accuracy, appreciation of ordered processes, fellowship in service, instant and constant appreciation of cause and effect—all these and other things added to courses in hygiene, citizenship, rights and obligations, etc.

Culture is the training of the mind and body. Too long has it been made a matter of the closet and failed of real development in the great body of our people.

The immigrant population hunger for this schooling. The first man I saw in the evening class was from a German University, and better looking than those of us who were inspecting the school. Whatever may be said of immigration, this must be granted—if we receive the immigrant, get, as I believe, great value in his service, and give him the franchise, we must educate him in the principles that underlie our institutions and in our language. In some places restriction is temporarily put upon the number



of immigrants; otherwise, the schools would be overwhelmed.

### A False Perspective

We judge a tree by its fruit. And all too often by the fruit that comes to market. We don't look under the tree at the windfalls, the corrupted and lost.

Those who see the splendid school buildings, good looking teachers, vast expense, and the few children who graduate and judge by this are pretty content.

See the truth. Note that half of all the fruit of our tree of public education is windfall in the sixth grade, and only one-twentieth ripens from the elementary school, and one-thirtieth from the high, and you get an entirely new conception. The waste, waste, waste! We simply don't educate, and can't be complacent with

either those who would perpetuate the present control, or methods.

### The Cost

The yearly expense is less than half that of the ordinary elementary school per pupil, running from \$7 to possibly \$20, rarely, perhaps \$30. There are today about 5,000 children in the continuation day industrial schools, and as many adults in the evening and day schools.

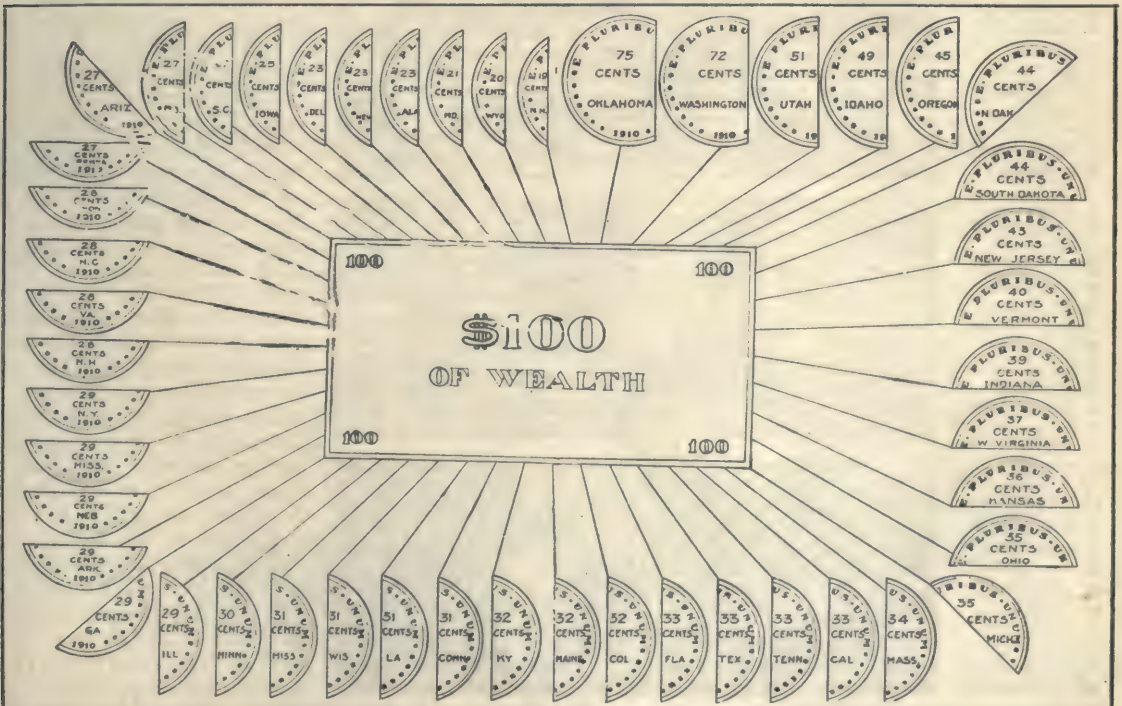
The difference between murder and neglect is only one of degree. Other cities can let their children suffer another twelve months, when they must yield to the Wisconsin demonstration. Can they not be moved to quicker action? Each twelve months is of vital consequence to 10,000,000 children, or more, and yet our school teachers prate and few dare to stand for the truth and complete justice and for action that is fully intelligent.

## TESTING THE EFFICIENCY OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Suppose you could make a dozen of your personal friends peer into a magic looking glass. Suppose each one could see in it just how he compares with the others in general calibre and usefulness. Wouldn't you be doing your level best to start self-improvement all around the circle?

Something like this has been done for forty-eight states with respect to their provision for public education, which is a pretty good test of their interest in the citizenship of the future. The looking glass in this case is a little book of facts put out by the Division of Education

of the Russell Sage Foundation, of which Leonard P. Ayres is director. It shows that if ten special tests of educational efficiency be applied to the different states, Washington takes first rank as a wise parent of childhood. Massachusetts is second, while South Carolina and Alabama bring up the foot of the list. The standing of all, and the tests applied, are shown in an accompanying diagram. While these tests were arbitrarily chosen, they are thought to be the ten most important features in estimating the service rendered by a given system of public schools.



### WHAT THEY HAVE AND WHAT THEY SPEND

Amount expended for schools for each \$100 of wealth (estimated total valuation of all real and personal property) in each state in 1910.



Now, a looking glass is useful only when it reflects, and it reflects only when you look into it. So the only way to make this pamphlet useful was to induce each state to see its own image in it. Therefore, 6,027 copies were sent to 6,027 members of state legislatures in about forty states whose law-makers are in session this winter. The governor of each state and each state superintendent of schools received a copy. Seven hundred and seventy city superintendents and 154 principals of normal schools found them in their mail, and in addition fifty-eight college departments of education were presented with copies.

This fairly took care of those immediately responsible for the conditions which the pamphlet described. But sometimes such people don't live up to their responsibility. So it became necessary to get the facts before the people of each

state. Five hundred and seventy newspapers and magazines were selected and to each was sent a copy of the pamphlet together with a press story. Four weeks later, while the clippings were still coming in, 418 papers had been heard from and the clippings averaged over a column to a paper. Many gave whole pages to the story, printing interviews with local school men as to its significance. These 418 papers reached a circulation of 10,818,978. No other study made by the foundation ever received such extensive publicity.

Legislators, school men and newspapers did not exhaust the range of those who wanted copies. Orders for various quantities at fifteen cents each began to come in from all sorts of sources. An official of the United States Brewers' Association wrote for fifty copies. A fire insurance exchange wanted several.

The vice-president of the Chicago City Railway Company telegraphed twice to have copies hurried to him. Government officials of England, France, Germany and Italy sent orders. A tutor of the Russian Crown Prince went personally to the office to secure a copy. And a Chinese student in one of our universities ordered a copy to take back to China with him.

Much of this interest may be explained on the score of timeliness. Hundreds of fresh, enthusiastic law-makers are entering this winter on their first experiences as representatives of the people. "Many of these," explained Mr. Ayres, "are going to their state capitols filled with the ambition to pass progressive legislation. In this frame of mind, almost their first thought is 'what can be done to better the schools?' The forty legislatures convening this year consider annually 1,000 bills on educational questions and enact 200 of them into law. So the time was ripe for making known the salient facts about school conditions in all the states."

But not all the interest apparently can be explained on that ground. Much of it is probably to be regarded as evidence of an increased belief, in this country and elsewhere, in the obligation of the state to lay sure the foundations of future citizenship.

	CHILDREN IN SCHOOL	SCHOOL PLANT	EXPENSE PER CHILD	SCHOOL DAYS PER CHILD	SCHOOL YEAR	ATTENDANCE	EXPENDITURE AND WEALTH	DAILY COST	HIGH SCHOOLS	SALARIES
1 WASHINGTON										
2 MASSACHUSETTS										
3 NEW YORK										
4 CALIFORNIA										
5 CONNECTICUT										
6 OHIO										
7 NEW JERSEY										
8 ILLINOIS										
9 COLORADO										
10 INDIANA										
11 RHODE ISLAND										
12 VERMONT										
13 NEW HAMPSHIRE										
14 UTAH										
15 OREGON										
16 MONTANA										
17 MICHIGAN										
18 N DAKOTA										
19 IDAHO										
20 MINNESOTA										
21 IOWA										
22 MAINE										
23 PENNSYLVANIA										
24 KANSAS										
25 NEBRASKA										
26 S DAKOTA										
27 NEVADA										
28 WISCONSIN										
29 WYOMING										
30 ARIZONA										
31 OKLAHOMA										
32 MISSOURI										
33 W. VIRGINIA										
34 FLORIDA										
35 DELAWARE										
36 MARYLAND										
37 TENNESSEE										
38 TEXAS										
39 LOUISIANA										
40 NEW MEXICO										
41 VIRGINIA										
42 KENTUCKY										
43 ARKANSAS										
44 GEORGIA										
45 MISSISSIPPI										
46 N CAROLINA										
47 S CAROLINA										
48 ALABAMA										

THESE ARE THE TEN TESTS

Rank of states in each and all of ten educational features, 1910.



## INVESTMENT IN SCHOOL PLANT

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So far as the clipping service reveals, the South gave a greater proportionate publication to the facts than any other section of the country. Virginia and Wisconsin, the former standing forty-first, the latter twenty-eighth, seemed to sustain the rudest shocks to their pride.

As a nation, the United States has a shorter school day, a shorter school week, and a shorter school year than any other highly civilized country in the world.

Our expenditures for public education have more than doubled in the past ten years. Today the United States spends nearly half a billion dollars a year on its public schools. The expenditure per child of school age ranges all the way from \$3 in South Carolina to \$32 in Washington.

In Mississippi the average investment per child in school buildings and property is \$4.00, while in Massachusetts it is nearly 29 times as much, or \$115.

The unequivocal comparison of one state with another proved a delight to the newspaper man's heart. Politicians and interested persons in nearly every state habitually delude the people with the assurance that their state leads the nation in the wisdom and bounty of its provision for education. Doubtless many persons sincerely believed that such was the case. Now came a rude shock. An Iowa editor, whose state ranked twenty-first, asked in a headline, "Is Our Boast Busted?" and papers in a dozen states



States where school attendance is compulsory throughout state in outline, those where it is compulsory in part of state in diagonal, and those where it is nowhere compulsory in solid black.

States having mandatory laws in outline, those having permissive laws in diagonal, and those having no laws in solid black.



As a nation, we allow our public schools to burn down at the rate of more than one for every school day in the year.

The per cent of attendance ranges from about 60 in Maryland and Mississippi to more than 80 in Oregon and Massachusetts.

In North Carolina, New Mexico, Arkansas and Alabama the attendance period is so short that the average pupil would need about 22 years to complete an elementary course of eight years of nine full school months each. If he were compelled to live up to this standard, he might enter school at the age of five and not get his eighth grade certificate until he was 27.

In eighteen of the forty-eight states the average annual wage of public school teachers amounts to less than one dollar a day. In just five states is it more than two dollars a day. The highest average salary paid in the United States is \$918, in California, and the lowest is \$200, in North Carolina.

According to this study, the average annual wage of carpenters in the United States is about \$802, of coal miners \$600, of factory workers \$550, of common laborers \$513, and of teachers \$485.

Throughout the southern states thousands of rural teachers earn less than \$150 a year. In one New England state hundreds of teachers earn less than six dollars per week. In one county in a Central Atlantic state the average for all teachers is \$129 per year. One southern state rents its convicts to contractors at a little more than \$400 per year, while it pays its public school teachers slightly over \$300.

#### VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN NEW YORK

For the purpose of "studying the field and furthering the work of vocational guidance," the Vocational Guidance Association of New York has just been formed. This is the outgrowth of suggestions made at the Second National Conference on Vocational Guidance, reported in *THE SURVEY* of November 23, 1912.

Among the teachers, social workers, business and professional men present at that meeting there was general acceptance of certain fundamental facts in regard to children who leave school at an early age to go to work. It was regarded as having been quite proved that they leave with little or no training which fits them to enter industry auspiciously; that, therefore, most of them spend a great part of the next year or two shifting from one line of work to another, without aim and without advantage to themselves; and, finally, that not more than a quarter of these children are driven into wage-earning occupations through economic necessity within their homes. The majority of them, it was believed, could be induced to take advantage of further education if such education could be made to appear to them to bear a real relation to their future life.

With these facts as a basis it was pointed out that there are two ways of attacking the problem. One is by finding the best jobs available for boys and girls of fourteen as they leave school. The other is by doing three things: studying the needs and opportunities of industry, and making these known to the children; changing the school curriculum so that it will more adequately fit for life; and discovering the vocational aptitudes of the children who leave.

The new association extends its scope to all of these methods. Its active work is to be carried on by the five following committees, though others may be added from time to time.

Committee on Study of Occupations; chairman, Alice P. Barrows, Vocational Education Survey.

Committee on Opportunities for Vocational Training; chairman, Charles S. Bernheimer, Hebrew Educational Society, Brooklyn.

Committee on Giving Vocational Information to Children; chairman, Henrietta Rodman, Wadleigh High School.

Committee on Vocational Analysis; chairman, James E. Lough, New York University.

Committee on Placement; chairman, Eli W. Weaver, Boys High School, Brooklyn. Placement of Boys, Gilbert J. Raynor, Commercial High School, Brooklyn. Placement of girls, Mrs. P. J. O'Connell, Alliance Employment Bureau.

It is contemplated that every person desiring to do active research or field work in vocational guidance shall attach himself to one of these committees. It is intended also to bring the association "into active touch with the world of affairs through an advisory board, consisting of representative employers, workers, and experts in various fields."

The officers are as follows: president, Frederick G. Bonser, Teachers College; first vice president, Edward L. Stevens, associate superintendent of schools; second vice president, Stephen P. Duggan, College of the City of New York; secretary, Benjamin C. Gruenberg, Commercial High School, Brooklyn; treasurer, Robert J. Leonard, secondary schools of Teachers College.

#### VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS IN WASHINGTON

A bill providing for vocational continuation schools has been introduced in the Washington legislature. It provides for compulsory continuation schooling for six hours weekly, three years for boys and two years for girls, after the age of fifteen. The plan is somewhat similar to the Cooley proposal in Illinois, but differs in empowering the local school board to appoint the board to have charge of vocational training. In this and other respects it resembles the Wisconsin law enacted in 1911.



# CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

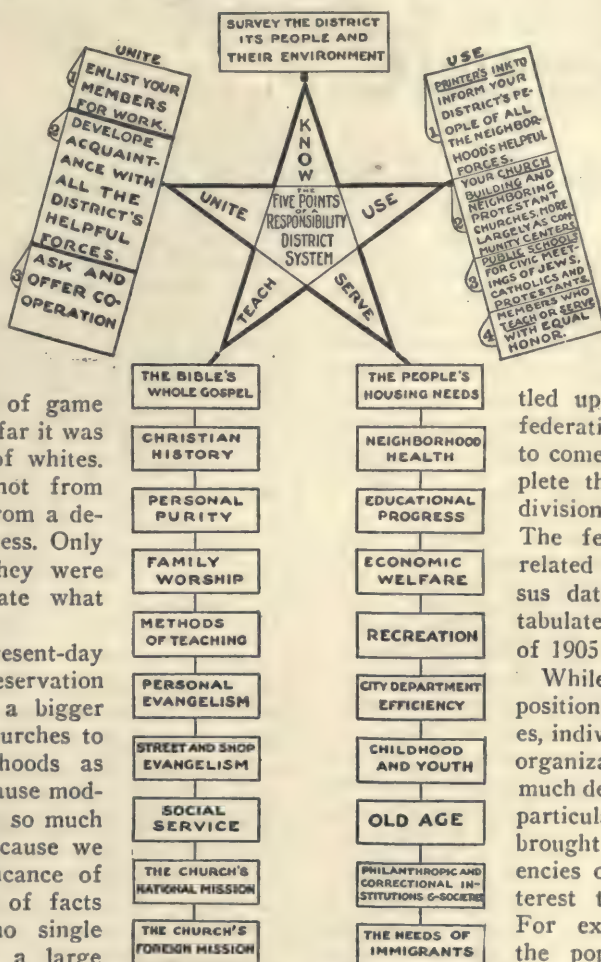
Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

## TELLING THE CHURCHES WHERE THEY ARE

The Puritans who settled in New England did so practically as congregations; put in modern terms, one of the earliest needs felt by these church communities was that of statistics of their neighborhoods. They wanted to know, for example, the density and tribe of nearby Indians, the quantity of game within reach and how far it was to other settlements of whites. Their need sprang not from fear alone, but also from a desire for larger usefulness. Only by knowing where they were could they demonstrate what they were.

It is so with present-day churches. Self-preservation and the hunger for a bigger service are leading churches to study their neighborhoods as never before. But because modern neighborhoods are so much more complex and because we understand the significance of so many more kinds of facts than we used to, no single church, especially in a large city, can adequately inform itself of all that it wants to know. The New York Federation of Churches has undertaken to supply the data with regard to New York for all who will use it. It has recently announced that it is now ready to furnish, through its Population Research Bureau, manifold demographic statistics for the Boroughs of Manhattan, Bronx, Queens and Richmond, and that it will be able to do the same for Brooklyn in a month.

Much of the material which the federation has at its disposal is the result of painstaking interpretation of the 1910 census returns. It was through the efforts of the Department for the Improvement of Social and Living Conditions of the Charity Organization Society and the federation that the tabulation of the city in



The Federation uses a star to illustrate the joint responsibility of the Protestant churches under a distinct system.

that census was done largely by forty acre tracts instead of by wards and assembly districts, which varied so in size and boundary as to be almost useless for the purposes of these two organizations. Even after the facts had been gathered they would have remained bot-

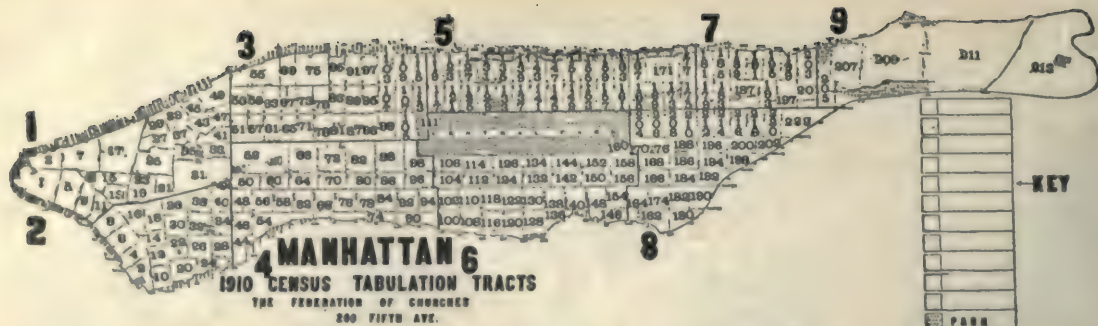
tled up in Washington if the federation had not been allowed to come to the rescue and complete the partially inaugurated division of the city into tracts. The federation has also correlated with the federal census data information specially tabulated from the state census of 1905 for the same tracts.

While the federation is in a position to supply to the churches, individuals and social service organizations of the greater city much detailed information about particular localities, it has also brought out some larger tendencies of the population of interest to the general reader. For example, the growth in the population of Manhattan through immigration has long been familiar. But while Manhattan was 47.36 per cent foreign white, 1910, against 42.31 per cent, 1900, or 5.05 per cent more foreign in 1910 than in 1900, Brooklyn became 4.63 per cent more foreign in the same decade, Bronx 3.99 per cent more foreign, Richmond 0.53 per cent, while Queens became 1.30 per cent less foreign.

Brooklyn now has nearly as many foreign-born whites as Chicago. Chicago has 585,420; Brooklyn, 571,356. Chicago has 35.7 per cent foreign-born whites; Brooklyn, 34.95 per cent. Chicago added to itself, 1900-1910, 195,797 foreign-born whites; Brooklyn added 217,606.

Buffalo has 423,715 people; the Bronx, 430,980. Buffalo has 118,444 foreign-born whites; the Bronx, 148,935. Buffalo has 28 per cent foreign-born; the Bronx, 34.6 per cent.





#### THE TABULATION TRACTS IN MANHATTAN

The cloth mounted original of this map, 72x21 inches, shows the tract populations, 1910; tract gains, 1905-1910; tract percentage gains; and gains or losses in nine tract groupings. This is the borough map supplied to churches, as described in text.

The officers of the federation hold that these figures controvert the position taken by some Protestants that a federation of Protestant churches may be necessary in Manhattan for the interpretation of evangelical Christianity to Jew and Roman Catholic—the present largest elements in the city's growth; but that such a federation should not cover Brooklyn and Bronx. Brooklyn, 1900-1910, gained over 48 per cent of the Russian growth of Greater New York.

From present tendencies the research bureau sets 9,600,627 as the maximum figures for Greater New York's population in 1940. Of this it assigns 2,158,221 to the Bronx, or over half a million more than to Manhattan in that year. The Bronx today, it is declared, is in about the same condition for church work problems as was Manhattan in 1860.

The federal census bureau is not allowed to classify the population by religions. Estimates by the research bureau for 1900 and 1910 are as follows:

	1900	1910
Roman Catholics .....	1,266,561	1,672,618
Protestants .....	1,572,629	1,785,366
Jews .....	598,012	1,252,135
Greek-Catholics .....		56,764

The *American Hebrew's* estimate of the number of Jews in New York today is about 900,000. This is said to be the figure commonly accepted among Jews. The federation's estimate is 300,000 more.

To return to the districts and the serviceability of the census data to the churches in them: For these districts in the four boroughs above named, information is now available dealing with such characteristics of the population as the percentage of foreign-born whites, of native whites of foreign parentage, of those speaking the various languages and dialects, of illiteracy, of children attending school, of foreign-born males of voting age, and with many other matters. This information, says the federation to individual ministers, constitutes "a

fundamental equipment for religious and social service in your district." It goes on:

"If, for instance, the survey shows your district in 1910 had a large foreign population of a given 'Nationality,' and you discover there is yet no neighboring religious work under way for it, it may be the duty of your church to institute an evangelizing movement for the nationality concerned. If you desire to co-operate in the anti-tuberculosis campaign by delivering throughout your district the health circular, 'Keep your Windows Open at Night!' the information as to the 'Number of Families' will, for this social service, inform you of the number of circulars you need, while the number of dwellings will inform you of the number of workers needed to distribute them, and country of birth of the various nationalities for which circulars should be procured.

"Other uses of this 1910 census population survey will occur to experienced workers.

"Churchless families, especially those with children, might be ascertained by a visitation of the district, and exchanges of like information could be made with churches assuming adjoining responsibility districts.

"Shops, factories, parks and institutions in the *responsibility district's* area, wherein teaching or social service might be carried on, should be ascertained.

"The helpful and harmful agencies in every block should be mapped. For this work the federation will make a list of forces for good and evil which should be noted, and suggest the best methods of locating them on block directories."

The "responsibility district" mentioned in this quotation is the unit of territory in which the federation urges each church to busy itself. For the greater part of the city these districts are forty acres in size, though in some sections they are much larger. Concerning the responsibility district system the federation says:

"It were too much to say that New York is



now entirely a home missionary field. It is not too much to say, however, that New York's Protestant churches cannot discharge their mission to the city without entering into a co-operative responsibility district system. For such a responsibility district system the tracts tabulated by the Federal Census, at the original suggestion of the Federation, are the best possible basis.

"In 1910 and 1925, if its plans are carried out, as well as in 1920 and in 1930, these tracts will be re-tabulated by the Federal Census Bureau, and if the Protestant churches have the vision and heroism now to begin to work for the city on a responsibility district basis, the Government Census will thus supply them, as well as other groups of religious and philanthropic workers and city and state authorities, with a quinquennial measurement of the changes of population. . . . The plan outlined, though not developed in full detail, cannot be carried out without an efficiency organization of the churches even greater than that called for in the Men and Religion Movement. To carry it out, the possession of the tract tabulations is a necessity for each church accepting a responsibility district. Even the churches which do not assume such districts will find, however, that a tract tabulation of their neighborhood is indispensable for their work."

The diagram on page 689 shows ten fields of social service activity,—in addition to the teaching suggested above, in which churches are bade to serve their communities. In respect to these the federation offers these suggestions:

**CO-OPERATE** with Tenement House Department to banish dark rooms. For method apply to the Federation. Co-operate in insisting on lighting of halls, and on sanitary conditions. For welfare of your own neighborhood, work for introduction of zone city-plan system of European cities throughout New York, which would reasonably restrict height of buildings and prevent private home neighborhoods from business and tenement house invasion.

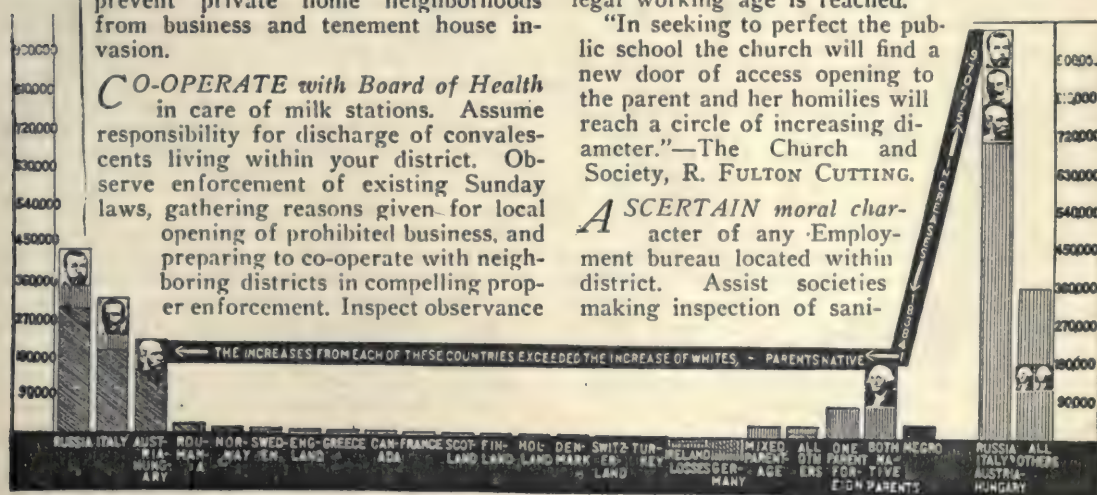
**CO-OPERATE** with Board of Health in care of milk stations. Assume responsibility for discharge of convalescents living within your district. Observe enforcement of existing Sunday laws, gathering reasons given for local opening of prohibited business, and preparing to co-operate with neighboring districts in compelling proper enforcement. Inspect observance

of ordinances prohibiting exposure of foods, and insist on enforcement. Observe enforcement of roller towels ordinance in public places and compel enforcement. Observe cleaning of streets and co-operate with street cleaning department. Inspect removal of garbage and co-operate in securing a scientific system of removal and disposal. Assist association of tuberculosis clinics in conducting nearest neighborhood clinic or day boat camp. Help summer mothers' classes. Organize children through public schools for periodic "spotless town" campaign in responsibility district. Unite physicians with offices in district to counsel things needed for banishment of all local disease, and to volunteer attention to necessitous families. Make an analysis of air of your church rooms to detect and remove excess of carbonic dioxide. Investigate hours of work in stores and factories of your district, and encourage employers to give, and the purchasing public to assist in securing a reasonable working day and Saturday half-holiday for classes of employes now overworked. Investigate in your neighborhood extent of seven-day work, and inform Federation or Churches of your discoveries to assist it in its legislative campaign for a compulsory one day's rest in seven.

**VISIT** public school in your district; form acquaintance of principals and teachers, and observe teaching methods. Attend opening exercises and judge of value of compulsory daily Bible reading in city's public schools. Ascertain causes of absence of district's children out of school, as tabulated by federal census in 1910 and any later survey of board of education. Investigate ventilation, seating, etc., of school buildings, in cooperation with public health association, and ascertain teachers' views of additional equipment needs. Organize a parents' association in your own church membership and from it organize a parents' association for your responsibility district, giving it headquarters in your church for its stated meeting. Investigate opportunities for education of defective children, and befriend families compelled to place their children in gainful occupations the moment the legal working age is reached.

"In seeking to perfect the public school the church will find a new door of access opening to the parent and her homilies will reach a circle of increasing diameter."—The Church and Society, R. FULTON CUTTING.

**ASCERTAIN** moral character of any Employment bureau located within district. Assist societies making inspection of sani-





tary and fire hazard conditions in shops and factories. Co-operate with campaign for honest weights and measures. Ascertain, as far as possible, number of industrial workers, living elsewhere, coming into district for their daily work, and if need appears, use your parish room for noonday rest and lunch for women workers. Investigate opportunities for securing vocational education in schools, factories, settlements, churches and other district social agencies. Secure, if needed, church rooms for meetings of district's labor union locals. Estimate district's economic waste from liquor traffic, and consult the Federation as to methods of reducing licensed drinking-places. Co-operate with state department of labor and organizations in a study of district loan agencies, and other forms of credit system.

**S***TUDY recreation conditions in parks in or near district and plans for further neighborhood park provision and equipment. Study need and supply of local outdoor playgrounds. Make periodic, simultaneous and systematic inspection of motion picture places and study sanitary and moral conditions and observance of laws regulating attendance of children. Organize simultaneous visits of volunteer inspectors to vaudeville shows and theatres, and work to prevent indecent performances. In church work regard recreation as a natural right and universal duty, and, if district dance-halls are dangerous, provide substitutes in parish rooms or elsewhere. Acquaint district's people with city's recreation resources by organizing visits to museums, zoological garden, parks, playgrounds—with special attention to boys.*

**V***SIT frequently every school, police station, fire hall, hospital, and every other city department with a district office, observing efficiency of management and unmet needs. Regard district's police as a most desirable and a possible ally for righteousness, and develop personal acquaintance with all inspectors, captains and patrolmen having local authority or duty.*

**S***TUDY recreational, educational and hygienic conditions and neighborhood habits of youth of your district, and institute district boy organizations. Study observance of child labor laws, and befriend families compelled to put children, prematurely, into gainful occupations. Assume responsibility to "big brother" all boys living within district, for whom children's courts have found no other friend, and ascertain from school teachers boys likely to reach court unless "big brothered" in advance. Study wages of working girls in neighborhood, and observance of law directing store-keepers to give them seats. As-*

certain number and nature of district's girls' boarding houses and boys' homes, and cooperate in meeting unsupplied needs.

**O***RGANIZE a committee to co-operate with any neighborhood home for the aged, and institute in district's churches simultaneous "old people's day," requisitioning automobiles owned by your church members or loaned for day.*

**O***RGANIZE neighborhood committee to co-operate with any local rescue mission. Form similar organization to co-operate with institutions and societies for relief, ministry to defectives and securing employment for out-of-works. Assure charity societies of willingness to care for any case of district distress having no other friend, and use confidential charity lists of such societies. Visit and inspect all philanthropic societies having district headquarters.*

**C***O-OPERATE with state bureau of industries and immigration, and aid Americanization of new immigrants on its request. Study 1910 Census population survey of your district, and teach English and civics to foreigners as shown to be necessary thereby, especially helping new immigrants to connect with public school classes in English for beginners.*

To any individual or church the federation advertises to furnish for \$10, a map of the borough in which the applicant lives, with its census data collated for three tracts—the one in which the applicant lives and two adjoining. To any settlement it will furnish for \$15, a similar map and information covering twelve tracts.

This last offer shows that the usefulness of the Population Research Bureau is not limited to churches. It has, in fact, already supplied to social service bodies data directly touching their work yet not obtainable in any other way. For example, the Public Recreation Commission of New York learned from the bureau that there are 770,037 children between six and fourteen years in Greater New York. These are, of course, the ones for whom certain types of amusement are especially needed. Seventy-two thousand of these, or 9.37 per cent, are not in school. The congested districts show the greatest percentage of absence from school. Ground maps for the commission's own interpretation of contributed data have been supplied it.

The secretary of the New York Federation of Churches, the Rev. Walter Laidlaw, believes that there is need for a similar service in every large city of America. St. Louis has arranged with the Census Bureau to secure much of the information about itself which the federation secured with regard to New York.



## THE ARMY CHAPLAINS' MEMORIAL

Not only the churches, but the general public, will do well to give prompt heed to a memorial which the chaplains of our army, navy and national guards have addressed to them. By invitation of the retired army chaplains a conference was held in Los Angeles "to consider the moral and religious needs of the various bodies serving their country in the military and naval forces of the United States."

Attention is called to the large proportion of young men among the 80,000 officers and men in the regular army, the 62,000 officers and men in the navy and the marine corps, and the 100,000 in the national guard. Just at the formative period of their manhood they are "crowded together in barracks and on ships, away from the restraining and elevating influences of home and churches, being forced to lives of celibacy and in the society of men alone."

These more or less unavoidable conditions of military and naval service are so perilous morally and spiritually as to demand extraordinary efforts to counteract and improve them. Less interest and means, however, are taken in providing for the religious needs of these 242,000 men, living at best under disadvantageous conditions, than are invested by the churches, the Young Men's Christian Association, and by public agencies of some cities and states to help and safeguard men living under conditions ordinarily more advantageous to the religious life.

These chaplains well state that their essentially difficult work is done under special disabilities. Chief among these is the prevalent assumption of the government's indifference to religion. This is supposed to be grounded in the constitutional provision forbidding any establishment of religion, which, however, was surely not intended to discredit religion. Nevertheless, it seems to have this effect in the indifferent attitude taken toward religion in the army and navy not only by superiors, subordinates and enlisted men, but by the public itself. The office of the chaplain is therefore regarded by officers and men "more as a sinecure than as a necessary part of the service and their work as unessential to the well being of the commands to which they are attached." Thus they are left not only without the moral support of administrative officials, but without any such church organization, advisory boards, church fellowship and direction, as sustain and strengthen the pastor and the missionary on their fields, however remote.

Not only is the number of chaplains inadequate to care for the battleships and army posts, training ships and stations which have an otherwise full complement of officers and men, but they are all most inadequately supplied with chapels or places for worship and instruction, with equipment of desks, tables, chairs, stationery, and libraries, reading rooms, moving pictures, or other forms of recreation.

The structure of the barracks is said by the chaplains to be "very unfavorable to morality

and religion, as it forces large numbers of men into each squad room." If this room were small enough for not more than a corporal's squad and liberty were given in the choice of squad rooms, "those who desire to cultivate decency might relieve themselves of offensive companionship."

While the general sentiment is said to prevail, both in the army and navy, against the excessive use of intoxicating liquors and in favor of temperance, "no systematic official encouragement is given chaplains to organize total abstinence societies nor to support and encourage young men to take pledges to overcome the temptations to drink," such as the British government extends to its chaplains.

And yet these handicapped ministers of religion unite in declaring that "no institution in the country, no college, no military boarding school, no reformatory, has the organization so admirably adapted to the purpose of molding its membership as the army and navy—and it does so mold it." But, they add, "The Christian public has not concerned itself whether the old sergeant has a contempt for the highest ideals or will build in the boy from Christian homes fiber of the good soldier."

THE SURVEY agrees with chaplains that "these counts must convince every fair-minded person that the present policy of our government toward that which is best in the soldiers and sailors, their moral and spiritual natures, is radically wrong and that the whole subject must have faithful consideration and prompt action." They have indeed "presented a national problem." For its solution we commend to the churches, and especially their social service commissions, the task of putting themselves immediately in co-operation with the field secretary of the Chaplains' Association, Chaplain Orville J. Nave, United States Army Retired, 2505 S. Grand Ave., Los Angeles, Cal.

### A RESPONSE TO THE CHAPLAINS' MEMORIAL

The San Francisco Preachers' Meeting was one of the first religious bodies to respond to the Chaplains' Memorial. Its resolutions covered all the points of need therein stated by requests to Congress, the War and Navy Departments for such standards, equipment and supervision as will insure for the religious work in the army and navy and its personnel the same consideration that is given to the other departments of the service. The most significant opinion expressed, however, was couched in these words:

"That while we commend most heartily the work which the Young Men's Christian Association has done in the army and navy, a work which under present conditions could not have been done if not done by the Y. M. C. A., we declare it as our opinion that the United States government should not continue to be an object of Christian charity,



but should support such work out of army and navy appropriations and under the care of its chaplains. If charitably disposed persons of means are so moved by conditions in our services that they are willing to contribute hundreds of thousands of dollars out of their own private purses for the amelioration of such conditions, it is high time that those in authority should take some adequate measures to meet these needs."

An army chaplain writes thus regarding the disposition in certain quarters to put the chaplaincy on a contract basis:

"I think it would be a serious mistake. The work of a chaplain is difficult and delicate, and we ought to have the very best men of the churches for the work. These men should make it a life work, and should be in position to study that work under all conditions, both in garrison and in the field, at home and abroad. Any man trying to do this work with less than the present commissioned status of chaplains would find himself very greatly handicapped.

"Two elements would favor degrading the chaplaincy: those who are clamoring for retrenchment in army expenditures and those in the service who fear that this spirit of economy may attack the retired list. These latter feel that probably sacrificing the chaplains might save others from the keen edge of the retrenching knife. This however, is not likely to affect the chaplains now in the service, but would be a great mistake for the future. We are now more anxious to secure proper equipment for our work and enough chaplains to do it. We beg the co-operation of all friends of the service."

From the *San Francisco Chronicle* of December 9 and 10, 1912, we take two statements which are in point:

"In treating of the morals of the army, Secretary of War Stimson recites the results of his inspection of forty-nine of the mobile army posts, where he found the military reservations adjoined by dives and ill resorts of the vilest character. These conditions he believes to be the ultimate causes 'which make the record of our army in this respect shameful beyond that of the army of any civilized nation.'"

This statement is made, however, by the secretary to support his belief that the so-called anti-canteen legislation has been responsible for much vice. The other excerpt sent us from the coast is a dispatch to the *Chronicle* from Sacramento stating that according to a report by the Board of Health from data prepared by Statistician George Leslie, "more soldiers and more nurses commit suicide in California than persons in any of the other occupations. Soldiers lead the men with 7.9 per cent, while nurses lead the women with 5.5 per cent." A correspondent adds: "As soldiers form a very small

per cent of the male population of California the above figures are significant."

## JOTTINGS

### DIGNIFYING THE CHAPLAINCY

Speaking of chaplains, here are the qualifications which the general superintendent of a state reformatory is seeking for that post in his institution:

"The kind of a man that I am seeking for is

(1) A Godly man that knows how to reach young men;

(2) One with sentiment well directed and controlled by common sense;

(3) One with ability to speak acceptably both to prisoners and the public;

(4) One with training in social work or in a school of philanthropy.

"While I want a good strong man, I also want a man with broad ideas of religion and who has had his sociological training four or five years ago, which would mean that he would have had an opportunity for some outside field experience since his college work or training. I want him to have reached an age that guarantees a degree of maturity of judgment. I want his religion to go through and through and clinch on the other side. I want a man who is willing to throw his whole soul into the work for the love of the good he can accomplish—a man with kindly magnetic personality, intellectual, scientific, with a correct conception of the broad humanism of the work. I am exceedingly anxious to build up an organization here along real scientific lines."

### INNER MISSIONS AS SOCIAL AGENCIES

The social work of the Lutheran churches is done chiefly through their Inner Missions. Established in Germany sixty-two years ago by Emanuel Wichern, the Lutheran apostle of modern missions, they have followed that great religious fellowship wherever it has spread over the world, thus fulfilling the prediction of their founder, that "the entire evangelical church must make the inner mission her work and demonstrate her faith by her love."

In Protestant deaconess mother-house work, which is the most distinctive feature of the mission, the Lutheran church is the pioneer. Nine such mother-houses have been established in the United States, and a tenth is in prospect. Their deaconesses are helpers not only in hospitals, orphanages, old people's homes, epileptic colonies and other charitable institutions, but they conduct Christian kindergartens and day nurseries, assist in settlement work and in parish ministries. The "Christian hospice" is another distinctive feature of this mission work. It is established in some instances for girls only, in others for general patronage, and is open not only for those who can pay a nominal rate, but for those who need free shelter. Meeting and caring for immigrants and a free employment bureau are parts of the same work.

The social instruction in many Lutheran theo-



logical seminaries is closely related to teaching the history and methods of the inner mission. Prof. George H. Gerberding of the Lutheran Theological Seminary at Chicago illustrates this connection in a pamphlet recently issued on the Relation of Inner Missions to Sociology.

#### "THE NEED OF NEW VISION"

Before the United Hebrew Congregation of St. Louis, Oscar Leonard, superintendent of the United Jewish Educational and Charitable Associations of that city, spoke of "the need of new vision" among his people. His diagnosis of a prevalent situation was bold, incisive, yet pervaded by intense loyalty to the fellowship. By his courtesy we reproduce some of the most striking sentences and paragraphs of this notable address:

"Our lack of vision disquiets us. Our growing generation has lost the vision which brought peace and contentment to the fathers. They have nothing in its stead. They are perishing for want of an ideal. As a result, pleasure has become their goal. In this the Jewish youth is like the American youth. These pleasures lead to indulgence of the kind never known among Jews before. We have reached a condition which probably cannot be paralleled in Jewish history.

"The Jewish family, which has been known through the centuries for its integrity, is disintegrating. The time has come for us to take heed. The danger in here—it is knocking at our door. The warning has been sounded from one end of the country to the other.

"This does not mean, however, that we must give up the fight, or our place as a people peculiar in our high moral standards. Even though our heads are bowed in shame, we must raise our eyes again and look for a new vision—take heart anew and plan for the future.

"We must therefore look for something that will fill the hearts and souls of our young men and women. The only thing I can see now is to give them social ideals, teach them to love justice and mercy, to work and fight for social justice, for the uplift of the downtrodden, to break the chains of the oppressed.

"The free synagogue is a demonstration of what the synagogue can do to give new vision to Jewish young men and women. It is ever in the forefront in the struggle for civic righteousness and social justice.

"The settlement has a work to do. I maintain that with very few exceptions no person without a European background can work successfully in a settlement. To work successfully with immigrants one must be an immigrant. A wholesome change is coming, however. The bulk of social workers who discussed the various problems at the last session of the conference of Jewish charities came from the ranks of the immi-

grants. The task of the settlement is to show that to seek happiness is to lose it. We must help our young people to find joy in their daily labors. We must make labor human. Our ancestors were wont to return blessings for the tasks of the day. Our young men and women need the same vision. We shall probably translate it into modern terms, but the vision will be the same. We shall not allow ourselves to perish because we have the power of renovating and revitalizing our vision."

#### PARISH SOCIAL SERVICE COMMITTEES IN CHICAGO

The Social Service Commission of the Episcopal Diocese of Chicago is perfecting its organization by securing the appointment of a social service committee in every parish, consisting of three men and two women. To the twenty parish committees already appointed the following suggestions of definite lines of work have been issued by the commission:

1. Hold monthly meetings if possible.
2. Distribute to the congregation from time to time such literature as shall be furnished by the Social Service Commission.
3. Ascertain certain social conditions in the parish or community, as suggested by the Diocesan Commission.

4. Arouse local opinion on the community's social needs as suggested from time to time by the commission or by the local committee itself. Additional activities will be outlined from time to time.

A field secretary of this commission is devoting his entire time to organizing and assisting the social work of the parishes in the diocese. His services have been generously extended to the community work of outside committees, and thus the church has valuably contributed its aid in public emergencies.

#### SOCIAL SERVICE AND DOMESTIC SERVICE

Surely the term social service loses none of its dignity in being used to dignify domestic service, as it was in one of a series of discourses by Rev. Willard Brown Thorp, delivered at San Diego:

"So long as the idea prevails that domestic service is unskilled labor, that it is drudgery, that it is menial and relegates the worker to a lower or servant caste, and so long as certain other disagreeable conditions prevail, it is not strange that it is hard to get first-class girls to do household work.

"A great change is coming, however, over our ideas of the status of household service. The feeling of both employer and employe about it is changing. The new idea is here.

"It is not a menial occupation. It is honorable work, and entitles the one who is doing it well to regard herself with pride and to be treated with respect. There was a time not long ago when to be a nurse was thought menial. Today it is a high and honorable profession to give skilled care to



## A Will

In the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Ghost. Amen.

It is my will that my burying be as the burying of the poor. In this I wish to be identified with them and as in my life I have failed to manifest the sympathies of my heart in this regard, in the first place through my own fault, ignorance and perverted judgment of things, and lastly for want of means and health, I, in this last act would offer a public reparation for all that I have neglected to do that I might have done. I love the rich for the sake of their souls and the good deeds they can do with their riches. I love the poor for the sake of their souls and for their poverty because being poor more is demanded of them by society. They must be more patient, long-suffering, grateful and kind than the well-to-do or the well-to-do will condemn them. A trifling theft is a great crime in them because in their simplicity they are unable to conceal it and custom does not sanction their sin as it does the greater thefts of the rich in the payment of inadequate wages, delay of paying, etc. Ah, my soul, before God I am thankful that I have come to see their wrongs. I will then, to be buried with them in consecrated ground, my coffin to be like the coffin of the pauper, the vehicle in which it is taken to interment to be like the vehicle used for their interment. If any wish to follow my remains thus let them do so, praying for my poor soul and the conversion of all sinners to truth, justice and love. Rockford, Aug. 29, 1883.

Let a simple wooden cross mark the spot with the inscription "I am a beggar and poor—the Lord is careful of me. Of your charity pray for the repose of my poor soul."

And let no eulogy whatever be spoken over my remains. If anything be said say that I was a poor sinner but that through the great mercy of God I died in the hope of pardon.

I know no other means of expressing my constant understanding of the absolute equality of all flesh, therefore this my will is neither a love of eccentricity nor fanatical but rather an earnest desire to give my testimony to truth. Jan. 1884.

"The slumberer here confides in the mercy of God." The above inscription on the tomb of Emily Linder strikes me as beautiful and expressive of my heart. Aug. 6, 1880.

ELIZABETH A. ADAMS.

We are indebted to the Very Reverend P. J. Muldoon, bishop of Rockford, Ill., for a copy of a remarkable statement read by him at the funeral of Elizabeth A. Adams, an aged parishioner, and prepared by her as her last will and testament. A convert to the Catholic faith, she taught the first parochial school in Rockford, contributed many articles to Catholic periodicals and was enlisted in many good works. Her wishes regarding her obsequies were respected.

the sick. Why shall not the same be true of domestic service?

"It is skilled labor. The people who think anybody can do household work do not know what they are talking about. It is a mistake to suppose that every woman is by nature fitted to do housework, just because she is a woman. Some cannot even learn to do it well. The schools are recognizing the skilled nature of housework by teaching domestic science; and such instruction as is now given is only the beginning of what is to come in the future.

"It is not drudgery—or, rather, it is drudgery only when it is done poorly. To cook a meal well and serve it daintily; to keep a house in such order that everything is fresh and sweet and attractive from the bathroom to the kitchen porch—that is not drudgery. The girl who has the instinct, the gift, the art of doing that will take pride and satisfaction in her work. The construction of the modern house, with all its conveniences, is making possible and inviting a different type of household work. The standards of cleanliness and beauty in the home are being raised; and that in itself is elevating our conception of the work which achieves these results.

"It requires as much training to make a good house mistress as it does to make a

good domestic. Some women assume that because a girl works for them they have a right to exercise a supervision over her whole life. Some go to the other extreme, and take no personal interest at all in the girl, even when it would be welcomed. In an increasing number of homes, however, the relation is a very pleasant one. Maid and mistress become personal friends, often pupil and teacher. The idea that employment in domestic service will interfere with a girl's prospects is a great mistake. If a girl has fine quality in her, I believe it will be recognized quicker by those with whom she comes in contact in domestic service than almost anywhere else.

"A darker side of the picture is in the temptations to which the domestic servant is exposed. A large proportion of girls living an immoral life date their fall to a time when they were employed as domestics, and in many cases the man who was responsible for it was a member of the family.

"Perhaps the greatest need of the girls who are doing household work today is wholesome conditions of recreation. Like everybody else, they want a good time, friends, merriment, social life. In default of a home where they can invite their friends, the streets, the theatres, and the dance halls become their natural resorts."

February 15, 1913.



# INDUSTRY

## THE Y. M. C. A. AMONG IMMIGRANTS

PETER ROBERTS

IMMIGRATION SECRETARY, Y. M. C. A.

The "immigration problem" is ever with us. The sixty-third Congress, discussing the Dillingham bill largely based upon the recommendations of the Federal Immigration Commission, failed to pass it. We are not done with the question. The present session of Congress has another bill, which is now in the hands of the President. Legislation will doubtless help in the solution of some phases of immigration, but the question will never be solved in America until each community having a colony of foreigners takes practical and sane measures to help the immigrants to rise to the stature of men who believe in self-government and to teach them how to govern themselves. One of many agencies attempting to solve this problem is the Young Men's Christian Association.

The Y. M. C. A. is a world-wide organization, and young men are world-wide rovers. Possibly 200,000 young men leave Europe each year for foreign lands, and a vision of a world-wide agency to help them in their migrations is today something more than a dream. A young man, Albert Ross, started from Lancaster, England, to go to an uncle in Mexico. He was met in Liverpool by the Association's representative; his parents sent a letter with a post-office order to New York, requesting that an agent of the Association should meet him at the port of

landing. The Association immigration secretary on Ellis Island found the young man, gave him assistance with his baggage, guided him to the proper place to get the exchange of tickets necessary to travel by the boat going to Galveston, and saw him safely on the vessel. A letter was also sent on to Galveston and the Association secretary there met Mr. Ross and made his brief stay in the city pleasant. His uncle was telegraphed to as soon as he reached Galveston and arrangements were made for the young man to meet his relative. Word came back from both the uncle in Mexico and the secretary at Galveston that the immigrant arrived safely at his destination. This chain of services, last month, extended, in the case of a young man going from England to Honolulu, a distance of over 13,000 miles.

The representatives of the Association are not always able to render as satisfactory service as was given in the above cases, but in twelve European ports Association agents are stationed, to help, guide and advise young men coming to North America. They distribute among immigrants cards printed in thirty languages informing them of the services the Y. M. C. A. can render. They distribute literature in four tongues, which gives the immigrant useful information concerning America as well as the



LEARNING THEIR A B C'S

A class in English for Italians at Rome, New York.





#### SINGING "AMERICA"

A gathering of many nationalities in classes in English in New York. The classes are led by college students. A screen in front shows the words of the song.

Association branches in the leading cities of North America, in which secretaries are found willing to serve the newcomers free of charge in every possible way. More than 55,000 men were thus touched last year at ports of embarkation, and many of them found the Association a Godsend, for by its aid they found work, friends and a good place to board.

Many strange coincidents occur in this work. A young German took his introduction card to the Association branch in Milwaukee, Wis. He could not speak English and the secretary knew no German. They could both smile and shake hands, and after the greeting, the hour being late, the secretary gave the newcomer his supper, then a bath and a room over night. The following morning the secretary took the newcomer to a German friend, but on their way the immigrant gave a shout, ran across the street and grasped a man's hand. The secretary stood wondering, but soon saw the men kissing each other vigorously. The immigrant had found an old teacher who had taught him in the homeland, and the question of his adjustment to a new environment was solved.

The Association has ten representatives working among immigrants in ports of landing on the Atlantic. They help the incoming foreigners in every possible way, by communicating with their friends, writing letters for them, visiting those who are in the hospital, assisting those in distress and comforting the disconsolate. They also give the aliens cards of introduction to Association secretaries inland, and the name of every man to whom a card is given is immedi-

ately sent to the secretary at point of destination, so that he may look up the newcomer and be of service to him.

A Greek, George Milos, was given a card in Ellis Island, and his name was sent on to the secretary of the branch in Oakland, Cal., his destination. The Greek had not been in the city three days before an officer of the branch called at the address given and asked for George Milos. The place was a Greek candy store and the proprietor was surprised to have an American gentleman come and ask by name for one of his countrymen who had been in the city barely three days. He was a broad-minded man, however, and kindly called the young Greek to meet the visitor. The Association representative bade him welcome to America, told him he was glad to see him, explained that he belonged to the same organization as gave him a card in Ellis Island, and invited him to a class in which he would find others of his countrymen who were learning the English language.

Sometimes the call made upon the services of the Association is beyond its capacity to fulfil. The card given the immigrants states that "all possible services will be rendered *free of charge*." Immigrants give these words a very literal interpretation. A good Dutch brother was given one of these cards and was settled for some time in Rochester, N. Y., before he thought of using it. He went, however, to the Association secretary, card in hand, and asked him if the organization was ready to serve him. "Yes," replied the secretary, "what can we do for you?" "Well," said he, "I'm alone here, will



you please loan me money to get my family from Europe?" "How large is your family?" asked the officer. "A wife and six children," was the reply.

Another young Armenian went to a secretary of one of the New York branches, requesting his services as per the card "free of charge." He wanted employment but felt that he could not afford to take anything that would pay him less than \$20 a week. Of course, he could not find work of that character and, his money getting low, he proposed that the secretary take him home, board and room him "free of charge," until such time as he would find a job to his taste.

The secretaries at the ports of landing touch each month between 2,500 and 3,000 young men, and 400 Association branches inland second their efforts by coming in touch with the men whose names are forwarded to them. Hundreds of young men are thus helped to get their feet under them in a new country and hundreds more are tied up to safe associates and surrounded by influences that are uplifting and wholesome. In this important work of safeguarding and serving young men leaving home, Association branches in Europe and North America join hands. Their aim is to make the voyage of each young man leaving the old for the new world as safe and pleasant as possible.

The three secretaries on Ellis Island have among them, command of twenty-one tongues in which they urge young men of various races to use the machinery of the Association to help them start life in the new country. Some of these men go to rural communities, but they are not lost to the organization. The County Department of the Y. M. C. A. has, in thousands of rural communities, corresponding members. If a young man settles in one of these the corresponding member is notified that a foreigner has settled in his village and that it offers him an opportunity to serve. In this way many a young man is helped by finding in the Association man a brother and counsellor. Hardly a week passes that parents, relatives and friends from Europe and America do not request the help of the immigration secretaries to smoothen the pathway of those enroute from Europe to some part of North America, while scores of letters of gratitude are received continually from young men who have been helped before and after they have reached their destination.

But this port work is only one part of the scheme planned and carefully carried out by the Y. M. C. A. in its efforts to serve foreigners. The larger and more comprehensive work is done by three hundred branches scattered throughout North America. These branches organize classes among foreigners to teach them the English language. They use the Roberts' system of English for Coming Americans which has three courses, the preparatory, first reader and second reader. These classes are sometimes carried on in rooms assigned for the work in the buildings, but the majority of the classes are con-

ducted in foreign colonies. The policy generally followed is to take the school to the immigrants, not to ask them to come to the branch buildings. The teaching is done largely by volunteers. Last year 1,179 young men, college students mostly, gave their time and talent free to this work. Some of these men traveled ten miles to the classes. In cities where students are not available, volunteer teachers are enlisted from Association members, civic clubs, church brotherhoods, etc. The teaching, as a rule, costs the foreigners nothing. All they do is find a place to meet and pay for necessary supplies. The latest statistics show that about 16,927 men are thus organized in classes, meeting on an average twice a week to study our language and learn our ways. Last month, the immigration secretary of Pittsburgh called on a Greek newcomer, and found a group of fifty Greeks who are now organized into classes to learn our language. The same opportunity was extended last year to men of forty-five different tongues.

Foreigners who attend evening school are ambitious and earnest. They almost invariably want to become Americans and are anxious to get their naturalization papers. Teachers keep this in mind while imparting instruction, and never let an opportunity pass to give helpful instruction to this end. Hence, scores of Associations have groups of young men studying the principles of government and looking forward to entering our national family. Special lessons have been prepared for this purpose and many young attorneys render excellent service by helping foreign-speaking men to qualify themselves for the examination in naturalization. Many Associations are pleased with the success they have attained in this respect, and the men who have been helped are very grateful.

After an examination of "coming Americans" in the United States District Court in Derby, Conn., Judge Platt said: "I have been listening to the examination of a great many aliens since the last naturalization law went into effect and do not remember any case which evidenced any better results." Then he complimented the Association secretary for the good work he was doing.

From among the alien students in the classes, are organized committees to look up new-comers, belonging to their respective nationalities. The members of the "cosmopolitan committee" welcome them to the city, introduce them to the Association, ask them to join the class in English and bring them in touch with men who improve the opportunities America offers immigrants. The Association branch in Chelsea, Mass., has such a committee and the last report for this month states that seventeen names were sent to the secretary. Three of the addresses were wrong; the other fourteen men were located: eight of them are members in English classes, while three of the remaining six moved on to other towns. Oakland, Cal., was sent fifteen names, all of whom, save one, were located, welcomed and helped.

In connection with the classes, lectures are





POLISH-AMERICAN CLUB AT NEW BEDFORD, MASS.

"Hundreds of young men are helped to get their feet under them in a new country and hundreds more are tied up to safe associations and surrounded by influences that are uplifting and wholesome."

projected for the enlightenment of the foreign-born. These talks are about America, its heroes, its institutions, the principles of health and social hygiene, geography, industries, etc. The lecturers usually are local men, while members of the Association draw upon state departments for visual instruction, private collections, stereopticon firms, etc., for slides to illustrate their talks. Last year, 76,150 men were reached in this way. If the men cannot understand English, an interpreter is employed to translate the lecture. In one of these lectures, three different groups were brought together and three different interpreters were used. They spoke simultaneously, each to his own group, and the men heard the lecture each in his own tongue.

Many associations also plan meetings to which men of all nationalities among whom work is done may come. These gatherings are for the purpose of bringing the various members of the community together, in order to develop their consciousness of community relationship and

common interests. In these meetings, both the native and the foreign-born meet. In one of these, held in Aurora, Ill., five different languages were spoken. The leaders of various nationalities do the talking, and they generally give wholesome advice to their countrymen. In these meetings the men sing their own songs, play their own games and use their mother tongue. All, however, join in singing "America," and feel that they are members of one great family. They are also pleased to meet sympathetic Americans who are their friends and are willing to help them in every possible way.

The aim of the work is to help the foreigner get on his feet in a new country, to teach him our language, to tell him something of the struggle and the sacrifice of the founders of this great nation, to help him to become an intelligent member of the community, the state and the nation; and to ask for the best that is in him so that he may help solve the problems not yet solved in state and national life.



# WELFARE WORK OF THE STEEL CORPORATION<sup>1</sup>

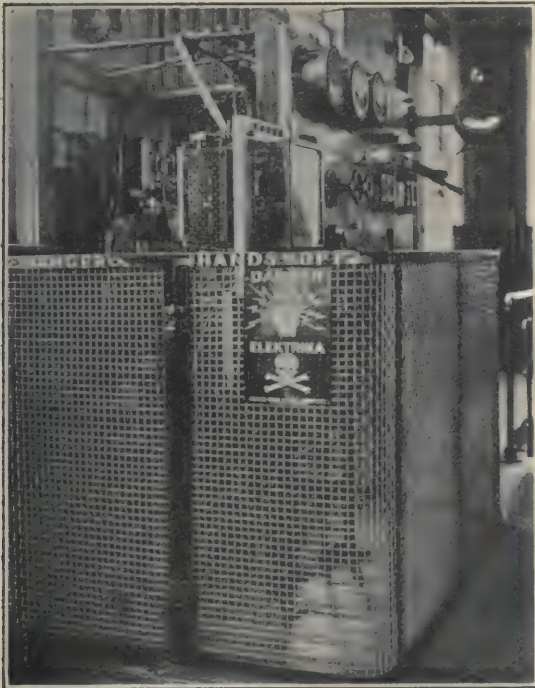
H. P. BOPE

VICE-PRESIDENT CARNEGIE STEEL COMPANY

"It is unquestionably true that the spirit of the times is tending toward humanitarianism. A proper recognition of this fact in its relation to the human side of labor will eliminate economic waste and will conserve human energy." This is a broad statement made in a recent discussion before the American Academy of Political and Social Science, and its truth will not be questioned by those who have recently taken an interest in this view of the modern consideration of capital and labor in their relations as employer and employe.

Before entering upon a statement of what has been done in these recent years toward the amelioration of the conditions under which labor is employed in such industries as the one I represent, it seems to me a brief statement as to the tremendous growth of the steel business will not be uninteresting and will serve to show why, up until within a comparatively few years, it has not been possible to reach such methods and measures sooner, although the underlying thought has been in the minds of the manufacturers for years, as evidenced by the somewhat crude yet helpful means employed to give in many mills the steel-worker some measure of assistance in sickness, and to his family some measure of relief at his death.

<sup>1</sup>An address delivered before the Rochester Chamber of Commerce.



SWITCHBOARD GUARD

Oliver Iron Company, Hibbing, Minn.

Out of these small beginnings have come the great pension fund and the other measures for the welfare of the employes of the United States Steel Corporation; as well as in other similar corporations. The steel industry of this country has differed somewhat in its growth from that of other great products in that its greatest demand has come in cycles. In the period from 1870 to 1880 its development was marked by the introduction of the steel rail. The discovery of the Bessemer process cheapened cost and increased production, so that railroads were enabled to relay their lines with a better and cheaper rail, and the demands for steel in this form became a permanent product of the steel business, and although Bessemer has been superseded by the open hearth process largely for rails, between extensions, additions and the use of heavier sections we are now on a basis of consumption of 3,600,000 tons annually, which bids fair to increase.

From 1880 to 1890 there was the introduction of the skeleton structure, caused by the designing of lighter and more graceful shapes in steel than were the old iron sections, with an equal or greater factor of safety, and by the development of the tin plate industry. You will remember, doubtless, the famous campaign of 1890 when it was claimed it was impossible to produce tin plate in this country; but substantial progress had already been made, and in 1911 this industry represented a production of 783,960 gross tons. The sneers and jeers of the politician in belittling a great interest are forgotten, as are the men who uttered them, but the industry is one of our greatest and most prosperous today.

In the period from 1890 to 1897, marked as it was by the great financial panic of 1893, the industry languished, but in 1897 came the steel car, the use of plates for large diameters of pipe and the beginnings of larger things on the Great Lakes whereby the shipbuilding industry was bettered and entered upon larger development. This constantly growing demand, arising out of the rapidly increasing population, the beginning of the scarcity of wood, the introduction of steel in many lines and for new uses, was, if you please, an evolution beyond the power of any one to foresee or control, so far as its magnitude was concerned. Where we had been accustomed to deal in tons, our multiple became thousands. The railroads, with increasing demands upon them, by reason of this development, went at once to heavier rails and to the steel car for greater carrying capacity, necessitating heavier bridges, greater terminal facilities, and in other ways, such as steel splice bars, bolts, tie plates, etc., added to the demand.

Words almost fail to depict the wonderful





SWIMMING POOL FOR EMPLOYEES.  
Frick Coke Company, Lelssening, Minn.

growth of the steel industry in this period. It is not the purpose of this address to describe it more than is necessary to show that by reason of this great and sudden growth and the efforts to meet the demand the problems of construction and production had to receive attention before those arising from the humanitarian consideration, though this was by no means lost sight of. But it was as if the genii of the bottle had been let loose, though instead of being an instrument of destruction to mankind he became a benevolent agent of civilization.

#### *The Steel Combine*

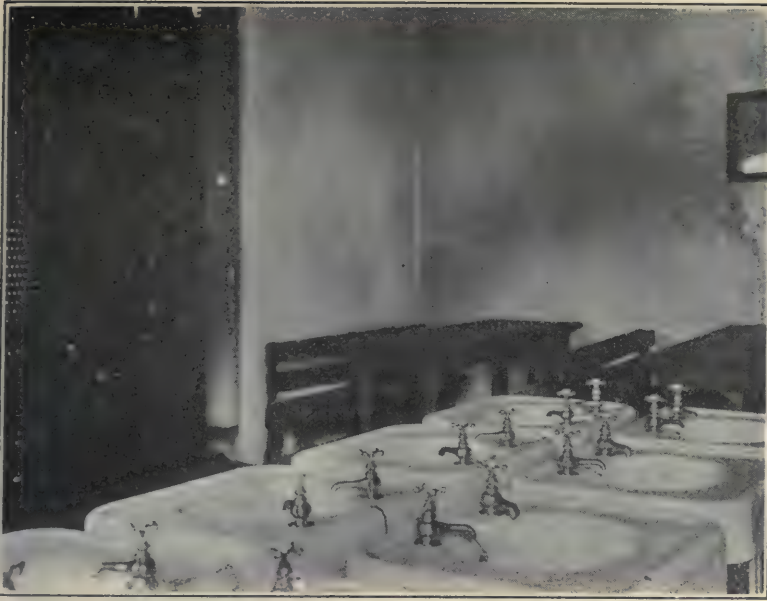
For a moment the manufacturers stood aghast at what they saw before them. Individual plants such as then existed, even the great Carnegie Steel Company, were not equipped with the proper facilities for the handling of this great demand. New plants, larger and better equipped, were needed. Greater capital, more efficient organization in both operating and selling were called for. These could not be obtained by the individual plant, and so the process of combination was resorted to, to obtain the best of each in every line and out of the demand of the people themselves for a larger production of the article which has done more to advance civilization and progress than any other one inanimate thing, came the Steel Corporation. Regardless of what has been said by way of criticism of organization, methods or treatment of its employees, I maintain, and the results will ultimately show that it was builded better even than its organizers knew, that it has exercised at

all times a beneficent influence in the trade; it has been courteous and conciliatory to its competitors, considerate beyond measure to its customers, and is now engaging in the great work of promoting the welfare of its employees as no other organization has ever done before.

Not the least of the means employed by the corporation to enlarge its business has been the treatment of the small consumer. Recognizing that in this wonderful age of progress and rapid growth a small purchaser may soon develop into a larger, and therefore more profitable one, special attention has been given to the welfare of such buyers. Their interests have at all times been carefully considered, their rights have been conserved equally with those of their larger brothers, and equal attention has been paid to their needs and requirements. No paternalism, either in this relation or in that pertaining to the welfare of the employe, has been exercised by the corporation, but rather a wholesome regard for the rights and privileges of the buyer and the individual.

Now the early years of the corporation under the stress of the tremendous demand upon its resources of production were years of construction, consolidation and organization. None of these things are yet completed, nor can they ever be, apparently, with the constantly growing demands of the country and the world for its many and varied products. Today the United States is producing at the rate of 30,000,000 tons annually, and in five years this enormous tonnage bids fair to reach 40,000,000. Under the conditions of manufacture with such press-





LOCKERS, BASINS AND LUNCH TABLES  
Carnegie Steel Company, Clairton, Pa.

ing demands, it is admitted that the strain on labor is great. A steel mill under the best possible conditions is not a parlor, nor are the men who work there parlor gentlemen. They are strong, sturdy, intelligent workmen, who are recognizing that which is being done for them, and are accepting in the same broad, generous spirit with which it is offered. They are giants in their toil, but the best of American citizens in their relation to home, the community and the state.

That we shall ever produce ideal conditions is perhaps doubtful, but no more are those prevailing in the cab of the locomotive or the engine room of the great ship. Whose voice is raised in behalf of the firemen in the engine room of the great liners? And yet the steel worker's labor is easy compared to theirs. Our men know that the officials of the corporation are thinking and planning in their interest, and appreciate it. If there are any complaints theirs is the voice to speak, not the muckraker and the would-be philanthropist, many of whom have never been inside a steel mill.

#### *Phases of Betterment work*

So much then by way of introduction. Let us now turn to the measures either already adopted or under consideration, which the great corporation has instituted or is about to put into effect for the benefit of its people.

The Steel Corporation is spending each year for the betterment of its workmen not less than \$5,000,000. It may challenge comparison in amount and method with any other corporation in any other line of business. I should like to go into detail with you as to how this vast sum is expended, but time will permit only the briefest statement, yet for any of you who may

be interested in any particular item fuller details can be forwarded on application.

First in order of time comes the employes' stock subscription plan. The corporation has made it possible for every employe to become an owner of its stock. Over 30,000 of the workmen are now so interested. It promotes thrift by saving in a small way what would otherwise be expended thoughtlessly and so lost. For five years a high return is made by the payment of a bonus and afterward a large interest on such a small investment. They are induced to take a direct interest in the business, remembering their own is tied up with it, and they are further encouraged to remain with the company, profiting by permanent employment, the corporation

benefitting by the maintenance of a faithful, skillful and efficient organization so produced.

#### *Accident Relief*

Even before there was any law in this country which required anything of the kind the Steel Corporation established a system of voluntary accident relief absolutely regardless of legal liability. Every man injured and the family of every man killed is taken care of without need of lawsuits or even of any claim against the constituent companies. To show how this plan is working, in the year 1911 we were sued in only 2/10 of 1 per cent of the cases. This provision costs the corporation each year \$2,000,000.

The adoption of workmen's compensation laws in place of the outworn system of liability based upon negligence is one of the greatest advances in the welfare work of our generation.

#### *Accident Prevention*

For over six years the corporation has been developing a system of preventing accidents which it is confidently believed is not surpassed anywhere in the United States or abroad. This system comprehends all manner of safety devices and other material safeguards. Above all it is based upon the development of an earnest, constant and determined effort to prevent work accident, from the president to the lowest workman. The watchword of this campaign among superintendents, foremen and workmen is "safety first."

In these six years the number of serious and fatal accidents among workmen employed by the corporation has been reduced 43 per cent; and the means employed have cost to date about \$2,500,000; \$750,000 per year is now employed



in the maintenance of these devices, and in the study of a larger prevention.

### *Surgical and Hospital Arrangements*

At all the mills, mines and plants of the corporation provision is made for the best surgical and hospital treatment obtainable for employes injured at work. In the mining regions those arrangements include medical attention for the men and for their families as well. From time to time prominent physicians and surgeons not connected with the companies are employed to make inspections of hospitals and surgical arrangements with instructions to criticise with absolute freedom and to recommend any changes they may deem advisable.

### *Pensions*

At the institution of the corporation, Andrew Carnegie donated \$4,000,000 as a pension fund for the employes of the old Carnegie Steel Company and its subsidiaries. The corporation is now adding \$8,000,000 to this fund, which has been extended to all companies of the corporation. The income of this fund is applied to the pension of superannuated employes who have remained twenty years in the service of the corporation. The smallest pension given is \$12 per month and the largest \$100. The annual cost of provision for this permanent fund and the payment of pensions is upwards of \$700,000.

### *Sanitation and General Welfare*

It would be difficult to cover under this head all the work which is being done in the direction of the general welfare of the employes of the corporation. The same general system is applied as in the matter of the use of safety devices, and naturally it is necessary to obtain the interest and co-operation of the workmen themselves. Although this work is only in process of organization and development its cost in the year 1911 amounted to \$1,250,000.

Among the objects is the sanitary disposal of sewage and fecal matter, provision for pure water in all plants and houses belonging to the companies, drainage of stagnant water, prevention of flies, cutting weeds, collecting garbage, fencing and painting and enforcing cleanliness and order generally.

Food supplies, particularly milk and meat, are protected from contamination wherever the several companies have any responsibility for providing such supplies. The installation of wash-rooms, shower-baths and lockers in the mills, and the institution of swimming-pools have cost much money.



A PRIZE GARDEN  
Frick Coke Company, Dearth, Pa.

Some of the companies have provided playgrounds for the children in the crowded districts. Another has provided land, furnished seeds and given prizes for the making of gardens by its workmen. All the companies are donors to hospitals, churches, clubs, libraries and other organizations established by the communities in which there are plants or by the workmen themselves.

The managers of plants are thoroughly interested in the development of this welfare system and are giving much time, thought and attention to work which will benefit the community at large, and thereby the individual workman.

### *Instruction for Employes*

In addition some of the companies have established schools for the better instruction of their salesmen, in which the young men are given a thorough knowledge of the operations employed in the manufacture of steel from the selection of the ore to the processes of inspection and testing of the finished material. One company is now carrying this system of instruction into its plants for the purpose of developing intelligent young men for assistant superintendents and foremen. In most plants the rule heretofore has been if a young man sought employment to put him anywhere there was need without regard to the fitness or taste of the employe for the particular work. Now he is watched, his particular bent is studied, and he is put to work where he can do the most good for his company under conditions which are congenial to the employe himself. In other words, there is no longer an attempt to do the impossible—fitting square pegs into round holes.





BURLAP SHIELD FOR BENCH CHIPPING  
National Tube Co.

One of the most difficult of all methods employed to promote the welfare of employes was the establishment of the six-day week. Around a blast furnace where operation is continuous this was a specially hard matter. Yet the officials of the corporation felt that once the great campaign was entered upon, no half measures should be employed and in the spirit of "six days shalt thou labor and do all thy work," this provision was extended to all plants alike. Except under conditions of extreme necessity as

in breakdowns or absolutely needed repairs, every employe is required to rest one day in seven, and hours of labor are so arranged that this has become a perfectly practical measure although it entailed a large curtailment of production, and met with opposition from many of the men themselves who preferred to labor to obtain the additional compensation. But the rule was made to apply to all.

Naturally all these things have taken time, and will take more time. Criticism is welcomed so long as it is along the lines of progress, but criticism merely for the purpose of injury without help in constructive work benefits no one.

As has been shown the development of this great industry has been so rapid that little opportunity has been given until within a comparatively few years to look at this side of the work. In the great upward movement of humanity, for better treatment, for better living, and for all the conditions which tend to a wider humanitarianism and broader civilization and a greater degree of progress the Steel Corporation has not been and will not be found lacking in interest and in support of such movements to the extent of its ability, and much greater progress can be expected in the future under the wise and humane supervision of the men who control its destinies.

## "THE CHILD THAT TOILETH NOT"

WILLIAM LEAVITT STODDARD

WASHINGTON CORRESPONDENT OF THE SURVEY

The Child That Toileth Not is the title of a book by Thomas Robinson Dawley, Jr., published late in 1912. It is the story of the writer's experience in looking into the conditions of labor in the southern cotton mills as a special investigator for the federal Bureau of Labor. This investigation was to be a part of the report on the condition of women and child wage-earners in the United States. Major Dawley's volume is dedicated in these words:

"To the Congress of the United States of America who by an appropriation of three hundred thousand dollars for the investigation of the conditions under which women and children are employed throughout the country, and in particular to those legislators who believe the economic laws of the universe can be upset and the people forming our great Republic made healthy, well and wise by legislation."

The author of this book, according to the 1910-1911 edition of Who's Who in America, was born in New York in 1862 and has had a varied career as printer, teacher, war correspondent, voluntary aide on the staff of General Miles in Cuba, newspaper editor, special agent making a report to the President on the political and sociological conditions in Santo Domingo, and later special agent of the Bureau of Labor. He has contributed many articles on Latin-American countries and Spain to magazines and Apple-

ton's Encyclopedia. His address is given as Washington, D. C.

Summarized, the principal points made by Mr. Dawley in his book appear to be these:

That the condition of the workers in the southern cotton mills is better than the condition of the people who work farms in the mountains, and who in many cases are brought down to the mill centers by the manufacturers.

That "hired reformers, investigators, and muck-rakers" have grossly exaggerated, if not actually misrepresented, the conditions of labor in the southern cotton mills.

That the National Child Labor Committee and the United States Bureau of Labor are guilty along with these reformers. Against the United States Bureau of Labor Mr. Dawley brings the specific charge that "the results of two years' work, paid for by the people, were suppressed."

It is not possible within the limits of this article to go into all the detailed miscellaneous charges which are brought by Mr. Dawley against both individuals and organizations. The book is full of accusations such as the following: Mr. Dawley quotes Dr. McKelway, secretary for the southern states of the National Child Labor Committee, as saying that 1,500 people had gone from one little village of Clyde to the cotton mills of South Carolina, and he then points out that the entire population of Clyde before the exodus was only 244! But Mr. Dawley fails to

<sup>1</sup>The Child That Toileth Not. By Thomas R. Dawley, Jr. Gracia Publishing Co. New York. Price \$2.00 postpaid.



include Dr. McKelway's statement that Clyde is the railroad station from which the farm people in the country around the village had gone to the mills. Charges like this, based on a half-statement or a perverted emphasis of the material published by the National Child Labor Committee look like a deliberate attempt to prejudice the reader and certainly obscure the truth. To the present writer it is evident that the fundamental *raison d'être* of Mr. Dawley's book is that he failed in a measure to understand the kind of work required of him by the Bureau of Labor, that he set about his task not only with a wrong method, but in a wrong spirit, and that, beginning thus his task, he could hardly fail to have crowned it as he has done with a biased and unjustly personal attack. I believe that Mr. Dawley convicts himself of these things out of his own mouth. Let us see.

In the first place, Mr. Dawley objects to the kind of information which he was required to collect. "These schedule blanks," he says, speaking of the blanks supplied to him by the Bureau of Labor, "seemed to me to be poorly adapted for the work in which I was engaged . . . and the same was true with the family schedules. They merely provided for showing the earnings of the individual members, with their supplementary incomes from a cow or a vegetable garden, if they had any, with some of the conditions under which they were living, but no provision was made to show whether their standard of living was inferior to what they had been accustomed to, whether any inadequacy was due to insufficient wages, or whether the fact of their dependency on the mill for support tended toward progress or retrogression."

These statements are made on page 50 of Mr. Dawley's book. They are here quoted because they indicate that the tendency of Mr. Dawley in his work was to turn from the study of cotton mills as such and of mountain whites as such to a study which should compare the respective conditions of each. Now, a study of this kind, properly made, would be of great social value, and the fact that the Bureau of Labor sent Mr. Dawley into the hilly regions shows that it was the purpose to investigate in this direction. The fault that the present writer finds is that the importance placed by Mr. Dawley upon this comparison leads him to an extravagant conclusion. Let us look at the way he arrived at it.

Briefly stated, his first conclusion is that the families which moved into cotton mill civilization from the semi-civilization of the mountains are much better off than they were before their change of base. From this observation he draws the further and logical conclusion that cotton mills have been a benefit to the race; and the still further and illogical conclusion that child labor in them is itself the most wholesome preparation for life.

"If I were a Carnegie," he writes, "or a Rockefeller seeking to improve the conditions of our poor mountain people, I would build them a cotton mill. I would gather their children in just as soon as they are big enough to doff and spin, and instead of feeding them on homilies and

panegyrics, I would pay them a stipend that would get them more than 'bread and meat.' I would teach them with real money what real money brings, and while my cotton mill might not pay dividends in dollars and cents, it would at least turn out workers capable of making a living for themselves when grown."

From this quotation, as from many passages of similar import and from the dedication of his book, it will be seen that Mr. Dawley does not discuss the conditions under which women and children work in the cotton mills except incidentally or comparatively. Yet this was the prime subject for investigation; not whether those conditions were worse or better than something else, but were they good or bad for human beings? He assumes without sufficient proof that child labor is necessary to the existence of the cotton mill; and when he does treat of the cotton mill labor problem he makes such points as these:

(1) That there is welfare work in certain mill communities, and that therefore the cotton mill is a blessing to humanity.

(2) That child spinners are the exception, not the rule.

(3) That the children play about the aisles in the mills, but do little or no work.

(4) That the social workers interested in the problems of the child care nothing about the child.

Any one who is acquainted with the statistics can easily discount these charges. For example, the fact that some mills are doing welfare work does not answer the criticism that the cotton industry is one of the chief exploiters of child labor in the country. The number of cotton mill operatives, between the ages and ten and fifteen in the United States, according to the census of 1900, was 44,427, 28,023 of whom were in the southern states.

The only other single occupation in the census classification<sup>1</sup> that employed more than 27,000 children—the figures for the southern mills alone—was "messenger and office boys."

If child spinners are "exceptional," then it is odd that the census of 1900 reported about 5,000 girls of from ten to twelve years of age in the cotton mills, and the Federal Report on Woman and Child Wage-Earners (1907-08) showed that 75.8 per cent of the 4,585 girls under sixteen employed in the southern mills investigated were spinners or spoolers.

The answer to the objection that the children play about the aisles and do little work may be put in the form of a question: If this is true, why are cotton manufacturers almost always consistently opposed to laws which would compel the children to leave the mills and play elsewhere?

As for the criticism that the National Child Labor Committee cares nothing about the child and does not appreciate welfare work, it can be authoritatively stated that the National Child Labor Committee has repeatedly given credit,

<sup>1</sup>"Agriculture," "laborers" (not specified) and "servants and waiters," are the only general classifications larger than this figure.



for example, to certain cotton manufacturers for building private schools to educate children of mill villages, but it has always urged that this example of feudalism can not take the place of a system of public education.

These are only haphazard illustrations of the kind of controversy which Mr. Dawley's book has stirred up. In a letter to the editor of the *State*, a newspaper published in Columbia, S. C., written December 8, 1912, A. J. McKelway, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee for the southern states, has answered in detail many of these criticisms, and anyone who is desirous of digging into the debate further is referred to that issue. In conclusion Dr. McKelway says:

"The animus of Mr. Dawley's book is only too plain. The National Child Labor Committee and the state committees organized in co-operation with it are attempting to raise the standard of legislative protection for the children. In five southern states, South Carolina among them, it is lower than it is in the rest of the Union and in the civilized countries of Europe. The facts available for information to legislators are to be found almost exclusively in the reports of the agents of the National Child Labor Committee, with an abundance of photographic evidence, and in the reports of the agents of the Bureau of Labor, employed in this investigation, most of whom, by the way, so far as the investigation of the cotton mills is concerned, were southern men and women. If the agents and secretaries of the National Child Labor Committee can be discredited, and the agents of the Bureau of Labor likewise, there are no facts remaining of authority. . . .

"But, finally, what does the whole contention amount to? What has this matter to do with child labor? Suppose we grant that all which Mr. Dawley asserts about the miserable conditions of rural life in the mountains is true, does that condone child labor in the factories? Does it shorten the eleven-hour day for children and women? . . . The question is not was the cotton mill family worse off on the farm, or the immigrant family worse off in Europe, but rather, are the children of either as well off now as we have a right to demand that they should be?"

Mr. Dawley's charges against the Bureau of Labor are serious and are made in apparent good faith. He believes that the bureau is biased against the manufacturers, and goes so far as to say that the commissioner (Mr. Neill) "himself referred to certain business men as pirates and declared in my presence that one manufact-

Mr. Dawley, moreover, appears to have a personal animus against not only the commissioner of labor and several other prominent people, but against several of the employees of the bureau, whom he lists as "a German professional uplifter, a partially paralyzed doctor of philosophy, and a Russian doctor of something." His plain implication, from a page or two of entertaining description of the work in the Washington office, and the prompt manner in which everyone ran for the door when closing time arrived, is that these gentlemen were not worth their salt. It is therefore instructive to note that each of these three has since left the Bureau of Labor in order to accept elsewhere higher salaries than the bureau was able to pay them.

urer who had attempted to convince him that the employment of the poor children in the cotton mills of the South had proved beneficial to them, was a liar." Both of these statements may be absolutely true without any reflection upon Mr. Neill. Also, when Mr. Dawley says: "He instructed his agents at the mills to seek the very worst conditions," it is plain that those orders—supposing they were given—were nothing more than orders to get the facts, no matter whom they hurt. But when Mr. Dawley continues: "And every effort was made to gather data that would support the representations of those special interests whose very existence is dependent upon misrepresentations" he is merely interpreting the order according to his prejudices. And when he charges specifically that "the results of two years work, paid for by the people, were suppressed," it need not disturb the reader who has believed in the integrity of the Bureau of Labor that an unfortunate but established policy (true of all federal departments) prevents the bureau from making a categorical denial of charges brought against it by an individual. Anyone familiar with the work of such an investigation knows that in the course of it many facts are necessarily collected by individual agents which are not included in the final report. Some of these facts have served their purpose to those who wrote the report: some, of course, are valueless. In the case of Mr. Dawley, it would appear on his own confession that he collected much information which was not asked for, and, if we are to judge by his book, he gathered much information which, while interesting in itself, is very plainly not the kind of evidence which a competent statistician could admit to a statistical study; I refer to anecdotes, hearsay facts, unverified except by word of mouth, personal impressions, and the like. It is safe to say that every government investigator has collected, at one time or another, matter which has been rejected, and that to term such rejection "suppression" is unjust not only to the government, but often to the investigator. On this point Mr. McKelway says,

"Senator Overman [of North Carolina] made a speech in the Senate last winter, in which he denounced the Bureau of Labor for having sent its agent into the mountains to obtain these reports. He said: 'Some of these reports were so obscene and scandalous and outrageous that the Secretary of Commerce and Labor refused to print them. . . . Some of the reports were so obscene that it would be indictable to send them through the mails.' And so on, in even less parliamentary language, and Senator Overman has authorized me to say that he was referring to Mr. Dawley. So we have Mr. Dawley and his supporters complaining that his reports were suppressed, and Senator Overman complaining because the bureau ever hired Mr. Dawley at all."

In all fairness to Mr. Dawley, it must be said that his book is an interesting contribution to the literature of the social problems of the South. It



is thoroughly readable, and it bristles with "human interest" stories concerning the natives and their ways. One cannot, nevertheless, help having the feeling that scientific accuracy has been sacrificed for the sake of a good yarn.

The Gracia Publishing Company is the name under which Mr. Dawley prints and circulates his book. In its pages he states that upon being discharged from the Bureau of Labor he approached "the manufacturer whom the commissioner of labor had declared a liar." This manufacturer refused to give him financial assistance, fearing that the charge would be made that he, Dawley, was working in their interests for their pay. For addressing a southern cotton mill association Mr. Dawley states that he was not even paid traveling expenses, but he adds that he "should have willingly accepted such financial aid as the association might have seen fit to give me to place my story before the people."

His appeal to such backing lies in the underlying thesis of his book that the real business interests of the country are practically without representation because the government is the tool of hired reformers, investigators, and muck-rakers. In proving this thesis, he starts from an admittedly biased angle, intersperses his argument with general accusations, and in most cases, as a careful examination and checking up proves, does not squarely and definitely meet the statements he challenges. His contention that the children of the mills are better off than those of the mountains should prove a spur to such sani-

tary and other reforms in the South as the Rockefeller Hookworm Commission has shown to be possible in the rural districts; but it does not carry conviction that we should on that account tolerate mill conditions unless they are positively good any more than he would have us tolerate mountain conditions. There are indications of a growing and constructive public opinion in the South with respect to both. It is when he attempts to demonstrate that child labor is a positive good in itself that his argument drops through. In order to defend it, he reviews, in the words of one social worker, "all the arguments of a past age. Child labor teaches habits of industry. It is needed for the support of widowed mothers and orphans. It lays the surest foundations of a career. It furnishes the best possible education. One typical contradiction occurs in this connection. In one chapter the author would show that mill children are better off than children on the farms because they do not lead such a lazy listless life; in another, because the mill children do not have the heavy work to do that is required of children on the farms."

Personally, the writer welcomes Mr. Dawley's book as a healthy sign of the times: the arguments which he presents against child labor legislation are the stock arguments of the cotton manufacturers—he has added no new ammunition to an already powerfully armed interest. If this is the worst that can be done, then there is great hope for the future.

## INDUSTRIAL BOARD FOR NEW YORK

### LARGE SCALE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE LABOR DEPARTMENT RECOMMENDED BY THE FACTORY INVESTIGATING COMMISSION

Wednesday, February 19, will be a field day for labor legislation in New York state. At 12:30 in the Senate chamber at Albany a public hearing will be given on the thirty-two bills which have been drawn up by the Factory Investigating Commission to embody the recommendations growing out of their two years' inquiry. If they become law not only will many practical and long needed reforms be given legal sanction, but a new system of administering labor laws will be inaugurated.

The commission was appointed after the Asch Building fire two years ago, and five of the thirty-two bills deal with fire hazard. Six are concerned with administration, and the balance deal with problems of woman and child labor, safety and sanitation. One extends the child labor law to cover cannery sheds. The protection of the law is also extended to women in canneries which heretofore have been exempted from the nine-hour law. The protection however still falls short of that thrown over factory workers as the bill provides that in certain seasons of the year a maximum of twelve hours a day and sixty-six hours a week may be permitted. Night work of women in

factories is prohibited between 10 P. M. and 6 A. M., and the law requiring seats for female employees is given increased effectiveness. The law requiring the maintenance of safe conditions in factories is greatly improved, employment of children in dangerous trades is further prohibited and a restriction is placed upon the employment of women in the core rooms of foundries. Another bill not strictly a labor measure requires that containers of wood alcohol must be plainly marked as such.

Important as are some of these reforms, it is the series of bills reorganizing the Department of Labor which are of most far-reaching consequence, for upon that administrative body depends the effectiveness of every labor law.

The proposed changes are many and detailed. The inspection work would be consolidated into one bureau under an inspector general, and the state divided into two inspection districts—roughly, New York city and the balance of the state—with a chief inspector in each district. Nine subdistricts would have a supervising inspector in charge of each. The present law provides for "not more than" 125 inspectors; this phraseology is changed to read "not less than."

While the attention of the commission has been



directed most particularly at law enforcement an important reorganization is proposed also for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Its title would become the Bureau of Statistics and Information and it would include five divisions, each of which would have its own chief:

General Labor Statistics.

Industrial Directory.

Industrial Accidents and Diseases,

Investigations,

Printing and Publication.

The changes would not only systematize the work of the bureau but give it additional powers.

Entirely aside from these provisions, the commission has made two signal proposals. They would provide a division of hygiene in the Bureau of Inspection. This division is to be made up of a physician who is to be chief medical inspector, a chemist, a mechanical engineer who is an expert in ventilation and accident prevention, and a civil engineer who is an expert in fire prevention and building construction. The bill calls, also, for three medical inspectors, one of whom must be a woman and all three of whom must be licensed physicians. One of the first four officials named is to be designated as director of the division and the chief medical inspector is to have charge of the three deputy medical inspectors. The engineers, chemist and chief medical inspector are to make special investigations with a view to improving factory conditions from the standpoint of construction, ventilation, sanitation and safety. They are to make recommendations which it is proposed will be adopted by the department as definite rules which will have the force of law. The three medical inspectors will be constantly employed in looking after the health conditions of factories with a view to learning what are the present industrial hazards coming within the field of hygiene, and what are the methods of eliminating those hazards.

The most marked departure from previous legislation is the provision for an Industrial Board of which the commissioner of labor is to be chairman and which is to consist of four members, each to serve for a term of four years, so arranged that the term of one member will expire each year. It is the expectation of the commission that one member of the board shall represent employers, another employes, a third to be a woman and the fourth a scientist. It is expected that the board will meet at least once a month and that it will direct the Division of Hygiene or other bureaus to make special investigations or will itself conduct independent investigations. It may employ experts for longer or shorter periods of time, and can take up and study every problem that presents itself in industrial life from that of friction between employer and employe to hours of labor and guarding of dangerous machinery.

But the feature of the powers of this board that is of constructive significance is not alone its power of investigation but its power of making rules and setting standards. In this provision, the commission would give the state of

New York an agency possibly as powerful as the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, one certainly charged with responsibilities of equal grade. Problems that have heretofore been for the commissioner of labor alone to decide, and which have been too numerous and too important for any one man, would be passed upon by a body of five and while the commissioner of labor personally will be responsible for the carrying into effect of the rules and regulations agreed upon, he would have support that he does not now have in the knowledge that instead of a personal ruling, he would be carrying into effect the combined judgment of the board.

Particular groups of bills will be reviewed later in *THE SURVEY*. In general it can be noted at this time that they are on the whole not only acceptable to social workers but of a calibre that is stimulating to enthusiasm. There is a general feeling that the commission deserves commendation for the painstaking manner in which large branches of its work have been carried on, for the great publicity it has secured for the bills by its frequent public hearings, and for the fairness with which it has accepted criticism from all quarters.

Whether its working program proves effective or not, is passed or not—and as Democratic measures under a Democratic administration there is good chance that the bulk of them will be enacted—it stands out as the first large scale, constructive plan put forward to place the labor administration of the first industrial state of the Union on a basis commensurate with its vital importance to the people. Moreover the data collected by the commission's investigators is of lasting value. There is general recognition that as yet unestimated public service has been performed by these investigators, by the commission as a body and especially by its counsel Abram I. Elkus and his assistant Bernard L. Shientag.

## THE LABOR MARKET IN WISCONSIN

WILLIAM LEISERSON

Staff Wisconsin Industrial Commission

For the first time in the history of this country reports relating to the demand and supply of labor are now published by the state of Wisconsin. Strange that our newspapers should devote whole pages to market transactions in hogs, wheat, stocks and bonds, while the markets where labor is bought and sold, which affects us all so much more closely, should be so completely ignored! Now that a beginning has been made, however, we may hope that the time will soon come when no market page of a newspaper will be complete without reports of the transactions of the labor markets of the country.

The labor markets which the Wisconsin reports cover are the four free employment offices conducted by the Industrial Commission of that state. The offices are located in Milwaukee, Superior, Oshkosh and La Crosse, each covering a distinct section of the state. While the operations of these employment offices show



but a small part of the total labor bargains made in the state, they are as representative of all these bargains as are the transactions of a stock or produce exchange of the buying and selling of stocks and produce.

The idea of labor market reports is not a new one. Ohio, which created the first public employment offices in this country in 1890, as well as several other states which copied its law, has for a long time been printing weekly reports of the operations of their offices. Their methods of compiling statistics, however, are unscientific and unreliable, and little use has been made of the weekly bulletins, some states even abandoning them entirely.

A step forward was taken by the superintendent of the state employment office in Boston, when he began to issue to the press every month a bulletin describing the conditions of the labor market as viewed from the free employment office. But while the records kept at the Boston office are more reliable than those of most states they make no scientific classification of occupations and no distinction between casual and other employments, both of which are necessary for a true understanding of conditions in the labor market.

This is the work that has now been begun by the Wisconsin Free Employment Offices. Each office sends in a daily report of its business to the central office in Madison. The report blank contains a printed list of occupations grouped in industries following the United States Census classification of occupations, but adapted and boiled down to the needs of the offices in Wisconsin. Opposite each occupation are four columns for showing respectively the number of "applications for work," "help wanted," "referred to positions," and "positions secured." These daily reports are tabulated by the statistical force of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, and they show, besides the supply of labor and the demand and something of the character of each occupation, what industry it belongs to, whether it is skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled and whether it is permanent or temporary. From the location of the offices the conditions in different sections of the state can also be told.

#### EFFICIENCY SOCIETY MEETING

Organization, management, hygiene and industrial relations were the things taken up by the Efficiency Society at its recent annual meeting in New York.

At the session devoted to the subject of organization, Harrington Emerson took up the subject with special reference to personnel. Dr. Katherine Blackford followed with a paper on Scientific Selection and Assignment of Men in the Creation of an Organization, and John Calder spoke on Divisional and Departmental Organization. The very titles of these papers suggest what the experts mean when they speak of a "new science of organization."

The discussion of management began with a paper by William Lodge of the Lodge & Shipley Machine Company, Cincinnati, outlining the

duties of each man in a typical manufacturing organization, from the general manager down to the yard laborer and the night gateman.

With lantern slides and moving pictures J. G. Aldrich showed the latest methods of micro-motion studies for analyzing operations in order to get rid of useless motions.

Mrs. Harriet F. Andrew, who owns and manages an anvil works at Trenton, N. J., gave her experiences in handling draftsmen, pattern-makers, cupola men, moulders, and machinists to the number of sixty. She took charge of the works fourteen years ago on the death of her husband, and was proud to have maintained the factory's record which began under her husband's father. Under her management the plant has never shut down except for funerals or holidays and has never passed a pay roll. Men have been in the employ of the anvil works sixty-five years. Sons have followed fathers in the service.

Two other women gave their experience in industrial management: Mrs. J. Russell Selfridge, widow of Admiral Selfridge, who has run a model laundry in Bedford, N. Y., and Mrs. Nelson H. Henry, the organizer and manager of the Women's Industrial Exhibition, now an annual affair at the Grand Central Palace.

One session was devoted to a symposium on industrial relations, Samuel McCune Lindsay presiding.

Out of the experience of the Consumers League, Mrs. Frederick Nathan declared that the greatest obstacles to efficiency in business and in factory life are long hours and low wages. Jane Seymour Klink, welfare worker in the Pilgrim Steam Laundry of Brooklyn, spoke on conditions in that industry. F. S. Tomlin, secretary of the Central Federated Union of Brooklyn, declared that as a union official, he had sometimes had much greater difficulty with members of his union than he had with the employers. That lack of proper co-operation between employer and employee is a great bar to efficiency was a point brought out by H. C. Hunter of the National Metal Trades Association. He declared, however, that collective bargaining had proved a lamentable failure in his trade, and hoped that the Industrial Relations Commission would investigate this field.

Industrial Hygiene was the topic at the closing session, with Dr. Winthrop Talbot of Cleveland, in the chair. The program opened with a description of the medical service of the Norton Company of Worcester, Mass., by Dr. S. Irving Clark, followed by a discussion of industrial diseases and their prevention by Frederick L. Hoffman of the Prudential Life Insurance Company. Prof. Charles L. Parsons of the United States Bureau of Mines, read a paper on the work of its division of mineral technology, looking to the prevention of disease. Dr. George M. Price, medical inspector of the New York Factory Investigating Commission, discussed industrial inefficiency.

That not all of the burden for the improvement of hygienic conditions among employees should be put upon the employer, was insisted by Dr. Graham Rogers, medical inspector of the New York State Department of Labor. He



pointed out that unhygienic conditions in the home might have as much to do with the ill-health of a workman as any condition he might encounter in the factory, and he urged that the state should authorize the factory medical inspector to inspect houses and tenements where working people live. Dr. William J. Manning, medical officer of the Government Printing Office, described the methods that have been worked out there for the elimination of contagious diseases. Dr. C. E. A. Winslow of New York, pointed out that the seemingly insignificant things are often of greater consequence than more spectacular defects. For example, he declared that more damage is done by overheated factories than by acute poisons. Dr. Thomas Darlington gave an illustrated lecture on welfare work under the American Iron and Steel Institute. The feature of this meeting was the resolution introduced by Dr. Talbot urging the medical schools to introduce courses in industrial hygiene, an account of which was given in *THE SURVEY* of February 8.

### THE CIVIC FEDERATION MEETING

The National Civic Federation gathered in New York recently for its thirteenth annual meeting. The number proved unlucky for the Socialist Party and the Industrial Workers of the World, whom President Seth Low in his annual report criticised severely. He characterized their efforts as destructive in contradistinction to the American Federation of Labor which, he declared, was a constructive and reasonable labor body designed to improve the condition of the workers without destroying industry. He urged employers to recognize the conservative force of this body and the wisdom of dealing with it in order to check what he considered the undesirable and revolutionary policies of the Socialists and industrialists.

One day's sessions were given up to arbitration. Marcus M. Marks pointed out defects in the Erdmann Act and urged that it be strengthened and enlarged in its scope. He called attention to the fact that under that law the mediators are two public officials whose principal duties are along other lines. While he recognized that signal success has attended the efforts of Commissioner Neill and Judge Knapp of the commerce court, he pointed out that the system is weak when it depends in its entirety upon the ability of two men to put aside their other work and enter into a strike problem when it may arise. These two men, he went on, who have gained experience in the work and are able so admirably to discharge their duties will at some time necessarily have to lay down these duties and no one else is gaining the experience or knowledge of the work necessary to fit them to fill the places. He urged that the time is now ripe for a special government bureau of arbitration and mediation which shall have more than two members. He urged also that the scope of the act be so broadened as to include all employees who have anything to do with interstate commerce instead of train men alone.

A feature of the discussion of this topic was an address by Samuel Gompers, in which he declared that organized labor would never consent to compulsory arbitration such as was recently proposed by the arbitrators in the railway engineers' case. He characteristically attacked "dilettantes who go on sociological mental slumming expeditions."

In the afternoon, William J. Schieffelin described the protocol in the New York garment trades. The minimum wage was attacked spiritedly by Edward F. McSweeney, member of the Industrial Accident Board of Massachusetts, who repeated the charge he made before the economists at Boston that the minimum wage is a pagan proposal. No other than Prof. John A. Ryan of St. Paul's Seminary turned up at the meeting and put in a rebuttal. There are intellectual grounds on which a person can consistently oppose the minimum wage, he said. Perhaps there are pagans who believe in it. He had not met them. But this talk that it is anti-Christian, state socialism and the like is, said Father Ryan, in effect, all buncomb.

### JOINTINGS

#### MEDALS FOR SAVING LIVES

Four gold medals for saving lives were awarded on January 23 at the United Engineering Societies Building, New York city, by the American Museum of Safety.

The *Scientific American* medal for the most efficient safety device exhibited in the museum and invented within the last three years was awarded to the Draeger Oxygen Apparatus Company for the invention of the Pulmotor which has been used so effectively for the resuscitation of victims of electric shock.

The Travelers' Insurance Medal was awarded to the New York Edison Company. This medal is given annually to the company which in the opinion of the Museum of Safety has done the most in the way of protective devices and methods of operation to safeguard their employees.

The Louis Livingston Seaman medal, awarded this year to the National Cash Register Company, is in recognition of efforts along the lines of sanitation and hygiene and the lessening of industrial disease.

Thomas A. Edison received the Rathenau medal which was awarded for the first time in America. This medal was placed at the disposal of the Museum of Safety by the Allgemeine Electricitaets Gesellschaft of Berlin, and is to be awarded each year in recognition of the best invention calculated to promote safety among electrical workers. This award to Mr. Edison was in recognition "of his application of his storage battery in new forms with special adjuncts in relation to safety in mines, tunnels, work under way in factories where explosives are made, powder magazines and where explosive magazines are generated or in use. General application of the storage battery in this field has reduced the hazard to workers fully 100 per cent."



# BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES—

## INSTITUTIONS FOR THE CARE OF CHILDREN

States	Orphanages and Homes				Societies for Aid and Protection		
	No of Institutions	Children			No. of Societies	Children	
		Received in 1910	Present Dec. 31, 1910	Placed out in 1910		Placed out in 1910	Under care in 1910
UNITED STATES.....	1,152	82,011	107,401	14,031	212	23,794	35,279
<b>GEOGRAPHIC DIVISIONS:</b>							
New England.....	115	6,539	8,617	2,003	18	2,217	2,320
Middle Atlantic.....	310	35,380	44,230	2,603	67	12,916	15,275
East North Central.....	261	18,103	23,267	3,964	66	3,155	10,588
West North Central.....	94	7,438	6,467	2,002	20	1,774	1,512
South Atlantic.....	153	3,780	9,564	932	11	1,818	3,669
East South Central.....	55	1,456	2,900	636	5	346	162
West South Central.....	59	2,039	3,811	198	10	351	55
Mountain.....	28	2,112	1,901	261	5	484	181
Pacific.....	77	5,164	6,614	1,432	9	733	1,517
<b>NEW ENGLAND:</b>							
Maine.....	12	190	697	89	2	297	219
New Hampshire.....	17	705	1,080	64	3	81	41
Vermont.....	4	58	113	15			
Massachusetts.....	46	4,045	3,913	1,058	10	1,484	1,195
Rhode Island.....	13	722	864	71	1	122	611
Connecticut.....	23	819	1,950	706	2	233	254
<b>MIDDLE ATLANTIC:</b>							
New York.....	154	26,017	29,774	1,413	29	8,615	5,062
New Jersey.....	51	5,143	3,408	499	12	1,277	3,507
Pennsylvania.....	105	4,220	11,048	691	26	3,024	6,706
<b>EAST NORTH CENTRAL:</b>							
Ohio.....	106	6,952	8,447	1,628	17	772	5,501
Indiana.....	47	1,228	3,348	642	35	845	1,188
Illinois.....	64	7,348	8,473	808	5	653	1,918
Michigan.....	24	1,815	1,692	550	8	652	1,611
Wisconsin.....	20	760	1,307	336	8	233	370
<b>WEST NORTH CENTRAL:</b>							
Minnesota.....	10	1,118	878	524	7	469	124
Iowa.....	17	1,057	1,465	477	2	557	52
Missouri.....	32	3,385	2,641	438	4	214	47
North Dakota.....	2	65	121	42	1	62	360
South Dakota.....	2	106	78	116	2	139	19
Nebraska.....	9	505	509	230	1	39	3
Kansas.....	16	1,202	775	175	3	294	907
<b>SOUTH ATLANTIC:</b>							
Delaware.....	5	92	309	23	1	170	
Maryland.....	36	1,260	2,373	191	2	545	809
District of Columbia.....	14	503	1,063	46	1	320	1,652
Virginia.....	32	309	1,243	75	2	244	565
West Virginia.....	9	319	328	324	2	72	557
North Carolina.....	17	388	1,558	113	1	95	3
South Carolina.....	10	226	1,248	8	1	28	75
Georgia.....	23	599	1,292	104			
Florida.....	7	84	150	48	1	344	8
<b>EAST SOUTH CENTRAL:</b>							
Kentucky.....	25	526	929	534	2		
Tennessee.....	15	595	765	29	2	144	121
Alabama.....	8	198	603	62	2	202	41
Mississippi.....	7	137	603	11			
<b>WEST SOUTH CENTRAL:</b>							
Arkansas.....	9	220	218	9	1	46	9
Louisiana.....	25	1,252	2,434	91			
Oklahoma.....	5	102	95	10	2	23	11
Texas.....	20	465	1,094	88	7	282	35
<b>MOUNTAIN:</b>							
Montana.....	3	115	224		1	66	3
Idaho.....	2				1		
Wyoming.....	1	13	13	3			
Colorado.....	14	1,657	1,287	258	2	368	
New Mexico.....	2	29	38			50	178
Arizona.....	2	83	41				
Utah.....	3	202	207				
Nevada.....	1	13	91				
<b>PACIFIC:</b>							
Washington.....	15	989	639	326	1		
Oregon.....	7	367	379	405	1	421	636
California.....	55	3,808	5,596	701	7	312	881



—AS SHOWN BY THE CENSUS OF 1910—See page 717

— INSTITUTIONS FOR THE CARE OF THE SICK —

Homes for Adults or Adults and Children.			Institutions for Blind and Deaf.			Hospitals and Sanitariums.			Dispensaries.	
No. of Institutions	Inmates		No. of Institutions	Inmates		No. of Institutions	Patients		No. of Institutions	No. of patients treated during 1910.
	No. received during 1910.	No. present Dec. 31, 1910.		No. received during 1910.	No. present Dec. 31, 1910.		No. treated during 1910.	No. present Dec. 31, 1910.		
1,442	788,691	121,876	119	2,554	15,418	1,886	1,975,833	94,374	576	2,439,059
231	83,037	10,011	13	180	1,120	233	207,400	10,244	46	175,648
446	513,906	35,307	31	701	3,938	501	737,076	35,551	341	1,618,741
265	80,594	30,571	21	417	3,042	84	392,202	17,484	64	199,878
128	21,402	12,121	16	309	2,045	257	180,063	10,421	36	153,858
156	23,007	15,848	12	412	1,485	190	156,622	6,213	56	152,659
61	6,992	5,025	9	157	1,442	65	47,989	2,108	9	22,079
53	2,545	3,817	9	231	1,005	75	71,254	3,171	9	51,908
20	1,773	1,212	4	79	428	111	63,077	3,872	6	38,924
80	55,435	7,964	4	68	313	112	120,080	5,310	9	25,364
19	1,170	1,947	1	20	111	21	12,994	584	1	1,212
16	91	371	..	....	....	26	7,535	419	..	....
9	126	432	..	....	....	13	5,553	282	..	....
133	56,758	5,144	8	107	664	128	136,750	6,471	34	147,071
19	902	368	1	13	74	17	17,724	909	5	18,577
35	23,990	1,749	3	40	271	28	26,844	1,579	6	8,788
220	346,586	21,816	18	425	2,257	252	437,315	22,762	124	1,170,187
59	55,121	3,806	2	40	268	63	69,209	3,381	20	43,028
167	112,199	9,687	11	236	1,413	186	230,552	9,408	197	405,526
83	23,118	9,669	5	70	774	81	85,658	6,409	19	59,695
40	10,904	4,097	2	90	472	52	25,033	1,419	4	11,696
87	24,622	9,914	5	93	820	133	126,398	5,872	30	115,762
31	2,041	2,761	4	68	550	67	118,333	2,114	8	7,235
24	19,909	4,130	5	96	426	9	36,780	1,670	3	5,490
30	7,186	2,142	2	45	369	70	51,472	3,439	5	18,821
28	892	1,761	2	46	361	52	26,566	1,845	3	2,026
37	10,619	3,007	4	106	528	57	63,646	3,224	25	126,725
2	16	148	2	19	103	11	3,181	65	..	....
2	568	548	2	18	113	9	3,566	86	1	(No data)
14	482	945	2	29	247	23	14,361	891	1	5,780
15	1,639	3,570	2	46	324	35	17,271	871	1	566
9	99	241	..	....	....	5	1,981	137	3	1,381
31	4,978	1,831	2	16	136	43	41,059	2,207	20	81,730
25	8,763	9,056	2	27	134	16	49,593	977	14	42,766
20	6,313	3,118	1	25	74	30	16,359	920	7	16,798
5	245	246	1	23	192	12	9,406	473	2	652
10	303	426	1	64	367	31	10,680	550	3	2,533
14	258	205	1	29	203	9	4,452	141	2	61
26	2,003	588	2	201	267	27	16,950	602	5	6,738
6	45	137	2	27	112	17	6,212	206	..	....
31	4,902	2,124	3	61	575	25	14,195	814	4	15,643
17	1,372	2,331	3	78	483	17	14,849	500	4	4,136
11	617	390	2	18	384	12	6,627	382	1	2,300
2	101	180	1	....	....	11	12,318	412	..	....
8	268	371	2	53	381	15	11,221	371	1	589
19	948	1,279	2	20	179	12	21,275	1,372	4	24,968
4	188	305	2	41	283	6	2,878	94	..	....
24	1,111	1,862	3	117	762	42	35,880	1,334	4	26,351
4	173	207	1	9	83	16	20,669	258	1	1,036
1	43	177	..	....	....	6	2,645	153	..	....
1	12	53	..	....	....	6	2,703	158	..	....
9	1,441	646	1	30	190	46	25,145	2,131	2	1,211
1	....	....	1	18	34	19	3,341	771	2	(No data)
1	....	....	..	....	....	11	2,069	174	1	35,777
3	104	129	1	22	121	7	6,505	227	..	....
..	....	....	..	....	....	..	....	....	..	....
19	1,417	1,445	..	....	....	36	29,980	1,370	1	640
11	41,037	704	1	6	26	13	13,814	973	1	1,967
50	12,981	5,815	3	62	287	63	76,286	2,967	7	22,757



## SOCIAL AGENCIES

### THE MOTHERS' COMPENSATION LAW OF COLORADO

BEN B. LINDSEY  
JUDGE OF THE JUVENILE COURT, DENVER

*[Judge Lindsey is an active champion of the mothers' pension idea, and in this paper he interprets the Colorado plan which he sponsored, and which was passed last fall by a referendum to the people. The new law covers various other matters with respect to dependent children, and is the subject of vigorous controversy.—Ed.]*

An amendment to the dependent child statute, popularly known as the Mothers' Compensation Law,<sup>1</sup> was adopted by the people of Colorado at the November election. In making this amendment a number of needed additions were included, all relating to the same subject.

When children were committed to the state home for dependent children under the former Colorado law, there were no legal rights given or retained to parents for their reclamation. The statute (Sec. 574 General Laws 1908 Session Laws 1895) merely provided that "whenever one or both the parents of any ward of said board, who is not indentured, have become able to support the child and educate it, the child may by resolution adopted by said board be restored to its parents."

This amounted to nothing at all in many cases. If the parents did afterward become able to support the child, as the law contemplated they might, they often found the child indentured or adopted out. If not, the board claimed the right to refuse to return it.

Sometimes it operated as a great hardship. For example, children are often declared dependent and sent to the state home when the chief cause, directly or indirectly, may be poverty. At the hearing of such a case it might appear from the evidence in court that within a reasonable time the conditions making for poverty could be overcome. But the statute made no provision that would enable such parents to make such a showing at the hearing, or the court to make such a conditional order. The old law provided that a child committed to the State Home for Dependent and Neglected Children "should, as to its care and disposition, be subject to the law establishing said home." (Sec. 558, Gen. Laws 1908). This left the state home with the right to adopt out or indenture a child at any time after it was received from the court.

The first change made, then, through the Mother's Compensation Act was to provide that "any dependent child committed to the state home should, as to its care and disposition, be subject to any special order of the court making such commitment, provided such order be made at the time of such commitment." This at least softened the rather harsh law that formerly existed, and it seemed fair both to the parent of the child and to the state home. It enabled the parent to show poverty as a

cause at the hearing, and permitted the court, in a proper case, to make a special order at the time of such commitment, safeguarding the right of the parent to reclaim the child. The state home would thus know the status of the child from the beginning. It answered the other objection that in proper cases children might be indentured and adopted out by the home and then afterward interfered with through the whim or caprice of a judge or a court, who might change the order. Of course, there are other rules of law that safeguard against such a danger. And experience shows that it is in any event largely imaginary. The facts show that judges are not in the habit of resorting to such whims or caprices in these cases.

The law establishing the State Home for Dependents specifically provides that children shall be placed in family homes. It was thus intended primarily as a mere clearing house or state detention home until the children could be placed in family homes. The amendment therefore giving the real and natural home a reasonable chance in the proper and exceptional case to reclaim the child not only does not alter but strengthens the purpose and good effects of the act.

The next provision of the law concerns what is more generally known as "mothers' pensions," "funds for parents," or, as we in Colorado prefer to call it, "mothers' compensation." It provides as follows:

"If the parent or parents of such dependent or neglected child are poor and unable to properly care for such child, but otherwise are proper guardians, and it is for the welfare of such child to remain at home, the court may enter an order finding such facts and fixing the amount of money necessary to enable the parent or parents to properly care for such child, and thereupon it shall be the duty of the Board of County Commissioners . . . to pay such parent or parents, or, if it seems for the best interest of the child, to some other person designated by the court for that purpose, at such times as said order may designate, the amount so specified, or when so ordered by the court, its equivalent in supplies and assistance, for the care of such dependent or neglected child until the further order of the court."

This provision is substantially the same as that of the Illinois act, with two changes: (1) The provision that permits the court to pay the sum to some other person for the parent; (2) or the equivalent in supplies or assistance. The

<sup>1</sup>The vote for the amendment was: for 82,337; against 37,870; majority for 44,467.



rather inelastic provision of the Illinois law in this regard seemed to us to be less adapted to its practical administration.

It does not permit such sum to be paid to keep the child in any other home. That is to say *the judge or the court cannot board children out in other family homes out of this fund.* The pension or compensation can only be paid to the parent direct, *or to some other person for the parent,* to permit the parent (not some other person) *to keep the child in its own home—the parent's home.*

The Illinois law provided for payment of a lump sum of cash to the parent in every case. But suppose the trouble with the home is, for example, periodic intemperance, or some other cause that the evidence may show may be corrected, but which for the time being would make it unsafe to pay a lump cash sum? Surely, this elastic provision is helpful as permitting the Board of County Commissioners (or if in Denver the Board of Charities and Corrections) to provide the home with rent, groceries, clothing or supplies in a sum equivalent to the cash until it is safe to pay the cash.

The objection that the judge is given some discretion after hearing the evidence, as to whether or not it is a proper case, and from the evidence determining what is necessary to help the home, etc., is hardly a fair objection. For nearly twenty years, under the same act, no child could be sent to the State Home for Dependents except upon the discretion of a court. The judge's order compelled the state home to receive the child and compelled the state, through its agent, the state home, to spend a per capita cost of \$15 to \$20 per month to care for the child—not in its own home, but in an institution or state home until it was placed in a private home. The power had to be lodged somewhere. In every state, so far as I know, it has been lodged in a court. In Colorado, out of thousands of cases, I have never heard of one where any abuse of this power was charged. It has certainly never been charged in Denver. Yet, under this new law, giving a new alternative for the first time in this state, the power is now for the first time divided with the Board of County Commissioners. Yet it has met with objection. Not because of the division of power, but because those who have read the law appear not to have understood that it was divided. They are assuming that it was left, as it has always been, entirely with the judge—as in Illinois for example. But in Colorado the judge may be powerless to use the new alternative. He can do nothing toward ordering money to care for the child in its own home unless an estimate is first made of the annual sum that is necessary to do the work and unless the county commissioners make the appropriation.

The law next provides: "The juvenile court in counties of over 100,000 population, and the county court in all other counties, shall appoint proper persons for the purpose of investigation, visitation, the keeping of records and the making of reports in cases requiring relief under this act."

Then follows a provision limiting the numbers of such investigators and salaries paid to

those of probation officers in such juvenile and county courts. This means, under our Colorado laws, that the city of Denver, with 225,000 people, cannot have over three such investigators; in cities and counties of over 25,000 not over two, and that their salaries cannot exceed \$100 per month. No extra help for this purpose can be had by the court unless it is first approved and allowed by the county commissioners. It thus fixes a limit. In Denver and in the large outside counties of the state not to exceed one such investigator will be employed. In some jurisdictions, as in Denver, the assistance of other agencies will be such that the employment of a special investigator, permitted by the law, may be entirely dispensed with. None has been appointed in Denver. The Board of Charities and Corrections does the investigating and, as provided by the law, pays out the money. The court merely orders it—if the commissioners have allowed anything to pay. Under the old law, county commissioners are not limited in authority as to the number of charity and relief investigators they may employ or salary paid.

The next provision is intended to give publicity to the actual work done and money paid out—not to the names or identity of the individuals receiving relief. Juvenile and county courts are required on or before the first day of July of each year to submit to the Board of County Commissioners a report of all cases receiving relief under the act, "and an estimate of the sum necessary to be placed at its disposal for complying with the provisions of this act. A copy of such report shall be filed with the State Board of Charities and Corrections."

The courts enforcing the law are given the usual powers that courts have in mandamus proceedings against ministerial officers by the right to proceed as for contempt of court against officials who "wilfully refuse to comply with its orders directing their compliance with the provisions hereof; *provided, the sums paid out under this act shall not exceed in any year the amount appropriated for such purpose by the county, city and county, or state authorities respectively.*"

Judge Pinckney of the Juvenile Court of Chicago in speaking of the unlimited power given to judges under the Illinois Mothers' Pension Law said: "The law is unparalleled because, on an order of the Juvenile Court, a million dollars could be ordered paid to families in this community within the next year, and nobody could stop the courts from doing it if the parents made application." As shown, this is not true of the Colorado law.

The laws concerning dependent and neglected children in Colorado have shown scant respect for the religion of the parents. There are no mandatory provisions in this regard. But the new act compensates the parents with the consolation at least that consideration must be had for their religion if their children go into foster homes. Here is the proviso: "Petitions and commitments under this act shall state the religious belief of parents, if known, and if not



known the court shall endeavor to ascertain such fact, and family homes to which children are committed shall, as far as practicable, conform to such religious belief."

The next provisions of the law concern the boarding out of children in family homes. Our present law since 1895 has provided (Sec. 573, Laws 1908) "that it shall be the duty of the board to use special diligence in placing the children admitted to such home in suitable family homes," etc. But there was no provision of our law permitting the state through the home to pay families to take the children in family homes. The new law adds a provision permitting this to be done. The only legal alternative the state home formerly had was to keep the child in the institution or permit its indenture or adoption. The result was that there were on an average of from 200 to 250 dependent children constantly in the state institution.

The provisions of the new act merely give this new alternative to the State Home for Dependent Children. In any number of cases, however limited, if they believe it is possible and "for the best interests of the child," they may board such children in a family home. They are not compelled to do it. If the State Home refuses to avail itself of this new privilege there will never be any occasion for any appropriation from the legislature that the law provides shall be made for such purpose.

The final provision of the act concerns the employment of men convicted for non-support of women and children. The act provides that in counties of over 20,000 population the authorities "shall establish and maintain workhouses or proper facilities for the detention and employment of men convicted of non-support of women and children. Any sums of money earned by them or collected for their labor by the authorities in charge of such workhouses or facilities shall be used for the maintenance of the fund necessary to be expended by the county or city and county in carrying out the provisions of this act." In Colorado, where wife and child desertion is growing with alarming rapidly, the deserters are generally sent to a very comfortable county jail, where they are fed up, and the wife and children starve outside. The detail as to the payment of the earnings for the support of the cases mentioned in the act was intended to put a premium on motherhood—in favor of the woman who bears children. But it is a small detail that can be changed if necessary after the law has had a chance.

It is experience that points out any necessary changes that ought to be made and no doubt will be made.

The opposition to the law in Denver was so bitter that it has not yet subsided.

The reactionary and corporation daily papers in Denver were crowded with anonymous articles bitterly attacking it. The principal objections were that it would bankrupt the county; that it would encourage an influx of pauper parents into the state; that it gave the judges of the courts too much authority over county funds; that it would cost Denver \$100,000 to build an expensive workhouse; that the children

were to be "farmed out" and horribly maltreated; that it did not refer to mothers at all, but to parents. The answers to these objections were that they were largely imaginary; that the law was safeguarded by so much detail that it could not be abused; that it was contrary to the experience in Illinois, where the law was perhaps open to many more of these objections, but where, even without any such safeguards as surround the Colorado law, the scare about the influx of paupers had proved groundless. That under the Colorado law no judge would have to consider paupers if they did flock to the state; that such charges need alarm no one.

Neither the Illinois law nor the Colorado law employs the word "mothers" except as it is included in the word "parents." The term is necessarily employed for many reasons; one was to avoid attacks against the constitutionality of the law, as class legislation, or the mere dispensation of charity and the use of public funds for private purposes in aiding a privileged class. Since fathers are subject to imprisonment for refusing to support their children, and since judges are at least assumed to have some good sense and discretion, and can do little without the consent of the county commissioners, it followed in actual practice under the law that where the word "parents" is employed that only mothers get the pension or compensation, and that the very exceptional case to the contrary must be a very proper case. That the law did not make it mandatory to establish expensive workhouses, but was designed to avoid encouraging wife and child desertion by making it mandatory on the authorities to at least maintain "proper facilities for their employment."

The final provision of the act is, to my mind, one of its best: "This act shall be liberally construed for the protection of the child, the home and the state, and in the interest of public morals, and for the prevention of poverty and crime." It is a recognition by the state that the aid is rendered, not as a charity, but as a right—as justice due mothers whose work in rearing their children is a work for the state as much as that of the soldier who is paid by the state for his services on the battlefield; it is a recognition for the first time by society that the state is responsible in a measure for the plight of the mother, and acknowledges its responsibility by sharing the burden of her poverty that is created largely by the conditions that the state permits to exist.

Acknowledging its part in misfortune, for the first time in history by law society through this act literally "bears one another's burdens," quits "the devourers of widows' houses," and "lifts one little finger" in behalf of justice. It will prove at least a good entering wedge for those social and industrial insurance laws that must come in time as the public is educated to their necessity. The amount allowed by the county commissioners for the next year for the operation of the law in Denver is \$4,800. It must be (under the law) paid out by the City Board of Charities and Corrections to such cases as the court orders; provided, the total amount for all cases cannot exceed this appropriation.



## BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

A special report on benevolent institutions in continental United States is in course of preparation by the Bureau of the Census, in connection with the thirteenth census. Preliminary figures, showing the number of institutions reported, together with certain data relating to inmates of these institutions have just been issued by order of Director E. Dana Durand. These figures are subject to revision, but are given out as substantially correct.

The total number of institutions reported is 5,397. In these institutions, or under their care, there were at the close of the year 380,337 persons. As compared with the previous report, that for 1904, the number of institutions reported shows an increase of 1,346 (day nurseries, of which 166 were reported in 1904, were not included in 1910); inmates of institutions at close of year, an increase of 95,975; children received into institutions during the year, an increase of 11,186; patients treated in hospitals, an increase of 911,326; and in dispensaries, of 827,408. There was a decrease of 109,319 in the number of persons received into institutions for adults or adults and children, and of 4,471 in the number received into institutions for the blind and deaf. The Census Bureau's comment is:

"Whether the increase indicates greater need, or greater care and more complete provision is a question which must await a more careful study of the situation; as also the question as to

the decrease. Two items are of special interest: the collection for the first time of data in regard to the placing-out of children in families, and the notably increased interest manifested in the treatment of tuberculosis, which accounts to a very considerable degree for the increase in the number of dispensaries and to some degree of hospitals and sanatoriums. Thus the net number of dispensaries added to the list is 420, and of these nearly 200 are county dispensaries established in the state of Pennsylvania by the Department of Health for the treatment of tuberculosis. The decrease of 109,319 in the number of persons received into institutions for the care of adults or adults and children is chiefly confined to institutions for the temporary care of men who are destitute.

"Noting the distribution of institutions in the states, it appears that New York leads with 797, an increase of 200 over the figures in 1904; Pennsylvania has 692, an increase of 301; Massachusetts, 359, an increase of 104; Illinois, 324, an increase of 39; Ohio, 311, an increase of 52; and New Jersey, 207, an increase of 58. Almost all the states show an increase (generally in about the same proportion), which would indicate that the interest in public provision for those who are regarded as "wards of the state," is by no means limited to the centers of population, but is growing throughout the entire country."

### JOTTINGS

#### HOUSING REFORM IN CINCINNATI

As a result of the Darkest Cincinnati campaign of the Civic Anti-Tuberculosis League, steps have been taken to establish as a distinct branch of the city government a tenement house department, with full power to inspect and enforce adequate housing regulations. Darkest Cincinnati is a motion picture showing bad housing conditions in that city. One result of the campaign is the discovery that a large percentage of the tumble-down and unsanitary tenements are owned by a single man.

Another result of the campaign is a movement for legislation to put the city tuberculosis sanatorium on a firmer basis with a salaried medical director and resident physician.

#### BREAD MUST BE WRAPPED

Senator McCumber of North Dakota has introduced into the Senate a bill requiring all bread sold in the District of Columbia to be wrapped. The loaves must be enclosed in a "suitable sanitary wrapper or package that will protect it from dust, insects, or other contamination" before it leaves the bakery. It is also made unlawful for dealers to sell or deliver bread not properly wrapped.

#### CORRECT DATE OF NATIONAL CONFERENCE

After *Bulletin No. 59* of the National Conference of Charities and Correction had been published giving the date of the fortieth meeting at Seattle, the date was changed. This has led to many incorrect statements of the time. The right date was published in *THE SURVEY* of November 23.

#### COST OF FEDERAL HEALTH WORK

With a view to ascertaining the total expense to the federal government, for the year 1912, of all its health activities, Senator Works of California, who is a Christian Scientist, has secured the passage through the Senate of a resolution directing the secretary of the treasury to compile statistics of cost, maintenance, and personnel of the following: public health and national quarantine, Public Health Service, medical departments of the Department of War, Navy and other departments, hospitals, hygienic laboratories, medical schools, attending surgeons' staffs, surgeon general's office, Bureau of Medicine and Surgery, boards of examination of officers, Board of Medical Examiners, Children's Bureau, medical service in the Bureau of Immigration, and all other bureaus or branches of the health and medical service of the government.



## HEALTH

(Continued from page 681.)

"It is intended that the medical department shall have wide range in its activities. In addition to the usual functions of such a department, it will devise and carry out various methods of health protection known as preventive measures. So far as practicable we shall seek the early detection of diseases, particularly those that are communicable, notably tuberculosis, and arrange for their prompt removal, care and treatment. This not only offers a far better chance for the patients' recovery, but also protects other employees."

## AMERICAN SOCIETY OF MEDICAL ECONOMICS

For the purpose of bettering the economic condition of the medical profession, the American Society of Medical Economics has been incorporated in New York state. The organizers of the new association plan to make this one of the most influential organizations of medical men in the country.

By the provisions of the constitution all registered physicians, without regard to their school, may become members. Dr. E. Eliot Harris, chairman of the committee on legislation of the New York County Medical Society, who is the president, has announced that already one thousand have pledged themselves to become members. Although the organization as yet is largely confined to New York state, it is planned to include every section of the country.

The founders of the new organization believe that a scientific society is not the proper body to consider the need of economic reform, a subject on which it is possible to unite all schools of medicine. The society has standing committees on general economics, professional conduct, medical charities, education and statistics, legislation and food, drugs and sanitation.

The officers include five vice-presidents, Dr. Algernon T. Bristow, professor of surgery at the Long Island Medical College; Dr. W. F. Campbell, vice-president of the State Medical Association; Dr. Smith Ely Jelliffe, the specialist; Dr. T. K. Tuthill, a former coroner, and Dr. T. F. Rally of Fordham College. Dr. S. Dana Hubbard, chief of the Bureau of Contagious Diseases of the Board of Health, is secretary, and Dr. Royal S. Copeland, dean of the Homeopathic Medical College, treasurer.

## TYPHUS FEVER FOUND IN U. S.

That typhus fever and Brill's Disease are identical has been demonstrated by the hygiene laboratory of the United States Public Health Service recently. This discovery is considered important because it has been thought for years that typhus fever did not exist in the United States. But Drs. Anderson and Goldmeyer of the Public Health Service have shown not only that typhus fever does exist under another name, but that it is transmitted by means of the head louse and the body louse. Thus sanitary authorities are now equipped with definite knowledge with which to combat the disease and to prevent its spread.

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AND PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS

105 East 22d St., New York



# THE SURVEY

Volume XXIX, No. 21

February 22, 1913

## THE NEW YORK FACTORY BILLS

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EDWARD E. PRATT  
PAUL KENNADAY  
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Two Dollars a Year

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**E**IGHT hours for a day's work for women in the District of Columbia is one step nearer realization. The Senate committee, before which this proposal has been pending, has agreed to report the bill favorably. The measure is now included among those favored by the Republican caucus.

**A**RBITRATION under the Erdmann Act is to prevent the threatened strike of the firemen on eastern railroads. Thus the firemen win their contention for an arbitration board of three under the law instead of the proposal of the railroads for a board of seven such as made the award in the recent engineers' controversy.

**A** MINIMUM wage of six dollars a week for all employed women is provided in a bill which has just passed the Kansas house of representatives. Domestic servants and others who are furnished with meals and lodging may be charged for these not to exceed three dollars a week or fifteen cents for each meal or lodging.

**T**HE New York legislature faces a confused tangle of constitutional amendments and compensation bills. Although somewhat embarrassed by conflicting suggestions, the justice of the compensation principle is apparently admitted by the law makers without much question. Edward T. Devine explains the principles back of the three main compensation bills now pending at Albany. P. 722.

**T**HE New York State Factory Investigating Commission has submitted thirty-two bills for reorganizing the Labor Department of the state and regulating factory conditions. The document is the focus point of the attention of social workers throughout the state, who are interested in the purposes of these bills. Page 725.

**T**HE National Cotton Garment Manufacturers' Association in New York has conceded full recognition of the union and 8,000 girl strikers in the white goods trades are returning to work. By the terms of the agreement the workers obtain increases in wages amounting to from \$1 to \$2 and receive a fifty-hour week schedule. A permanent wage board is provided for which is expected to arrange an average wage of \$10 a week.

**G**OVERNOR SULZER'S special health commission has reported its recommendations for changes in the laws and in their administration. The commission recommends an increase of from six to ten thousand dollars a year for the state commissioner of health, the practical abolition of town and village boards of health and the granting of their powers to the local boards of trustees, and the appointment of twenty district sanitary superintendents in the territory outside New York city.

## THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE  
GRAHAM TAYLOR Associate Editors JANE ADDAMS  
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Editor

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### Step No. III

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with the poor is essential if we are to get families out of and away from their poverty.

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# THE COMMON WELFARE

## IMMIGRATION BILL VETOED

President Taft's veto of the immigration bill, just before it would have become a law without his signature, was based upon objections to the literacy test.<sup>1</sup> These were presented to the President in a letter from Secretary of Commerce and Labor Nagel, which was sent to Congress along with the brief veto message. The secretary's objections did not carry conviction in the Senate which has passed the bill over the President's veto. In the House, however, the attempt to re-pass the bill failed by a small margin.

Both the President and Secretary Nagel wished that many of the provisions of the bill might be added to the present immigration laws. Both, however, felt that the literacy test was of controlling importance in that it violated, in their judgment, fundamental principles in a sound immigration policy. Secretary Nagel thought that this feature admitted of no compromise. In stating his objections he said in part:

"The effect seems to be that a qualified alien may bring in members of his family who may themselves be disqualified, whereas a disqualified member would exclude all dependent members of his family, no matter how well qualified they might otherwise be. In other words, a father who can read a dialect might bring in an entire family of absolutely illiterate people, barring his sons over sixteen years of age, whereas, a father who can not read a dialect would bring about the exclusion of his entire family, although every one of them can read and write. Furthermore, the distinction in favor of the female members of the family as against the male members, does not seem to me to rest upon sound reasons. Sentimentally, of course, it appeals, but industrially considered, it does not appear to me that the distinction is sound. Furthermore, there is no provision for the admission of aliens who have been domiciled here and who have simply gone abroad for a visit. The test would absolutely exclude them upon return."

He argued, relying on the judgment of immigration officials, that the literacy test would cause delay and friction at ports and on the Canadian and Mexican borders; that \$1,000,000 more

would be required for the administration of the law than at present; and that many interpreters would be needed over whom it would be impossible to have adequate supervision. He further declared that the literacy provision -

"was originally urged as a selective test. The older argument is now abandoned, and in the later conference, at least, the ground is taken that the provision is to be defended as a practical measure to exclude a large proportion of undesirable immigrants from certain countries. . . .

"I cannot accept this argument. No doubt the law would exclude a considerable percentage of immigration from southern Italy, among the Poles, the Mexicans and the Greeks. The exclusion would embrace probably in large part undesirable but also a great many desirable people, and the embarrassment, expense, and distress to those who seek to enter would be out of all proportion to any good that can possibly be promised for this measure. . . .

"So far as the industrial conditions are concerned, I think the question has been superficially considered. We need labor in this country, and the natives are unwilling to do the work which the aliens come over to do. It is perfectly true that in a few cities and localities there are congested conditions. It is equally true that in very much larger areas we are practically without help."

While Secretary Nagel recognized that many newly arrived immigrants live in deplorable conditions, he held that the same is true in certain sections of the country inhabited for a century by natives, and that such conditions are exceptional. He continued:

"The census will disclose that with rapid strides the foreign-born citizen is acquiring the farm lands of this country. Even if the foreign-born alone is considered, the percentage of his ownership is assuming a proportion that ought to attract the attention of the native citizens. If the second generation is included it is safe to say that in the Middle West and West a majority of the farms are to-day owned by foreign-born people or they are descendants of the first generation. This does not embrace only the Germans and the Scandinavians, but is true in large measure, for illustration, of the Bohemians and the Poles. It is true in surprising measure of the Italians, not only of the northern Italians, but of the southern.

"Again, an examination of the aliens who come to stay is of great significance. During the last fiscal year 838,172 aliens came to our shores, al-

<sup>1</sup>By an oversight, the age limit affected by the literacy test stated in the article on the immigration bill in *THE SURVEY* for February 8, page 645, was eighteen years. It should have been stated sixteen years.



THE MAN ABOVE: "YOU CREATE IT, BUT  
YOU CANNOT HAVE IT."



Mayor Gaynor opened a "Lower Rents" exhibit in New York on Monday. The exhibit is the work of the Committee on Congestion, and its purpose, to convince New Yorkers that it would be socially desirable to halve the tax rate on buildings. A bill before the legislature would submit the proposal to a city referendum.

though the net immigration of the year was only a trifle above 400,000. But, while we received of skilled labor 127,016, and only 35,896 returned, we received servants, 116,529, and only 13,499 returned; we received farm laborers, 184,154, and only 3,978 returned, it appears that laborers came in the number, 135,726, while 209,279 returned. These figures ought to demonstrate that we get substantially what we most need, and what we cannot ourselves supply, and that we get rid of what we least need and what seems to furnish, in the minds of many, the chief justification for the bill now under consideration."

Mr. Nagel was persuaded, he said in conclusion, that the provision was based upon a fallacy in undertaking to apply a test which was not calculated to reach the truth and to find relief from a danger which really did not exist. He made minor objections with respect to the inclusion of Hawaii within the terms of the bill; the vague language of the provisions excluding aliens capable of assuming citizenship; the provision whereby the secretary of commerce and labor's decision, admitting skilled labor under contract, may be submitted to a review by the

courts in advance of affirmative action; the provision for detailing matrons and inspectors on immigrant vessels, and the drastic power in the hands of the secretary for penalizing ship companies that solicit immigrants.

#### A SHAM BATTLE AS A MENTAL RESTORATIVE

The Agnews State Hospital in California, of which Dr. Leonard Stocking is medical superintendent, is carrying on an interesting experiment in the so-called moral treatment of the men patients. With a view to evolving a restorative system of mental treatment based upon exercises calculated to call into play the disconnected mental forces of insane men, Dr. Stocking has organized a system of military drill. Employees of the hospital with military training were detailed to this service a few months ago and in a few weeks had two well-organized companies of militia, to which later was added artillery, a Red Cross hospital corps, etc. The patients seemed to take to this novel method of occupation and entertainment and threw themselves into it with such enthusiasm and ability that a sham battle was arranged for and very successfully carried out. The model was the battle of San Juan. A Spanish fort was built, camps were established, and the details of the battle were closely followed. During the summer two companies went off on a ten days' camping trip to the mountains.

This experiment is said to be unique and to deserve trial in other institutions. For some years the Central Islip State Hospital in New York has carried on an informal drill of men patients, which is said to have greatly improved their gait and carriage. A more complete organization of such methods of occupying the men patients might be especially advantageous during the winter months when there is so little opportunity for outdoor work and recreation. A vigorous march to the strain of the hospital band would, it is thought, be a great improvement over the sluggish daily walk forced upon unwilling patients at most of the institutions for the insane.

#### PROGRESS IN THE PLANS FOR LETCHWORTH VILLAGE

The need for effective handling of the feeble-minded in institutions in case of fire was shown recently by a loss of life at Amityville, Long Island, N. Y., when the Brunswick home was destroyed. An attempt to solve the problem is being made at Letchworth Village, New York state's new 2,000 acre home for the feeble-minded and epileptic. Plans for the buildings have progressed, so that contracts can be let for the first ten structures. Not only will the buildings be of "slow burning" construction, but





DORMITORIES PLANNED FOR LETCHWORTH VILLAGE

there will be no intricate passages, making it possible to empty them with the greatest ease. Doors opening directly outside will be provided for each apartment occupied as sleeping quarters.

The architectural character of the structures is notable. The portico and dome of Monticello, Thomas Jefferson's home, have been chosen to relieve the barn-like monotony of the usual institution of this sort. This type of construction is said to be particularly fit for the village's environment of low hills and valleys.

That the dormitories for girls are to be separated from those for boys by a stream running through the middle of the grounds has already been stated in a previous article in *THE SURVEY*; also that there will be six groups of buildings, each complete in itself.<sup>1</sup> Each group will consist of eight dormitories, an industrial building for hand work, an attendants' home, and, with the exception of those for the infirm, a dining hall. There will also be schoolhouses in the groups for children. Three of the groups will be for boys and men and three for girls and women. The inmates will be grouped in three classes: improvable children, able-bodied adults and infirm adults.

The administration group will consist of an office building, cottages for men and women officers and a library fire station. Hospitals, a laboratory, observation buildings, a club house and other buildings will make up other groups.

At the last session of the legislature, \$457,000 was appropriated for the ten buildings which it is expected will be started this spring. These in-

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY* for March 2, 1912, page 1869.

clude four dormitories, an attendants' room, a dining hall, a laundry, a shop, a power plant and a store house. The last four will serve the entire village.

It is realized that the village will offer an opportunity to demonstrate how economically the policy of segregating mental defectives may be conducted.

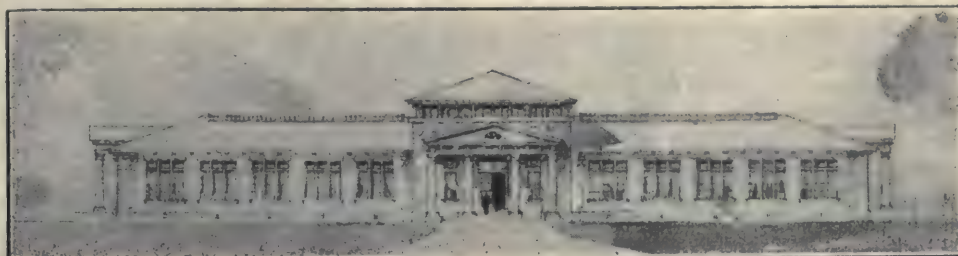
In speaking of the methods and aims of Letchworth Village, Dr. Little, its superintendent, said recently:

"The farm colony provides the most economical way in which to segregate the feeble-minded. It costs less to feed and house the inmates. It furnishes a healthful occupation for mind and body. It provides a most favorable environment for their happiness and comfort. It gives them a range of movement that permits the development of whatever individuality they may possess, for it separates them from contact with other colonies."

#### SAGE FOUNDATION LOSES DR. GULICK

Coincident with the resignation of Dr. Luther H. Gulick as director of the Department of Child Hygiene, the Russell Sage Foundation announces that the department under this name will be discontinued. Most of its activities will be carried on by two new departments which will be developed from the present Divisions of Recreation and Education. These will be under the directorships, respectively, of Lee F. Hammer and Leonard P. Ayres.

In 1907 Dr. Gulick, then president of the Playground Association of America, was made



ONE OF THE DINING HALLS



chairman of the Playground Extension Committee and the Backward Children Investigation of the Russell Sage Foundation. These were merged in 1909 into the Department of Child Hygiene.

Ever since his connection with the Boy Scouts of America as a member of their Committee on Organization Dr. Gulick has believed that a similar organization for girls was needed. In accordance with this idea, the Camp Fire Girls was organized in 1911, and Dr. Gulick now gives up the directorship of the Department of Child Hygiene to devote his whole time to this movement. His resignation to take up a new work affords an opportunity for reviewing the record the department has made in forwarding movements for better social conditions in schools.

When the Playground Extension Committee first co-operated with the Playground Association of America in 1907, ninety cities had playground facilities. The number had jumped to 531 in 1910, when the Foundation dropped this work as one of its main activities, and turned over most of its playground interests to the Playground Association. It has since then, however, continued to work along other lines to further the interests of public recreation, such as the development of the use of public buildings and grounds for evening recreation centers, summer playgrounds, vacation schools, social center work, public lectures and meetings, and school gardening. Dr. Gulick was responsible, for example, for the interesting and picturesque experiment of having several hurdy-gurdies equipped with folk dance music.

The Division of Recreation has been active, also, in the sane Fourth campaign; has helped work out many plans for May Day observances; has backed the endeavors of the New York Public School Athletic League for the control of school athletics; aided in organizing the Boy Scout movement in this country; has conducted dance hall investigations; and has been a general clearing house of information for questions on the subject of recreational facilities.

It is this division and that of education which are to be continued as separate departments of the Foundation.

The findings of the Backward Children Investigation (afterward the Division of Education) that a large number of children were retarded in their school work because of removable physical defects aroused strong interest among school men and lent impetus to the movement in behalf of medical inspection of school children. After the report was published the number of cities having systems of medical inspection in schools jumped from 135 in 1908 to over 700 in 1912.

The division has co-operated with school men by giving them material on the causes of re-

tardation and non-promotion among school children, the relation of physical defects to school progress, and like problems. The published reports of the division have served to help socially minded educators who are trying to fit the school to the needs of the child and to fit the child for present day demands. Some of the reports which have attracted most attention are: Why 250,000 Children Quit School; What American Cities are Doing for the Health of School Children; A Scale for Measuring the Quality of Handwriting; Reports of the Age and Progress Study, and A Comparative Study of the School Systems in the 48 States.

One exhibition conducted by the division, which showed school conditions and school needs in Greenwich, Conn., cost \$2,500. It resulted in the raising of a bond issue of \$250,000 for school improvement in that town—a return of 1,000 per cent.

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### COMPENSATION BILLS AT ALBANY

EDWARD T. DEVINE

In the confused tangle of constitutional amendments and compensation bills now pending in the New York legislature, we may distinguish certain clear issues on which the average citizen should have no difficulty in making up his mind.

The first of these is as to whether, in view of the probability of the adoption of the amendment conferring upon the legislature the power to enact a compulsory law, like that which in the Ives case was declared to be unconstitutional, the legislature should enact any so-called voluntary compensation scheme at all. The three bills known respectively as the Jackson or Federation of Labor bill, the Foley or administration bill, and the McClelland or Civic Federation bill, all agree in setting up plans which within six months of the time when they go into effect will be antiquated, if, as is surely to be taken for granted, the amendment is approved by the present legislature and by the voters in November. The obvious suggestion would be to wait until the constitution has been amended and then pass the kind of law which public opinion really demands.

There are two objections to this course. One is the uncertainty which always attends delay. Through some wholly unforeseen political development the amendment might fail. The courts might discover some irregularity in the process of amendment. There is now an aroused and enlightened public sentiment on the question. Now, therefore, is the time for action.



The other conclusive argument in favor of immediate action is that every day of delay means more uncompensated, or inadequately compensated, injuries. Every day there are deaths and crippling which a better law would tend to prevent; and the economic burdens still fall on widows, orphans, and disabled workmen, instead of being distributed widely through insurance and prices.

In this situation, the suggestion has been made that a compulsory law, such as is ultimately to be enacted, should be enacted now, but with the proviso that it should go into effect after the constitutional amendment has been approved. No doubt the legislature can pass a law which is to go into effect contingently upon some specified future event. Whether it would be constitutional for the legislature to do this when the particular contingency is a constitutional amendment conferring upon the legislature the power to pass the act in question is a very nice point. As the proposed statute would not be identical with or even very much resemble the one which was found to be unconstitutional, and as the court in any event would have had ample time to change its mind, it is possible that the validity of the new law would not have to depend solely upon the amendment. The advantages of passing immediately an ideal compulsory statute are that, if upheld, it would end at the earliest possible moment the present unsatisfactory condition; and that it would give to voters when the constitutional amendment is before them, a clear and definite idea of the system which the adoption of the amendment would permit.

The second issue involved is as to whether the insurance of the risks created by the new law shall be undertaken by the state exclusively, as the Jackson bill contemplates; or by the commercial and mutual companies, as the Foley bill provides; or by these companies with the state insurance department as an alternative, as the McClelland bill permits.

It must be admitted that commercial accident insurance has no very creditable record in this country. However necessary some such system may have been under our old plans of compensation it has as a whole been expensive, cruel, and anti-social. It has fought claims, just and unjust, remorselessly and has eliminated the human element in industrial relations so far as they relate to compensation for injuries. Miss Eastman, after scrutinizing minutely the Pennsylvania method of settling for work accidents, reached the conclusion that if injured employees had had no legal claim whatever and had been dependent entirely on the good will of their employers they would have fared better than under the Pennsylvania law. That is the curse of the liability chaos under which we have lived, that it destroys good will.

In one case of which the writer has personal knowledge, a man was injured and after a few weeks died from the illness of which his injuries had been at least a contributing cause. His employer could not "afford" to allow the visitor who came on the family's behalf to see the loom at which he had worked, or to talk with his foreman. He could not help them lest it should be taken as evidence of "liability." But after much interviewing and correspondence, he wrote a letter in which he said that, if the injured man, who was at that time still alive in the hospital, would sign a release from all legal obligations, merely as an expression of his sympathy and regret he would send a check for any amount which the society considered reasonable, up to—*twenty-five dollars*. As an expression of sympathy this may seem inadequate, but it was twenty-five dollars more, as it turned out, than the legal claim was worth. The employer was insured.

There is something to be said for the plan of mutual insurance, and possibly corporations or other large employers that can satisfactorily guarantee their solvency should be allowed to carry their own risks. But the safest, simplest, least expensive, and most democratic plan would seem to be that of a state insurance fund, administered not by the Insurance Department but by a distinct compensation insurance commission, levying premiums on various industries and within the industries on various establishments, according to the actual risks as shown by inspection and experience. If by the side of this normal and authorized system there are allowed the alternatives of self insurance and mutual insurance under the regulation and oversight of the state commission, this would seem to afford all the latitude which is called for. One consideration in favor of the continued use of the casualty companies also is that there are some industries which are so limited in certain states that the broader basis of experience throughout the nation is almost indispensable. Generally speaking, however, the one type of middleman which among all the superfluous middlemen could be eliminated with the most cheerful acquiescence of everybody concerned is precisely the liability insurance company which, in its obnoxious methods and enormous administrative expenses, made necessary by the legal system of which it is a part, has most completely represented all that is bad in the old order of things.

The third issue involved relates to the scale of compensation. The Jackson bill proposes as a general unit of compensation two-thirds of the average wages at the time of death or disability, with a maximum period of ten years, a maximum amount of \$5,000 in case of death, and of \$15 a week for disability. The Foley bill



and the McClelland bill propose one-half of the average wages at the time of death or injury as a maximum, the period for which payments are to be made varying according to the character of the injury. The period during which compensation is given in case of death is six years in the latter bill and about seven years in the former. Ten dollars is fixed as the maximum weekly payment in both bills. There are many details to be considered in comparing the provisions of the different measures, but the typical figures cited show fairly the different points of view.

The Association for Labor Legislation has by resolution endorsed the Foley bill on condition that certain amendments should be incorporated, among them the more liberal scale of compensation proposed in the Jackson bill, i. e., two-thirds rather than one-half of the average wage. The association also insists that the period of payment be made even longer than in the Jackson bill as, for example, during the continuance of disability, during the continuance of widowhood, and until dependent children reach the age of sixteen. In insisting on these amendments the association is well advised. The scale of the Foley bill is clearly inadequate as it stands and it illustrates the inevitable weakness of any optional bill. In order to induce employers to elect to come under it, the scale must offer substantial advantages to them. The theory of the so-called voluntary system which has been making such headway is that it is to be made as nearly compulsory as possible by the financial inducement of a low scale of compensation on the one hand, and on the other hand by removing the common law defenses of assumption of risk, fellow servant, and contributory negligence from employers who do not elect to come under the law.

There is something inherently obnoxious about all such bargaining. It is, as Mr. Freund said in Washington a year ago, in effect bartering justice. Litigants in a damage suit are not treated with that uniform impartiality which our traditions require, but according as they have or have not decided at some previous time a question of policy on which there may be room for differences of opinion. Optional schemes therefore are bound up with the two grave evils of unequal treatment of employers and inadequate compensation to injured workmen.

To increase the scale of compensation after a law is once enacted has been found in practice to be exceedingly difficult, if not impossible. To be sure workmen are better off with a very moderate payment which is assured and is prompt than with a vague prospect of some large sum after long delay and anxious uncertainty. But why should the sums to be paid be reduced in

amount merely because payment is to be certain and delays eliminated? What public opinion demands is that the one should be done and the other not left undone. That is to say, delays and uncertainties and unnecessary expenses are to be ended, and also the amounts to be paid are to be just and reasonable. What is proposed is that industry shall squarely shoulder the costs of its deaths and injuries. If prices go up, let them. This is one item in the cost of living which will cause no grumbling worth taking into account. If some employers fail, let them fail. This is one cause of bankruptcy upon which society can look with comparative equanimity. If some industries are no longer as profitable as they were, let the dividends shrink. The social ledger will still show a favorable balance in wage-earners spared to their families or, if they must be killed and maimed, at least in a means of livelihood for the bereaved and dependent families. With no less justice than Captain Scott, our industrial workers who die at their post leave us everywhere their farewell message: *Surely a great rich country like ours will see that those who depend on us are properly provided for.*

## THE EIGHT-HOUR DAY AND WORKING CHILDREN

FLORENCE KELLEY

Secretary National Consumers' League

Congress seems to be on the eve of enacting an eight-hour law applying to women employed in all industries except household work and trained nursing in the District of Columbia. Three states have enacted eight-hour laws for women. In Washington and California the state supreme courts have already sustained these laws, and the most recent statute, that of Colorado, was adopted by a popular vote under the initiative and referendum.

These familiar facts are rehearsed here because they raise the question why no New England state has established the eight-hour day even for children—and why no southern state except Mississippi? In sixteen states working children have the eight-hour day. In Ohio it applies to girls until their eighteenth birthday. In New York it assures to all boys and girls under sixteen, employed in manufacture, a working day ending at 5 P. M. sharp. In Utah and certain other states boys share with men the eight-hour day in the mining industry.

With forty-two legislatures in session it seems reasonable to hope that New England and the South may awaken, and begin during the present year to adopt the eight-hour day at least for the children.



# THE NEW YORK FACTORY BILLS

THIRTY-TWO BILLS have been recommended by the New York Factory Investigating Commission (See THE SURVEY for February 15, p. 659). Among these are bills to abolish child labor in canneries and in tenements, to end night work for women in factories, to minimize fire hazards, to reorganize the Labor Department, and to create an industrial board.

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## THE REORGANIZATION BILL. BY A. F. WEBER,<sup>1</sup> STATISTICIAN PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION, FIRST DISTRICT.

JUST THIRTY YEARS ago the state of New York, through the establishment of a bureau of labor statistics, gave official recognition to the modern demand for governmental regulation of such conditions of employment as are beyond the control of individual wage-earners.

The bureau brought to light and stamped with its official guarantee the facts that established the need of state interference to control and elevate the plane of competition among employers in such wise as to safeguard the health and welfare of employes. But progress has been slow both on account of the reluctance of the judiciary to abandon the notion that "freedom of contract" had been written into the constitution and on account of defective civil service regulations that left the enforcement of protective labor laws to an untrained and inexperienced body of officials. The factory laws embodied the practice of the best and most enlightened employers, but they existed more as an ideal than as a minimum requirement to be met by every manufacturer. Whenever complaint was made of the non-enforcement of statutory provisions, the responsible official almost invariably pleaded the inadequacy of his force, and the legislature would from time to time respond with additional appropriations.

While additions to the staff of officials are required to keep pace with the rapid growth of population and industry in this state, such additions have not sufficed and will not suffice to secure the protection of the wage-earner that the law intends to afford, unless the officials are prop-

erly trained and supervised. Such training and expert supervision have heretofore been largely wanting. Each inspector has had to work out from his own experience some standard of adequate protection of the health and safety of employes, as the supervising officials have been too busy with the disposition of cases of appeal from aggrieved proprietors to formulate detailed instructions for the field workers.

This situation the Factory Investigating Commission proposes to remedy in part, by the creation of an industrial board of five persons (including the commissioner of labor as chairman), endowed with authority to formulate and establish an industrial code and industrial rules and regulations supplementing the statutory regulations. It is proper and necessary that the exercise of these quasi-legislative functions should be confided in a board rather than an individual because legislation presumes deliberation and consultation of all interests involved. A board that is freed of all administrative duties will have time for deliberation, and if it is properly constituted will listen to and weigh the facts and arguments of every interest involved in a determination of standards that are designed to safeguard the public welfare. This board will require the assistance of expert advisers and investigators, which has been provided for in the Wagner bills by the addition to the staff of the Labor Department of a division of industrial hygiene, comprising a licensed physician to act as chief medical inspector, a chemical engineer, a mechanical engineer expert in ventilation and accident prevention, and a civil engineer expert in fire prevention and building construction.

The commissioner of labor, with a salary of \$8,000 a year, is made responsible for the enforcement of the factory laws, industrial code

<sup>1</sup>From 1901 to 1907, chief statistician, New York Department of Labor.



and regulations of the industrial board, so that any failure in the execution and administration of the law can be brought home to an individual. Under his supervision the first deputy commissioner, as inspector general (salary \$5,000), will have charge of the bureau of inspection, which will consist of at least four divisions—factory inspection, home-work inspection, mercantile inspection and industrial hygiene (the last mentioned division, however, to be in the immediate charge of the commissioner). There are to be two factory inspection districts (one consisting of New York city and Long Island and the other of the remaining counties of the state), each in charge of a chief factory inspector at \$4,000 a year, and there are to be not less (instead of not more) than 125 inspectors. The \$1,000 grade of inspectors has been eliminated; \$1,200 is certainly small enough compensation for a man qualified to assume the responsibilities of a factory inspector.

The bureau of mediation and arbitration and the bureau of industries and immigration will remain unchanged in the reorganized department, but the important bureau of labor statistics is to be greatly enlarged in accordance with the enlightened judgment of social workers here and elsewhere. Within the new bureau of statistics and information, separate divisions are established for the industrial directory, industrial accidents and diseases, investigations (including all research work), and printing and publications. This expansion is urgently needed, as the force of the bureau since it was made a part of the Department of Labor in 1901 has been sufficiently large to keep up only the absolutely essential records of wages, unemployment, manufactures, industrial disputes, etc. This class of information will hereafter be prepared by the division of general labor statistics (and the industrial directory division).

The general scheme of reorganization commends itself on the whole to the great body of disinterested citizens and experts. It concentrates responsibility, and while differences of opinion, as might be expected, exist as to certain features, no one will deny that the bill represents a most important advance step. The only anxiety now felt is on the question of the method of selecting the officials in the new department. Shall the office seek the best qualified man, or, as too frequently in the past, shall a poorly qualified man seek and obtain the office? The answer will depend less upon the legislature than upon the governor and the Civil Service Commission.

## THE PERSONAL EQUATION. BY F. S. TOMLIN, SECRETARY-TREASURER JOINT LABOR LEGISLATIVE CONFERENCE.

IN CONSIDERING REORGANIZATION of the department of labor as proposed by the Factory Investigating Commission, it is necessary to make some reference to the causes which make reorganization advisable. The chief of these causes may be summarized as follows: Active hostility

to the work of the department on the part of employers; indifference and lack of co-operation on the part of employees; half hearted and inefficient inspection; failure of the general public to appreciate the importance of the object of the department; the pernicious effect of political influence on the executive and administrative force.

No mere change or improvement in organization will of itself remedy these evils. The proposed system, or any system, will prove abortive unless the attitude of all who are responsible for the present shortcomings of the department can be changed and is changed. The industrial board as proposed by the commission provides effective machinery for accomplishing this result, provided the board is made up of people possessing the right kind of ability.

It is not important that the members of the board should be executive or administrative geniuses; nor need they be trained experts. The commission has (very wisely in my opinion) invested the industrial board with the power to obtain information of all kinds from any source which will aid them in the performance of their duties. The members should have a fair amount of common sense, some knowledge of machinery, an acquaintance with industrial processes and business methods, and a well balanced idea of justice. They should have in addition ability to use the knowledge they possess and the information they may acquire to make sane, practical rules and regulations for carrying out the policy and intention of the commission as stated in paragraph 51-4C of their bill providing for the board.

There is some difference of opinion as to whether the commissioner should be a member of the board or not. I do not think this is very important. I do, however, consider it essential that the commissioner should be a broad gauge, first class man who is capable of inspiring the force, from deputies down to first grade inspectors, with loyalty and devotion, enthusiasm for their work, and the ambition to make the Department of Labor a model of efficient service. Given capable efficient people as members of the industrial board and with the powers proposed by the commission there is hardly any limit to the beneficent work the Department of Labor can accomplish. Given incompetent, indifferent or unfit people in these positions and the department will be no more efficient than it is now.

## FACTORY REGULATION. BY E. E. PRATT, MANAGER INDUSTRIAL BUREAU, MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION.

THE SUCCESS of recent English factory legislation, especially in regard to occupational diseases and industrial hygiene, has been largely dependent on two essential factors:

1. The careful investigation by a board of experts which has always preceded any action looking to the improvement of factory conditions.
2. The power vested in the Department of



Factory Inspection to draw up special rules for certain industries. These rules and regulations when approved by the home office have the force of law.

These same methods seem to have been sought in the legislation which has been proposed by the New York State Factory Investigation Commission.

One of the laws' suggested creates an industrial board which, under the proposed law, is given not only general and supervisory administrative duties, but is also clothed with the power to make investigations and to lay down regulations which shall have the force of law. It is specifically provided in the bill that these regulations shall be different for different industries and even for different factories. For the first time in the history of factory legislation in New York the essential differences between industries are recognized, and it is proposed to have varying regulations applicable to industries with varying conditions and dangers.

In its general nature the reorganization of the Department of Labor which is proposed is not unlike that of the Public Service Commission. This is true with two important exceptions: (a) The members of the industrial board are not so well paid and there are fewer of them; (b) the members of the board, except the chairman, give to this work only a part of their time and attention. The obvious danger in this is that the members of the board will have too much power with too little acquaintance with the actual conditions over which they have jurisdiction.

The importance of the industrial board as proposed can scarcely be overrated. In comparing the extent of its jurisdiction with that of the Public Service Commission, it is interesting to note that the latter is concerned with approximately 1,000 companies, having about 100,000 employees, while the Industrial Board will have jurisdiction over some 45,000 establishments, employing more than 1,250,000 workers. If there is anything to choose between the complexity of conditions confronting these two bodies, it is likely that the greater variety and complexity of conditions confront the industrial board.

On the whole, these bills proposed by the Factory Commission represent a great advance over the system now in operation. In the field of industrial hygiene alone they will make it possible to eliminate many of the preventable diseases which menace factory workers. Among other things the board is empowered to carry on a campaign of education—not that it could not be done at the present time, but that it has not—which will probably prove extremely useful. In the field of industrial hygiene what is most needed is education—education of the employer concerning the dangers in his factory and consequent lowered efficiency of his employees; education of the workers to the danger of the work in which they are engaged and to the use of

safety appliances and preventive measures; education of the public to a realization of the seriousness to the community of unhygienic and unhealthful conditions in industries.

These laws are aimed in the right direction, but, like so many other improvements, their success will depend more upon the personnel of the industrial board and its administrative staff than on the phraseology or the content of the law. If the industrial board does not carry weight alike to employers and employees, only another piece of cumbersome machinery will have been added to our already heavy-going state administration. With a personnel which commands the confidence of the community, a great benefit will accrue to the industries of the state. With such an industrial board it will be possible for manufacturers to co-operate not only in improving conditions in their plants, but also in raising the efficiency of their organizations and improving the whole tone of their industries.

## THE REORGANIZATION BILL. BY PAUL KENNADAY, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION.

THE FACTORY INVESTIGATING COMMISSION has provided for better enforcement of labor law by substituting, in place of the old theory underlying so much of the labor law in this country, general principles to be enunciated by the legislature and to be specifically applied to particular problems by an industrial board. Better enforcement of these general principles and of the board's industrial code will also come through the proposed improved organization of the department's force, through the small increase in the number of the regular inspecting force, and through the relatively considerable increase in the force of qualified experts.

But the commission's own strictures upon the failure of present methods are too sweeping to permit us to hope that this proposed curtailing of the legislature's duties and enlargement of the department's functions will bring about genuine enforcement of labor law until we have within the Department of Labor and without it a new conception of the relation of the department to the people of the state. Too long the idea has gained currency in the ranks of organized labor that because this department was created in answer to their demands it should be manned and operated only as organized labor chooses. Too long, on the other hand, have employers looked upon the department as a meddlesome policeman, understanding none too well his job. Too long have politics and other peculiar influences held more than even their fair American share of influence in the department, according to widely prevalent public opinion.

The commission makes the excellent recommendation that oral examinations be given inspectors in addition to the required written civil service examinations, and this no doubt will serve better to test the real qualifications of candidates. The suggestion that pensions be provided for inspectors will materially help, when

<sup>1</sup>Bill No. 1, to be Article 3, Section A, of Chapter 30 of the laws of 1909.



carried out, to place inspection work on a better and more efficient basis.

But in spite of better laws and more laws we shall make but little genuine progress until the general public and politicians of all parties take the view of Senator Wagner and his fellow commissioners, that "no government is properly performing its functions when it permits the working people within its bounds to be employed under unsanitary conditions, when it fails to protect them from preventable disease and accident, when it permits the premature employment of its young children, and the excessive toil of its women."

The gulf is great between "the little attention" which the commission finds "has been paid to the preservation of the state's most precious asset, the workers within its bounds," and the attention which justice demands should be paid by the people's representatives to the people's rights. Fearlessness of the politicians, the grit to do the right thing regardless of the discreet thing, determination to enforce the law, inspiration and vision to comprehend the tremendous opportunity for public service in its grasp; these are the qualities needed within the department, and without, to turn the new Department of Labor, with its new laws and new machinery, into an effective instrument for the prevention of that "annual waste of human life in our industrial establishments" reported by the Wagner-Smith commission as now resulting "from unsanitary conditions and *preventable* accidents and diseases."

## INDUSTRIAL BOARD. BY HENRY MOSKOWITZ, BOARD OF SANITARY CONTROL CLOAK, SKIRT AND SUIT TRADE.

THE SUCCESS of the Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the Cloak and Suit Industry is largely due to a thorough investigation of the actual sanitary conditions which exist in the hundreds of shops in this industry. These conditions are carefully recorded through a card system which was devised with the assistance of a number of labor experts and sanitarians. Upon the basis of the facts thus ascertained, sanitary standards were formulated which were adapted to existing conditions, and therefore enforceable. These standards were higher than those embodied in the labor law, but the board, knowing the actual conditions, could fix reliable standards. The facts served to correct any attempt to impose upon the industry standards which were not enforceable.

The members of this board are convinced that such a method, if generally applied throughout the industries of the state, will result in a more effective enforcement of the labor laws and an improvement in the condition of the workers. It is difficult to enforce general labor laws. Aside from the inadequacy of the inspectorial force, there are so many exceptional conditions of which a department must take cognizance and to which the laws may be intelligently adapted and effectively realized.

This is the purpose, as I understand it, of the industrial board in the reorganization of the Department of Labor contemplated by the Factory Commission. It is not intended that the industrial board should lower the standards; on the contrary, it will make the standards work by drafting a code of practical rules founded upon the specific studies of the actual conditions which the board discovered in the industry. It is an effective method of preventing the laws from becoming dead letters. The successful experience of European labor bureaus with such procedure encourages the innovation. Incidentally, the board will secure the co-operation not only of the workers, but of enlightened employers in the industry who are eager to conform to decent rules in the industrial game. It will not be necessary to resort to frequent amendments of the labor law; and whatever changes must be made will be based upon the experience and the study of such an industrial board.

The responsibilities of the board are great. It is therefore incumbent upon the governor to appoint as members of it those who are qualified by their training and knowledge of labor conditions to perform this important service. The revolutionary changes made in the machinery of the Department of Labor can be justified only if the state authorities will put behind it men and women who are qualified by their experience, knowledge, and character to make it work. The test of the present administration's attitude toward labor and its welfare will soon be made. By the men and women appointed to the new positions created through these desirable laws we shall know whether the Department of Labor is to become a grove of juicy plum trees for the hungry office seeker or an opportunity for genuine service. This is the challenge of the new administration.

## THE INDUSTRIAL BOARD. BY IRENE OSGOOD ANDREWS, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION.

BILL No. 1 of the Factory Investigating Commission creates in the New York Department of Labor an industrial board of five members, with the commissioner of labor as chairman. It is the duty of the board to see that "all factories, factory buildings and mercantile establishments shall be so constructed, equipped, arranged, operated and conducted in all respects as to provide reasonable and adequate protection to the lives, health and safety of all persons employed therein, and that said board shall from time to time make such rules and regulations as will effectuate the said policy and intention."

The board has power to appoint a secretary and determine his salary; to make investigations; inspect factories; compel the attendance and testimony of witnesses and the production of books and papers; to employ experts for special and occasional services; to utilize the employees of the department; and to make rules and regulations which may be adopted only after public hearings. In contrast to the plan adopted



both in Massachusetts and in Wisconsin, the New York board has no voice in staff appointments nor in the administration of department affairs.

The power to make investigations is also given to the Bureau of Statistics and Information, and to the division of industrial hygiene, both of which are under the supervision of the commissioner of labor alone. But recommendations for rules and regulations must be submitted to the board before they can be embodied in the industrial code. The board thus becomes a legislative agent to carry out the more general directions and intention of the legislature.

The effective use of the power given to the industrial board will mean much to the factory workers of New York. The present New York law, as in most other states, is too indefinite to permit of effective enforcement, and it fails to cover many of the most important danger points in industry. By the specific rules and regulations which the board is authorized to make both employers and inspectors will know exactly what is required of them, and enforcement should be greatly simplified.

In Wisconsin this method of work has resulted, according to the former commissioner of labor, in the installation of more safeguards in the last six months than were installed in the preceding six years under the old method; at the same time there has been a decrease in the needed inspection force. The Massachusetts board, created in 1912, will begin work in March of this year.

The reorganized department in New York has almost unlimited possibilities and can become a powerful agent in the prevention of industrial accidents and diseases in this state. Although the Factory Investigating Commission has for the present finished its work, the crucial time is yet to come. Unless the right kind of appointments are made the purpose of the industrial board and the reorganized department will be defeated, and the factory workers of New York will receive but little benefit from the \$70,000 and more spent by the investigating commission. The work of the commission must now be taken up by the interested public.

## POWERS OF PROPOSED BOARD. BY RAYMOND V. INGERSOLL, CHAIR- MAN CONGESTION COMMITTEE.

THERE IS MUCH that is excellent in the bills recommended by the Factory Investigating Commission. Of all the measures, none is more constructive and far-reaching than the one providing for the creation, within the Department of Labor, of an industrial board with broad discretionary powers of administration. If we can have this board, and if it can be made up of men of integrity and ability, we shall be abreast of the most enlightened methods.

It will be the underlying function of this board to make from time to time specific rules and regulations to the end that: "All factories, factory buildings and mercantile establishments shall be so constructed, equipped, arranged, op-

erated and conducted in all respects as to provide reasonable and adequate protection to the lives, health and safety of all persons employed therein."

Under the proposed plan, public supervision and regulation of the conditions of industrial health and safety can be made much more flexible and intimate and correspondingly more effective than at present. For the legislature itself to attempt to make the rules and regulations, as under the theory of the present law, is necessarily cumbersome. Needed amendments are obtained too slowly. Rules designed to apply to all industries throughout the state inevitably tend to such vagueness as to make enforcement extremely difficult. If the legislature were to make such rules definite they would be too severe for some industries or some communities and too lax for others. This has been the past experience. The industrial board, on the other hand, will be expected to make a first hand study of the special processes and needs of separate industries. It can subpoena witnesses, and will have the right of access to all manufacturing establishments. It can take into consideration the peculiar problems of different localities. Perhaps business housed in a high loft building in Manhattan will not call for precisely the same provisions which would be most suitable for a similar industry located in the open country.

Through direct contact between the industrial plants and the regulating authority, relations of helpful advice can be established. The board can make suggestions which will often be welcomed and can instruct the managers of backward establishments in the more enlightened methods of safeguarding employes which may already prevail elsewhere. At present the Labor Department must proceed by an irregular succession of prosecutions. Even these prosecutions often fail because the law is unfair in its rigidity and in its failure to discriminate between conditions which are widely varying.

The board will be made up of the commissioner of labor, who will act as chairman, and four associate members to be appointed by the governor. The term of one commissioner will expire each year. In addition to its powers to make investigations and publish reports, the chief functions of the board are thus expressed in the bill:

"(4) To make, alter, amend or repeal rules and regulations for guarding against and minimizing fire hazards, personal injuries and disease with respect to (a) the construction, alteration, equipment and maintenance of factories and factory buildings; (b) factory buildings and mercantile establishments and the limitation of the number of persons who may occupy the same or any part thereof; (c) the arrangement and guarding of machinery and the keeping of property and articles in factories, factory buildings and mercantile establishments; (d) the places where and the methods and operations by which trades and occupations may be conducted and the conduct of employers, employes, and other persons in and about the factories, factory buildings and mercantile establishments."



# THE FIRE BILLS. BY H. F. J. PORTER, FORMERLY FIRE EXPERT FACTORY INVESTIGATING COMMISSION.

TWENTY-SEVEN LIVES were lost on November 26, 1910, in the Highland avenue fire in Newark, N. J. Knowing of the campaign which I had been carrying on for some years to secure legislation to better the construction of factory buildings, and for tests of facilities for emergency egress from them, you asked me to report to you upon that fire and compare conditions as I found them there with those existing in New York factory buildings. I reported that there were many hundreds of buildings in this city where such a disaster, or even a worse one, could occur at any time, and I designated the loft buildings.<sup>1</sup>

On March 25, 1911, the Asch building fire occurred, where 142 lives were lost, and the press of the next day printed my letter of earlier date to the Triangle Waist Company, which was burned out, telling them of their dangerous conditions and advising them to put in an exit drill.

At the next monthly meeting of the Fifth Avenue Association I spoke of the danger existing in the loft buildings in its district, and at a Sunday evening meeting of the People's Forum in the Church of the Ascension I gave a lantern slide talk, showing the abnormal conditions existing in these buildings. A few days afterward I was able to bring together a group of men from these two associations. Under the leadership of Joseph S. Auerbach, the eminent attorney, they secured the co-operation of the Committee on Safety which had been formed at the mass meeting called just after the Asch building fire. They also went to Albany to ask for the appointment of a commission to draft legislation to change the conditions I had depicted.

A hearing was granted by the governor in the executive chamber. Among those who attended and addressed this meeting were the Rev. Percy S. Grant, rector of the Church of the Ascension; Robert Grier Cooke, president Fifth Avenue Association; C. Grant La Farge, president New York Chapter American Institute of Architects; Arnold W. Brunner, architect and chairman of the McAneny City Planning Commission; William M. Kendall, member of the firm of McKim, Mead & White, architects; George T. Mortimer, vice-president United States Realty Company; Reginald Pelham Bolton, consulting engineer, expert in loft building construction; Peter J. Brady, vice-president United Printing Trades Council; Charles H. Keyes, executive secretary Committee on Safety.

In Mr. Auerbach's address to the governor he said:

"Of course, you do not need to be reminded, any more than the others in this room, of the appalling disaster from fire that recently took place in the city of New York, where the alternative, and the only alternative, to the people who were entrapped in the burning building was either to jump to their death or to be burned

to death. I do not need to characterize, as the Grand Jury has characterized, the kind of negligence responsible for that disaster.

"I think, however, it would probably be news to you, as it was to me when I was invited to take part in the present movement, to know that today, while we are talking about the matter at this hearing, scores of thousands—and I speak well within the figure—that scores of thousands of operatives are exposed to similar peril. Not only that, but while we are here, foundations are being laid, and structural iron and brick and stone put into place for new buildings where such intolerable conditions will be reproduced and multiplied. . . .

"I hope you will permit me to add a word in conclusion, your excellency. I should like you to know what Mr. Porter, the prominent industrial engineer, has authorized me to say to you, and he will be very glad to answer any questions you may ask him upon the subject, that by the inauguration of no kind of fire drills with which he is peculiarly familiar, however efficient they might be, would it be possible in case of fire to empty the operatives out of these buildings now existing and those which are being constructed. So that there are no means, outside of comprehensive legislation, that can remove the peril to operatives and to the community."

Shortly after this hearing the Factory Investigating Commission came into existence. It worked for six months and put in a preliminary report, which was followed by a series of bills for proposed legislative enactment. Some of these bills were vetoed on account of inherent defects, and those that were passed amounted to practically nothing. The term of the commission was extended for another year, and the thirty-two bills now before the legislature, and which you have asked me to criticize, are the result of its year and a half of work. Only five of these bills pertain to the fire hazard situation; all the rest are concerned with the improvement of sanitary conditions in factories and the conditions of wages and hours under which men, women and children work.

During the almost two years since the Asch building fire, conditions have remained exactly as Mr. Auerbach depicted them at the time of his address, nor will the recommendations in the legislation proposed by the commission in the five bills above referred to affect this condition materially. In other words, the commission has failed to fulfil the chief object of its creation.

The loft factory and other crowded conditions are abnormal. Measures are required to cure these conditions and to prevent their future recurrence. A law should be drafted requiring architects and builders to design buildings so that they may be emptied within a reasonable time, say three minutes. Before being accepted by the proper authorities the law should require these buildings to pass an emergency exit test and should provide for periodical exit tests to insure the maintenance of safe conditions.<sup>2</sup>

I do not wish to withhold from the commission

<sup>1</sup>See Warding off the Factory Fire Panic, THE SURVEY, January 7, 1911.

<sup>2</sup>See Fire Wall an Essential, THE SURVEY, July 15, 1911.



any meed of praise for the work which it has done in co-ordinating the forces which for many years have been urging reforms in sanitation and in the working conditions of men, women and children in the factories of the state. It has marshalled these forces and drafted legislation recommended by them which will undoubtedly be of tremendous value to the working people of the state at large. The work for which the Fifth Avenue Association and Committee on Safety went to Albany to have accomplished has scarcely been touched, however, and I feel that it is due to the people of the state that the special work for which this commission was created should be performed, otherwise there is imminent danger of another factory fire or a department store holocaust which will put all past horrors in the shade. There is still time for the commission to draft such a measure as I have outlined. It should not take many days for a group of experts such as the commission can readily secure to frame a comprehensive bill.

If the commission will not do this then that special work should be taken from its hands and placed in those of another commission, with specific instructions that the problems which Mr. Auerbach so graphically depicted shall be solved for all time for the protection of the lives of the thousands of operatives and the public who have been and are still in jeopardy.

## ORGANIZING FOR EFFICIENCY. BY JOHN R. SHILLADY, BUFFALO TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION.

THE NEW YORK state factory bills, as a whole, make one "sit up and take notice." Social workers may well be enthusiastic in commendation of the work of the commission. The so-called organization bill is certainly the most effective piece of bill drafting affecting the Labor Department that we have yet seen in this state. The machinery is high grade and has "punch." In the first place the salaries are reasonable and adequate, and ought to appeal to socially minded and intelligent workers who wish to serve the state and its thousands of working people.

Significant is the increase in the number of factory inspectors from not more than 125 to not less than 125 and the change in minimum salaries to \$1,200 for the first grade up to \$3,500 for the seventh grade. Factory inspection has for too long in this country been merely a "job." Now there seems to be provided an opening for a career in this field.

The reorganization bills are notable in that they do not deal in glittering generalities but provide effective methods for carrying out the intent of the labor law. Dividing the state into two districts, with a deputy commissioner of labor designated as inspector general, provides a working area that can be advantageously handled.

The four bureaus provided for follow lines similar to those now in vogue—inspection, statistics and information, mediation and arbitration, and industries and immigration. An im-

portant division of the bureau of statistics and information is that of industrial accidents and diseases specifically provided for and not left to be looked after incidentally by a division already overburdened with detail.

The division of industrial hygiene is a distinct advance step and will receive the cordial approval of all readers of THE SURVEY. This division has the power to make special inspections of factories and other places of employment and to investigate industrial processes and conditions. One very important function of the division is that it shall propose rules and regulations and standards to the industrial board as provided for in another section of the bills. One great trouble with our present factory inspection system is that we have heretofore had no standards of sanitation, ventilation, lighting and safety which were recognized either by employers, employees, or factory inspectors. All social workers will look forward with great expectancy to the work of this bureau. One great possibility for this division is its educational campaign, through leaflets, bulletins and special printed matter affecting health and safety.

The first three grades of inspectors designated in the reorganization bill are allowed salaries of \$1,200, \$1,500 and \$1,800, respectively. These may be called factory inspectors *per se*. The inspectors of the fourth grade, with salaries of \$2,000, are investigators. Inspectors of the fifth grade, of whom one shall be able to speak five European languages in addition to English, are to act as supervising inspectors at a salary of \$2,500. Of these there shall not be more than nine. The inspectors of the sixth grade (of whom there shall not be less than three duly licensed physicians, one a woman), at \$2,500 salaries, are to be medical inspectors in the division of industrial hygiene. In addition to inspecting mercantile establishments and factories, the bills provide that they shall have charge of the physical examination and medical supervision of all children. It is to be regretted that the Factory Commission did not use the word "minor." I take it that "children" means persons sixteen years old and under. In many occupations medical social workers recognize grave dangers to the adolescent youth. Medical inspection of those over sixteen and under twenty-one would prevent many being thrown early in life on the human scrap heap.

Bill No. 28, in relation to dangerous trades, gives the industrial board power of requiring medical inspection of persons of all ages employed in any industry which, as a result of an investigation, shall have been found to be dangerous.

Inspectors of the seventh grade, of whom there shall be not less than four, at salaries of \$3,500, constitute the division of industrial hygiene. One, a physician, shall be designated the director, and receive \$500 additional compensation. Seventh-grade inspectors must include one physician, one chemical engineer, one mechanical engineer, and one expert in ventilation and accident prevention, a civil engineer, and an



expert in fire prevention and building construction.

The organization bill wisely provides for the assigning and transferring of factory inspectors from one district to another. This will permit the department to throw an effective working force into any community or to concentrate its force on any point for effective and prompt action.

The new division of home-work inspection will remove from our state the disgrace of the exploitation and degradation of workers that has been exposed by consumers' leagues, child labor committees, and *THE SURVEY*.

One provision of the bills that may be opposed is that allowing special counsel to advise with the labor commission and take charge of prosecutions. In factory matters I am convinced that the department should handle its own prosecutions to avoid delay and for effective work.

## THE FIRE BILLS. BY FRANCES PERKINS, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, NEW YORK COMMITTEE ON SAFETY.

FIVE OF THE BILLS recommended for passage by the New York State Factory Investigating Commission deal with the problem of preventing fire in factories and protecting human life against fire. These five bills come from the commission as an answer to the question which was put by the horrified people of New York after the Asch building fire—"What can we do to prevent the recurrence of such a disaster and what can we do to protect from fire the lives of the workers in our factories?"

Two important principles are embodied in the bills: (1) That every possible precaution should be taken to prevent fire in factories; (2) That every person in a factory building should have adequate opportunity to escape to a place of safety in case of fire. Carrying out the first of these principles, the commission recommends certain obvious preventive measures such as the storing of inflammable waste in fireproof receptacles; the guarding of all gas jets; the prohibition of smoking; the enclosure in fireproof material of vertical openings between floors, and the installation of automatic sprinklers in buildings over seven stories in height.

Recognizing that, in spite of all measures for prevention, a fire or other disaster may make necessary the sudden escape of every person in a factory building to a place of safety, the commission recommends three specific methods of making this escape possible and of preventing loss of life in such emergencies:

1. That the number of persons who may occupy any factory or floor thereof shall be limited to such a number as can safely escape from the building by means of the exits provided. The rule for determining such number is specifically stated and we have here proposed a new and most important principle of building construction; namely, that the number of exits in a building should not depend upon the area or the height of the structure but upon the number of persons

who must use the exits. In new buildings, exit facilities will be provided by architects and builders for all the people who are to be employed therein; in existing buildings the effect of this regulation will be either to reduce the number of persons who can be employed to such a number as can escape by the present exit facilities or to force the provision of additional means of egress.

2. That the means of exit from all factory buildings shall be so safeguarded as to assure to the persons who, because of the existence of this means of exit, are allowed to be employed in the factory complete safety from fire during their passage from the building. This is largely a matter of building construction and consequently Bill No. 10 reads like a building code. It requires fireproof enclosure of stairways; provides for the proper construction, opening and size of doorways connecting with such stairways and with the street; requires in new buildings that the means of egress shall be of the best type, that is, either interior enclosed fireproof stairways, or smokeproof towers, or horizontal exits; prohibits the future building of winding stairways as means of egress; requires the proper safeguarding of fire escapes when allowed on existing buildings by the industrial board as a means of exit; requires that all rear stairways and exterior means of egress shall have direct connection with the street and shall no longer be allowed to empty into enclosed courts; provides that all factory buildings have at least two means of egress remote from each other; and requires the maintenance of free and unobstructed access to all means of egress and the plain marking of all such exits.

3. To prevent the loss of life which often ensues because panic-stricken people do not make the most effective use of the exit facilities provided, the commission recommends the installation in all factory buildings of fire alarm signal systems and fire drills, which shall be so arranged as to conduct all the occupants of a building to a place of safety and in which all the occupants shall participate simultaneously.

These fire bills submitted to the legislature by the commission present the skeleton of a complete program of fire prevention and fire protection for factory workers. The whole subject of fire prevention is in its infancy and no one recognizes more clearly than do the members of the commission that the specific regulations embodied in these bills may not in all cases provide adequate safety against special dangers. Realizing this and also the fact that from year to year and even from month to month new and improved methods of fire protection may be suggested by experts, the commission wisely recommends that the Industrial Board of the Department of Labor be given power to make special regulations to cover special cases and to make additional regulations for safeguarding the lives of the workers against fire.

The outline for this program of fire prevention and protection is so intelligent and the specific provisions recommended are so essential that



these bills merit the support of all thinking citizens who hope to see in the future as a part of our labor law a complete and adequate program of fire protection.

## CANNERY REGULATIONS. BY ZENAS L. POTTER, DEPARTMENT OF SURVEYS, RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION.

THE NEW YORK STATE Factory Investigating Commission's bills applying to the canneries, if passed and as law enforced, should effectively remedy every bad condition existing in the canning industry of the state, save only that of low wages. They would successfully terminate the ten years' fight for reasonable regulation of labor conditions in the canneries of the state.

The first bill is designed to abolish child labor. The state law prohibits the employment of children under fourteen years of age "in or in connection with any factory," but a former attorney-general held that work in canning factory "sheds," where fruits and vegetables are prepared, was neither work "in or in connection with any factory." The result has been that in many canneries grave abuses have been perpetrated and children from four to fourteen years of age have been frequently employed for very long hours. The bill is designed to prevent this exploitation. Objection has been raised to the form in which the bill was originally drawn, and it has been accordingly amended. It is a bill, however, with whose intent no good citizen can disagree. It is noteworthy in this regard that more than half the canners of the state have, without duress of law, already abolished child labor in their factories, and many of them will welcome its elimination from the industry. The passage of this bill will be a triumph for justice and progress.

The second bill regulates the hours of women's work. Last year, as a sacrifice to secure the passage of the fifty-four-hour law, the canneries were left entirely exempt from restriction of women's hours. The cannery investigation last summer revealed the fact that during the rush weeks last summer women worked in some factories as much as 110 and even 119¾ hours in a week. It also revealed the fact that in other canneries much more reasonable hours prevailed. The bill is designed to protect the vitality of women by establishing a standard of competition which will force all canneries to observe reasonable hours.

Heretofore, American legislatures have either placed canneries in the same class as other industries or have totally exempted them from the law fixing women's hours. The Factory Commission bill does neither. It recognizes the fact that in the canning industry periods of rush are followed by slack periods, so that the maximum hours per week worked in any factory are reached only in scattered weeks throughout the season. On the other hand it recognizes that women in the canneries are just as perishable as crops and more important, and limits the maximum number of hours they may work to

sixty per week from June 15 to October 15, and sixty-six per week from June 25 to August 5. It further wisely provides that to work women over sixty hours a factory must secure a permit from the industrial board of the reorganized Labor Department. This will give the board the power to require that any factory working women over sixty hours per week shall maintain the best of working conditions. Nearly all these features are taken from the English law.

The bill, in the opinion of the writer, protects the vitality of women workers and meets the peculiar conditions of the canning industry. It is not drafted in support of the principles of labor legislation regardless of the facts, but to support those principles intelligently applied to the facts; it also proves the value of just such investigations as the Factory Commission has conducted.

The third bill makes it illegal to falsify factory time books. One canner's books showed women working sixty hours in a week who actually worked, upon the confession of the employer under oath, 119¾ hours. This bill can have no opposition.

The cannery investigation showed that many of the labor camps connected with the canneries provide no proper sanitary conveniences, insufficient privacy for families, and that they are kept in a filthy condition. The fourth bill gives the Labor Department power to require proper sanitary conditions in all factory labor camps. It is a reasonable extension of the Labor Department's authority and can hardly meet objection.

If the Factory Commission can secure the enactment of these bills alone, its existence will be fully justified.

## DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE, LILLIAN D. WALD, NURSES' SETTLEMENT.

THE ESTABLISHMENT of a department of industrial hygiene is perhaps the most interesting proposal in the budget of bills presented to the legislature by the Factory Commission. The appointment of a board of scientific experts to investigate conditions, with a view to the creation of higher standards of sanitation, ventilation and safety, and with authority to make definite proposals for attaining these standards, is socially important. It promises the substitution of constructive suggestions for the merely negative police work, which, hitherto, has been largely the function of the Department of Labor. It is a provision which should, on this account, be welcomed by the community, and particularly by the manufacturer.

The average employer of labor does not wilfully create bad conditions in his factory. He, as well as the general public, is often ignorant of the fact that they are bad, not because he is indifferent, but because frequently the evil that exists and the effect of it upon the workingman can be discovered only by experts. Even when the evil is more obvious and is reported by the ordinary inspector, the employer is often uncon-



vinced or genuinely at a loss as to how to remedy it. The advantage in having a body of experts to investigate conditions with authority, not only to report the evil, but to suggest immediate and practical steps for correcting it, is obvious. It is a reversal of the relationship of the state to the employer as well as to the employe, placing upon the state the responsibility for improvement of its labor conditions.

We can hope that with the creation of this bureau, new industries will be investigated as they develop, and regulated before they reach such proportions as make regulation more difficult. The program of the proposed legislation requires expert knowledge, and can not be carried out by inspectors who have not had scientific, technical training.

The section of medical inspection in this division, with a staff of three doctors and a medical director, gives promise of excellent and much-needed work in the continuous investigations of occupational diseases and the effects of different occupations on the health of employes, and will ensure the medical supervision of children at work. It is a step toward intelligent, scientific supervision of industrial conditions.

## SAFEGUARDING WORKERS. BY STEPHEN S. WISE, RABBI OF THE FREE SYNAGOGUE, NEW YORK.

THE REPORT of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission is a telling document and sets a standard for future state commissions. The well-balanced group comprising the commission have been greatly furthered in the work by the co-operation within their ranks of their counsel, Abram I. Elkus, and his aide, Mr. Shientag, and the co-operation without of a goodly number of effective social workers.

For one thing, the commission has clearly aimed to elicit the facts; it has honestly sought to set them down; and, finally, it has dared to draw inferences, unlike Leslie Stephen's friend who said that he saw no reason for adding two and two as long as they persisted in making four when added.

The spirit and the purpose, alike, of the commission are set forth in the concluding words of the summary of the contents: "Whether this be true or not, we believe that human life is sacred and must be placed above monetary considerations. The broad aim of government is the happiness and well-being of the governed. No government is properly performing its function when it permits the working people within its bounds to be employed under unsanitary conditions, when it fails to protect them from preventable disease and accident, when it permits the premature employment of its young children, and the excessive toil of its women. Short-sighted, indeed, is the policy of any state that permits the waste of its human assets."

The most significant feature of the report is to be found in those recommendations which bear upon the labor law and its administration. Here, in the judgment of the commission, as

embodied in the legislation proposed by it, there is to be no tinkering, but a fundamental attempt to re-create the entire Department of Labor. The report puts the question concisely. The Department of Labor should be one of the great departments of the state. A great department it has not been. A great department it may become, and more effective it is almost sure to become if the recommendations of the commission be carried out with respect to reorganization and the creation of an industrial board. This board, I take it, is designed to lift up the entire Department of Labor above the low level of mere law enforcement. In other words, it is to investigate, it is to recommend, it is to initiate, it is to prescribe. The department, as the result of the co-operation of an industrial board—assuming of course that the industrial board will be properly manned—is to take its place as one of the important and significant bureaus of the state government, charged with important duties and dowered with wide powers.

The question of tenement manufacture is vigorously handled. The commission frankly acknowledges the intolerable evils of the system, declaring that manufacturing in tenement houses is a serious evil, that it is, in fact, a blot on our industrial system. The commission virtually assumes that regulation of tenement manufacturing is impossible, and that what it calls necessary control over unsanitary and unhealthful conditions of work in tenement houses cannot be secured by inspection and supervision. None the less, it is ready to tolerate the continuance of tenement work under conditions which, in its judgment, would make for more careful inspection and for the abatement of the most obvious evils of the system. The commission hopes, too, that the industrial board may abate some of the gravest of the evils of tenement work, but it significantly concludes, "It is probable, however, that in the future more radical action will be necessary." Why the commission, quoting it literally, did not feel justified in recommending that the whole system be rooted out at once, it is difficult to understand. Why put off for two or three years the attempt to grapple with the evil of tenement work, since it is virtually admitted in advance that nothing less than elimination will avail. There are some industrial evils which no measure of regulation or inspection will suffice to remedy. Of all such evils, tenement work is the most serious in its hurtful effects upon the body politic.

The fourth section of the report, bearing on the canneries, gives us some of the most vigorous passages in the entire document. The evil results of exemption from the provisions of the factory law with regard to the work of women are clearly shown. The commission rightly names the canning industry an entirely unregulated one—since, as the commission puts it, the exemption was directly opposed to the best interests of the state and was granted because of misapprehension of the true conditions in the industry. It is regrettable to find that the commission yet urges that it would be unfair and



unreasonable to the workers to apply the fifty-four hour law to the canneries during the busy season. The injury which it is fancied would result from the application of the fifty-four hour law to canneries would not compare in gravity with the injury which would continue to result from the exemption, legally partial, but almost certain to become wide-open and unregulated. We do not believe that the hours of labor of women during the canning season—for four months in the year—should be permitted to be sixty hours per week.

The most significant recommendation of the commission with regard to child labor is that which would empower the industrial board to cancel work certificates in the case of children who are physically unfitted to remain at work, and the further recommendation which would look to the measurably accurate standardizing of educational requirements in the case of child workers.

The commission expresses itself most vigorously and directly in recommending that night work of women in factories and workshops of the city be at once prohibited, and rightly holding that such work is unnecessary from an economic point of view and indefensible from the standpoint of public welfare, for it is dangerous to health, inimical to good morals and destructive of the vitality of women as wives and mothers. The commission touches the crux of the situation in its insistence that in order that the enforcement of the inhibition of night work by women may be made possible, there must be legal closing and opening hours and that unless definite hours are set, before and after which work is illegal, it becomes almost impossible completely to prevent the evil of night work.

Perhaps no section of the report is more significant than that which deals with the employment of women and children in mercantile establishments. The findings with respect to hours of work and wages are indeed woeful. It seems incredible that there should be no limitation whatever upon the hours of work of women over twenty-one, and that New York, as the commission expresses it, alone of all the large industrial states, fails to protect adult women employed in stores. The distinction as to wages and hours of work with respect to employment in stores and shops imposes a grievous burden upon a multitude of women workers in the state. It rests upon the wrong assumption that work in stores is easy as compared with factory work, and the evil has been perpetuated up to this time as a result of the persistence of a well-organized and too powerful department-store lobby.

It now rests with the legislature to embody the recommendations of the commission into law, and there should be no mutilating of the proposed bills. The commission admittedly asks for a minimum of legislation and its minimum proposals cannot be modified without being mutilated and rendered virtually valueless. The legislature of New York faces a great task and, irrespective of partisan sympathies, it may be wished that to this task the legislature may

prove itself equal to the end that the Empire State may be imperial not only in its wealth and power but first among the states of the Union in its care for the workers, in its safeguarding of the rights of the men and women employed in its industries.

## HOME WORK, BY PAULINE GOLD-MARK, SECRETARY NEW YORK CONSUMERS LEAGUE.

IN RECOMMENDING the abolition of certain forms of Tenement House Work. The Factory Commission has taken a step of far-reaching significance. For twenty-eight years, since the Court of Appeals in the Jacobs case in 1885 declared unconstitutional the law prohibiting the manufacture of cigars in tenement houses, no attempt has been made to prohibit home work in the tenements, though the evils have been widely known and condemned.

Now at last in the home work bill, together with the investigation and report upon which it is based, the commission has fairly faced the issue. It has performed a service of such signal value that this alone would insure lasting recognition of the high quality of the commission's work. Its recent investigations have clearly revealed that home work is an unmitigated evil: that it is carried on in unclean and unsanitary surroundings; in homes where there is disease, and that because the work of young children is permitted, it nullifies the child labor and compulsory education laws. These reasons clearly justify the sweeping prohibition of the work of children under fourteen years of age.

Surely no one who reads the forty odd pages of the commission's report devoted to the discussion of home work can have any reasonable doubt that the proposed measures are needed on grounds of health. The arguments are marshalled with convincing clearness.

The recommendations include the immediate prohibition of the manufacture of food products since they are more "liable to contamination than any others and their preparation under entirely sanitary and hygienic conditions is a matter absolutely necessary to the public health."

Besides proposing to remove food preparation from the tenements, the commission has opened up a new method of attack upon home work, so long entrenched behind the Jacobs decision. On grounds of health, the commission would prohibit the manufacture in tenements of all articles to be worn and of certain toys handled by children on the express ground that children are more susceptible than adults to contagious diseases liable to be transmitted by these articles. "It is intolerable," says the report of the commission in no uncertain terms, "that the manufacture of garments and other articles to be worn by them, or which they play with, should be permitted under circumstances that may tend to spread disease." The articles to be prohibited include children's and infants' wearing apparel of all kinds, and dolls and dolls' clothing.

The classification of prohibited articles, the



commission argues, is "reasonable and one that may, under the decisions, properly be made by the legislature." The decision in the Jacobs case need not be held as authority to the contrary. For the decision in that case was based on the assumption that the act was not a health measure, and that it was not enacted in the interests of public health. But if the public health is shown to be involved in the manufacture of the newly prohibited articles the reasoning in the Jacobs case falls to the ground.

If, then, the proposed bill passes, an entering wedge will be driven home: Certain forms of tenement work, clearly detrimental to health, will at last be legally abolished with good reason to expect the concurrence of the courts.

The commission goes even further in its findings, and points to the possibility of further action, which in the opinion of many experts, is the ultimate solution of this complex problem—namely, the total prohibition of home work in the tenements. With the frank acceptance of facts which it has shown throughout, the commission concludes with the clear-sighted statement: "If the necessary control over unsanitary and unhealthy conditions of work cannot be secured by inspection and supervision, then all manufacturing in tenement houses should be prohibited in the interest of the home workers, of the dwellers in tenement houses and of the public at large."

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## COMMUNICATIONS

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### THE WIDOWS' PENSION CONTROVERSY

TO THE EDITOR:

Mr. Carstens' report on widows' pensions, if we are to judge by that part of it which appeared in *THE SURVEY* of January 4, shows a painstaking study and fair-minded presentation of facts. But can it be said that his conclusions are fairly drawn from these facts?

That the Illinois law does not provide for adequate administration is evident; it is also evident that such success as it has had is due first to Judge Pinckney and second to the group of volunteers who constitute the case committee. Mr. Carstens also makes it plain that neither the probation officers nor the county agents were fitted to their task; but none of these drawbacks is inherent in the principle of widows' pensions. What evidence do we find then, in the facts so clearly set forth, of the inherent dangers feared by opponents of this principle?

We find that of the 100 cases studied, in 72 the school attendance was satisfactory; in 86 the mother was with her children a reasonable amount of time; in 74 there was no evidence of undue dependence in the attitude of mothers and children; in 81 the standards of the family are such that the home should be maintained for both mother and children; in 58 improvements are noted over the care that the family had previous to the pension period. We find that "in

a large majority of the cases visited there was no evidence of wanton recklessness, extravagance or foolishness in the expenditures," and that "there are many in the total number who have a large measure of family life and whose care of the children is most excellent."

Do not these results compare well with the records of most private relief agencies, especially when it is borne in mind that the administration of the pension has not been safeguarded by a carefully chosen group of agents, but has been in the hands of "a corps of visitors who are largely unfit for such serious responsibilities?"

Of this last fact Mr. Carstens gives us evidence in his statement that in 64 of the cases the investigation was not satisfactory; in 89 the supervision was not sufficient to affect the family in the health, training and diet of the children, and that "in only 7 instances did there seem to be any looking ahead on the part of the probation officer or family to a period of self-support or to a better plan for the family life; while 88 families seemed to be living on without the development of any plan for the future."

An unfit body of administrators is not an argument against the principle involved in the question. When the placing-out plan for the care of dependent children was under discussion a generation ago its opponents might have found many instances of placing-out work in the hands of untrustworthy town and county officials; but who today would go back to institutional care for our state minor wards in Massachusetts?

There are two other facts which Mr. Carstens' table brings out. One is that in 34 instances "the application was due to the existence of a pension plan from public funds;" the other, that in 51 instances "the church, relatives, employers or private societies have become less interested or ceased their interest altogether since the pension began."

The first of these facts seems to show that there is a class of the needy whose self-respect will not permit them to apply for private charity, but who are willing to accept help from the state in the form of such a pension. Is this class rightly called a "newly-created group of dependents?" Is it not rather a newly-created group of employes of the state? It would be interesting to inquire further into this group of 34 families, to find out what, without the existence of the pension plan, their plan of life would have been. Would these mothers have gone out to work by the day, leaving the children to shift for themselves until such time as the usual percentage of them drifted into the Juvenile Court or the Children's Society, and the homes were then broken up not for "reasons of poverty" but because of the waywardness or delinquency of the children?

As to the lessening interest, in 51 instances, on the part of church, relatives, employers and private societies, the statement is too inclusive to be significant. A lessening interest on the part of private societies would indicate that the pension was doing its work adequately. A lessening interest on the part of church, relatives and employers might indicate the same thing and might



be accompanied by a growth in a finer relationship. May not a consciousness of indebtedness to church, relatives and employes be a more demoralizing influence on the widow than a consciousness of temporary indebtedness to the state, which is to be paid off by the proper upbringing of her children as its citizens?

Mr. Carstens speaks of "the payment of a lump sum from the public treasury as a substitute for family and neighborhood responsibility." Is not the principle of widows' pensions rather an extension of neighborhood responsibility than a substitute for it? In the present vast and intricate plan of society is not the real responsibility with the state rather than with the neighborhood?

Yesterday a man died of tuberculosis in a crowded tenement. Does the responsibility for his children lie with his brother, who lives next door and who is struggling against the same conditions, or does it lie with all of us who constitute the state and who permit these conditions to go on?

When we seek for a rigid enforcement of responsibilities let us first of all find where the responsibilities rest. Let us reflect whether a rigid enforcement of responsibility, where the responsibility is not real, may not do more to undo the ties of kinship than the dreaded state pension.

Let us go ahead with measures that look toward the prevention of accident, disease and death; let us have compensation for occupational diseases as well as accidents; let us have a plan of social insurance, but let us make sure that it is not simply a plan of chaining the burden to the back too weak to hold it; let us find where the responsibility lies and then let us rigidly enforce it; but even so will there not still be premature deaths for which no one person or group of persons is responsible? Is not then the state responsible, and is it not a responsibility which calls for "rigid and intelligent enforcement?" Such enforcement should produce a tie, a sense of reciprocal responsibility between the family and the state which ought to result in a constantly improving citizenship.

Let us read Mr. Carstens' conclusions in the light of his figures; let us not read his figures in the gloom of his conclusions.

M. L. HALE.

Boston.

#### TO THE EDITOR:

I have read the above letter with much interest. The writer has voiced the sentiment of a considerable number of people in each one of our communities, and I have no doubt that we shall all benefit from a frank discussion of our differences.

In a few particulars the writer has clearly drawn a different conclusion from my own. For instance, the letter is inclined to interpret the fact that in thirty-four instances where the application was due to the existence of a pension plan from public funds as an indication that the mothers in these instances would have continued to go out to work and to leave the children to shift for

themselves until they drifted into the Juvenile Court or the Children's Society, when the homes would have been broken up, not for "reasons of poverty" but "because of waywardness or delinquency." A considerable number of these thirty-four, however, were aided, without apparent objection, by relatives or friends, employers or others until the public pension was brought to the attention of that family and its friends, who thereupon seemed to have become less charitable because of its existence. It does not follow therefore that all of these children would have starved without the pension fund, or that the mothers would have neglected their children or have been deprived of them.

I wonder also whether the writer, in comparing the home conditions of the one hundred families visited with those of the average families of private relief agencies, has kept in mind that both the case committee and the court had very carefully selected a group of pensionable widows, and that these were not the average beneficiaries who had applied to the court for help or to be compared with any hundred relief cases under the care of a society. The results in this specially selected group were under discussion, and most of them had been under the supervision of probation officers so short a time as to show neither good nor bad results.

I fear, however, that the principal reason that the writer and I have reached a different conclusion is because we have started with a different major premise. If we start with the assumption that the state has married the parents and therefore endows them and their offspring, we may very well argue from the standpoint of making the mother, by the fact of her motherhood, an "employee of the state." But if so, why are not the fathers also such employees, and the children, at least, potential employees? This also raises the question whether motherhood may reasonably be thought of as endowed when the offspring in so many cases is either illegitimate, misshapen, undernourished or diseased, a constant care and menace, or an expense to the state rather than an asset or a blessing.

If, on the other hand, we expect the state to protect the life of its members, to train them for good citizenship, to help them make the most of themselves, to stimulate initiative and responsibility and not to deaden them, and to work in behalf of its members always only so far as it is for its own protection and best interests, we are apt to reach a different conclusion.

But whether we assume that every widow by the fact of her widowhood, or only those who cannot be taken care of in other natural and reasonable ways, are eligible, the granting of pensions to mothers with dependent children from public funds has some inherent difficulties. A pension from public funds will be more readily sought, more easily granted, and less easily stopped when the time of need has passed than if it comes from private sources.

These difficulties, serious as they are, are, however, not insurmountable. But when by law it is recognized that widows are a group that re-



quire special legislation, to be placed in the care of a special department of government or special commission, then the widows of our communities become a special dependent class whose demands the public authorities will oppose with increasing difficulty and hesitation and whom politicians will use for their own purposes as was done in the recent election in Chicago.

C. C. CARSTENS.

[Secretary and General Agent Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.]  
Boston.

## MUSCATINE

### TO THE EDITOR:

It is alleged in editorial comments appended to my communication in your issue of November 30 that my means of obtaining information did not qualify me to speak as I did of conditions in Muscatine, Iowa. This I emphatically deny, and had I opportunity I could point out to your informant, whoever he may be, where he is in error in each particular given by him. It is also assumed in your editorial that I made criticism of a report submitted by a committee of THE SURVEY and approved by it. I made no reference whatever to such report but confined myself to statements made by Mr. Ward and Mr. Batten, separately, in your issue of June 1.

On only one point does your editorial note take issue with statements made by me, and that is wherein you say "the courts have not sustained Mr. Mahin's contention concerning acts of strikers," etc. No honorable person acquainted with the facts will deny that there were acts of violence. This fact does not depend on my statement. A similar statement signed by the ministerial association of Muscatine before I wrote to you on the subject was published in a Chicago paper in refutation of misrepresentations by H. F. Ward. Besides, the court in Muscatine sent a man to the penitentiary for malicious mischief on the premises of a non-union worker and would have punished others on similar charges had they not absconded. Just before writing my communication to you I spent nearly a week in Muscatine. I mention this to show that I was not lacking in opportunity to obtain correct information as to the matters referred to.

But you give as the first and therefore presumably the chief reason why my testimony should be discredited that I am "a man of advanced age." This is a broad charge, as it includes all men of advanced age. It will strike many as a queer discovery. It sets at naught Longfellow's soothing saying that "age is opportunity not less than youth" and also the familiar adage which speaks of "old men for counsel and young men for war." When he

who penned this uncalled-for insult to me shall have become "a man of advanced age," I am sure that neither one of my two noble sons will be so lacking in common courtesy and sense of justice (saying nothing of respect due to the aged) to seek to reproach him on account of it, or use it as a reason why his testimony should be discarded or his opinion derided.

JOHN MAHIN.

Evanston, Ill.

[There is one point in Mr. Mahin's letter in which THE SURVEY note was clearly in error; namely, his week's visit to Muscatine. But for the rest, the reader is referred to the report of the special investigating committee of the Commission on Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America.

Mr. Mahin inadvertently refers to this body as a "Committee of THE SURVEY," and he, of course, wholly misconstrues the reference to his advanced age in our editorial note. The point was offered as a partial explanation of the break between the conclusions of this old-time resident of Muscatine and those of the committee of inquiry.—Ed.]

## THE AIM AND THE NAME

### TO THE EDITOR:

Anent Dr. Patten's letter of January 3—Is it not well within the possibilities that the time of the two-thirds who are convinced has come?

How is it possible to tell without banding for a trial at coercing that other third?

And shall we quibble over a name for this new consciousness, this bigness in men's hearts, this swelling hurt which portends the agony and exaltation of birth—God send the birth of a universal conscience.

It is written that the great Teacher was called by many names, both true and false, and that some were afraid to follow by reason of this, but not till men were a long way from his spirit did divisions and schools arise.

It has, even within our own ken, been maintained, and hotly, that his teachings would lose their power to save and heal were his generation merely the stupendous marvel of creation by which we all enter into life, and even this contention made breach between brothers.

There is that before us to do, which gives a new and startling meaning to the constitutional right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. For this is the first time in the history of civilization when even the most unthinking men and women believe that not only has every man such a right but every woman also and that every child, born and unborn, has a further right to demand at our hands a chance for this life and happiness.

In the face of this demand is there time to speak of schools and divisions or to hint at the possibility of the making of schools and divisions. May we not leave this to the theologians?

Shall a man desert his captain in the heat of the march because the words of his mouth are displeasing to his refinement?

We are convinced that we have one goal. Why jostle and shoulder each other? It hinders.

DAVID CHURCHILL.

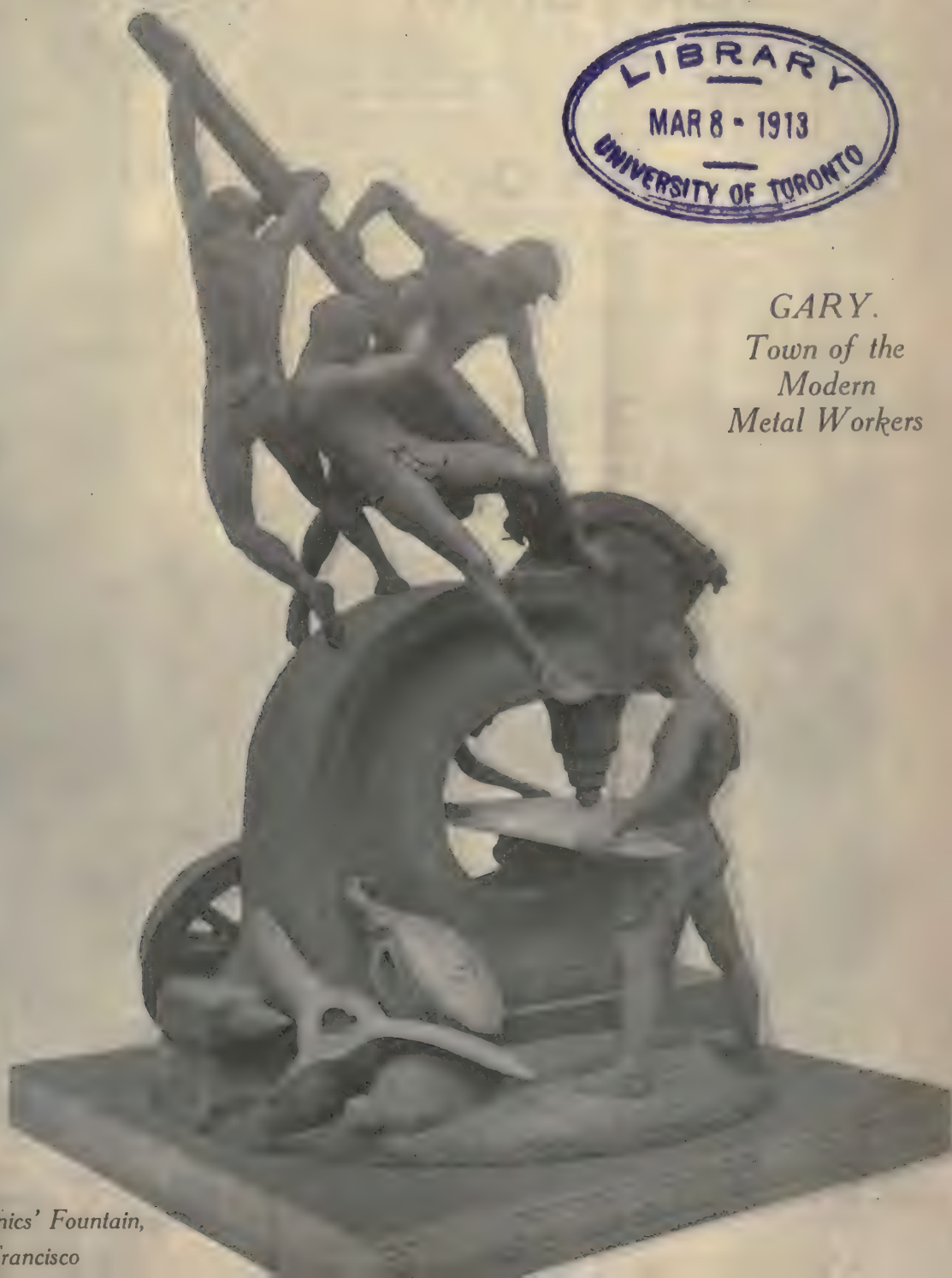
Northampton, Mass.



# THE SURVEY



GARY.  
*Town of the  
Modern  
Metal Workers*



*The Mechanics' Fountain,  
San Francisco*



# YELLOWSTONE FOR YOURS!



A dear old lady of sixty five was making her fifth trip through the Park last summer. Four times had she surrendered to the call of that phenomenal region. Her visits there have a marked effect upon her health and spirits—she grows young again! Many people have gone back to enjoy anew the climate, scenery, wonders and pastimes of

## America's Only Geyserland

*1913 Season: June 15 to September 15*

YOU should make the Yellowstone trip on the way to or from the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Seattle

**JULY 5-12, 1913**

Low fares and through sleeping cars direct to Park boundary at Gardiner Gateway—reached only by the Northern Pacific Railway.

Let me send you our illustrated literature about the Park and the trip to Seattle. "Route of the Great Big Baked Potato."

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*Vista from Mt. Washburn Road—  
The Pine Clad Summits and  
Beautiful Hayden Valley, Yellowstone Park*





# THE COMMON WELFARE

## CHICAGO'S ADIEU TO JANE ADDAMS

The head resident of Hull House sailed last week for a four months' trip to Egypt and Italy—the only respite from her incessant work which Miss Addams has taken in winter time for many a year. Her last fortnight at home was filled with daily addresses. Although she is to be absent only four months, every good cause and special occasion which could possibly lay claim to a last word from her did so, and they all got it.

A great outpouring of good fellowship occurred on Miss Addams' last evening in the city, when, at the call of the Progressive Club of Chicago, over 1,200 guests gathered at a farewell dinner which filled and overflowed the largest banquet halls of the Hotel La Salle.

When, by the removal of the tables, all were gathered together, story tellers, singers, cartoonists, legislators and settlement associates vied with each other in paying tribute. After George Fitch, John T. McCutcheon, Bert Leston Taylor, Mary E. McDowell and Richard Henry Little had done their best, Bainbridge Colby of New York the last speaker tried "to do them one better" by saying:

"At a gathering of Polish patriots held years ago, to voice their undying sense of nationality and defy their oppressors, one patriot proposed a toast in these words, 'Where liberty is, there is my country.' He was followed by a younger man of equal fervor but sounder philosophy, who proposed as his sentiment, 'Where liberty is not, there is my country.'

"The guest of honor, your distinguished fellow citizen, Miss Addams, has built her life upon this latter thought—where liberty is not, liberty of opportunity, equality of chance, of outlook, of promise, of circumstance, there has been her country.

"What an extraordinary mission in life is hers, and how wondrously her life has preached the sermon of the deed! Refusing to lull her conscience by a dreamer's scheme, unbeguiled by paper reforms, she set out early in life—and I use her words—'to make social intercourse express the growing sense of the economic unity of society and to add the social function to democracy.' Proceeding upon the sober theory that the dependence of classes upon each other is reciprocal, she determined to deal directly with the simplest human wants.

"It is Miss Addams who has finely said that 'a tumult of feeling is always produced by con-

tact with a conscience,' and I confess that in approaching the record of her life so steadily and serenely conscience-governed, I feel the tumult of which she speaks.

"Abounding in achievement as her life has been, I venture the assertion that the year just closed is the richest and most fruitful of her life thus far. This year she has sown broadcast the seeds of ripened purpose, of experience and deep reflection. She has scattered wide the accumulations of the past. To a waiting and famished people, who hungered and thirsted after righteousness, she has thrown the rich spoils of her life.

"She has espoused a party which seeks to make humanity an article of our national faith. She has built, she has sustained, she has inspired—she is a leader of that party. As such we hail her. We make our grateful acknowledgment of her services. We pledge our admiring respect."

The chairman interspersed the speeches with valentine verses. He also claimed to have received messages from the Khedive of Egypt, the King of Greece and Premier Asquith—somewhat timidly expressing greetings, but with strange unanimity telling Miss Addams not to stay too long and to stir up the women of their respective lands as little as possible.

With no trace of the manner of "the guest of honor," Miss Addams rose to strike one note of hope in bringing men and women together in the united effort to secure recognition for the human issues of industry, childhood, womanhood, and family in our political policies and legislative programs.

To the air *My Bonnie Lies Over the Ocean* everybody sang:

Jane Addams sails over the ocean,  
Jane Addams sails over the sea,  
We're glad she's to have a vacation,  
But bring back Jane Addams to me.

We'll lend her to Greece and to Egypt,  
Jerusalem, Athens and Rome,  
We'll lend her to Europe and Asia,  
So long as we get her back home.

The Peace Dove will perch on her shoulder,  
All Europe will dwell in accord,  
The Turks will go back to rug-making,  
The Balkans will put up the sword.





In the *Chicago Daily News* the day of her departure Graham Taylor paid this editorial tribute to his colleague and friend, under the title *In the Light of Lincoln's Life*:

"Today Jane Addams—Chicago's foremost citizen—leaves us for a well-earned respite abroad from her work with us all. Last evening as many of her friends as could crowd into two of the largest banquet halls in one of our greatest hotels vied with each other in bidding her Godspeed.

"But an even greater host of her fellow citizens, of every race and residence, in every condition and status, are whispering in their hearts, 'Good-by and God bless you.' No one could be more missed from Chicago than she. Every good cause, especially the hardest to promote, will lack something of strength and courage while she is gone. She has humanized, idealized, united, fraternalized, put to work and set forward so many of us. No one among us is so Lincoln-like in spirit. Perhaps it is because her father was Lincoln's personal friend—the Addams with the two D's—he called him. Like Lincoln, she is as all-human as she is all-American. America accounts for her, but humanity claims her. She is ours, yet belongs to every one else. Back to us may she come to work with us all more than ever. 'It was that word *with* from Jane Addams,' said a working woman, 'that took the bitterness out of my life. For if she wanted to work with me and I could work with her, it gave my life new meaning and hope.' The hope of democracy roots in that word '*with*.'"

#### ARIZONA'S PROGRAM FOR CHILD WELFARE

Youthful but ambitious Arizona, the newest and last of the continental states to be admitted into the Union, proudly asserts that she has already established an enviable record for social betterment legislation. The new commonwealth made an especial effort to put upon its statute books the best child labor law in the United States. At the same time Francis H. McLean, whose article *The City of Life and Death* (Phoenix, Ariz.), appears on page 754, declares that neither Phoenix nor Tucson, the two largest towns, have awakened sufficiently to the need of supporting the volunteer social organizations whose day-to-day work means much to the childhood of the state.

Phoenix, the capital, leads the state in the number of its social agencies and in its influence upon welfare legislation. In this ambitious city of 18,000 people is the largest associated charities society, the headquarters of the anti-tuberculosis league, the only public tubercu-

losis sanatorium, a juvenile court, a detention home for children and a Florence Crittenden Home.

These agencies have been urged to rally and prevent the establishment of a permanent home for dependent children. There is at present no such institution and it is possible, Mr. McLean says, "to go the entire limit in placing out from temporary homes, subject, of course, to strong supervision." The organization of a state home-finding society to take charge of all placing out work has been recommended as the first step for systematizing this service. Other needs according to Mr. McLean "are an institution for the feeble-minded, and insistence upon a strict civil service system in the state's institutions. This insistence should be accompanied by the power to bring the best people from anywhere in the country to serve in the responsible positions."

A measure granting to the juvenile courts power to require a physical examination of all delinquent children arraigned before them, has been urged as a step toward placing these tribunals on a par with the best in the country. Among the bills which failed to pass the legislature at its last session, but which will probably be reintroduced, was one requiring children whether minors or adults to support their parents to the limit of their ability in view of their own family responsibilities. An attempt will also be made to extend the juvenile court statutes so as to include within their scope all minors and to take away the somewhat large discretion still left to the courts and probation officers to place children in families of a different religious belief from that of their parents.

This extensive program for child welfare as well as the legislation regulating child labor and the labor of women, which was passed at the first regular and the first special sessions of the legislature, is an indication, says Mr. McLean, that the citizens of Arizona "wish to have their state grow up to a fine and clean womanhood." But he also asserts that:

"here, as in the Northwest, one sees a strange paradox, a people above all things, virile and individual, imagining that the ideal state will come through legislation alone, without individual quickening of conscience and perception through the light of education furnished by voluntary organizations. . . . But a few leaders have arisen and there is a genuine spirit of comradeship abroad. While the task of developing increased interest will be painfully long, it cannot but come."



## MECHANICAL SHORT CUTS USED IN CENSUS WORK

Every ten years the United States takes a trial balance and publishes the results in a series of bulky volumes. The decennial census returns in a very true sense constitute our national balance sheets. On page 757 Miss Claghorn tells what the first complete instalment of this balance sheet, the "Abstracts of the Thirteenth Census," shows and the classes of facts which it presents.

But in striking his balance the census expert, like the modern banker or corporation official, was greatly aided by ingenious mechanical devices. The population statistics for 1910, like those for 1890 and 1900, were tabulated by a punch card system.

The machines used for the eleventh and twelfth censuses were rented from a private concern, but those for the thirteenth, while based in part upon the principles employed in the previous machines, were constructed from designs made in the Census Bureau and are owned by the government.

Under this system a card is prepared for each person, upon which the facts as to sex, race, age, marital condition and place of birth are indicated by the punching of appropriate holes. The cards were punched, for the most part, by machines which contained 240 keys or one for every item to be recorded. Each key is set by the operator in the same way as those of an adding-machine, but no hole is punched until all of the keys are depressed, so that errors can be corrected. By touching a hand bar, holes corresponding to the keys pushed down are made by means of electric power and the next card is brought into place for punching.

The cards after being punched are systematically verified, in part by reading back to the schedule but mainly by the use of electric tabulating machines which reject automatically any card lacking the required number of holes or any card containing holes apparently inconsistent with one another, as, for example, one indicating that a person, though less than ten years of age, is married.

All the cards are then sorted according to main classes by special machines. Electric contacts made through the punched holes determine the groups into which the cards are sorted. After sorting, the cards of each group are passed through the tabulating machines in order to record numerous facts regarding the characteristics of the persons in the given group. As many as eighty counters are sometimes operated at one time. The results for any given group of cards as recorded on the counters are automatically printed.

On account of the complexity of the statistics required, each card must be run through the tab-



CARD TABULATING MACHINES IN USE

Partial view of room in census building

ulating machines several times. The different operations necessary for the complete tabulation of the scheduled facts concerning more than 90,000,000 people made the work equivalent to handling over 700,000,000 cards on the sorting and tabulating machines.

By the old hand-tally methods in vogue before the introduction of the punch-card system it would have cost several times as much to obtain the same results. In fact, according to the census officials it would not have been considered worth while to tabulate the statistics in such a complex manner by hand methods, and the public would have been without much of the information which can now be derived from the census.

## STAVING OFF THE FIREMEN'S STRIKE

On the morning of February 18 it looked as if there would be a strike of firemen on the railroads of the eastern district, since these workers had been unable to secure a settlement of their demands or to agree upon a plan of arbitration with the railroads. This district is practically the same as that involved in the wage controversy of the engineers which, according to report of the arbitration board in that case, includes a population of over 38,000,000 people with nearly 67,000 miles of main track which handle from 42 to 47 per cent of the traffic of the United States.

Before noon, however, an agreement was



reached with the railroads to submit the matter to three arbitrators under the terms of the Erdman act. This was a concession on the part of the railroads which had been standing out against arbitration under that law. They proposed a board of seven similar to the one which last summer arbitrated the demands of the engineers in line with a voluntary agreement between the engineers and the railroads.

Both railroads and firemen had up to this point stubbornly refused to recede from their positions, each calling the public to witness that if a strike ensued, it would be the fault of the other.

Since the first of the year there have been really two controversies between the firemen and the railroads, one as to wages and the other over the manner of arbitration. At the last the second controversy so overshadowed the first that the wage difficulty was all but forgotten.

The wage controversy goes back to April, 1912, when the firemen first made demands. The engineers had previously asked for higher wages, and both groups of workers understood that upon the settlement of their claim would to a certain extent, depend the settlement of the claims of firemen and other railway employees. In the case of the firemen, as was true of the engineers of the eastern district, their wages have long been somewhat below those paid by the railroads of the western district.

The board of arbitration in the engineers' case compiled from the statistics of the Interstate Commerce Commission tables of wages paid in the various districts, not only for engineers but for other railway employees.

These figures would indicate that the firemen in the western district were receiving in 1911 about 10 per cent more than those of the east. The eastern firemen in statements that they have given out to the public claim to be making a demand for an advance that will average 15 per cent, and that this advance will equalize wages between the east and west. The railroads, on the other hand, claim that the demands of the firemen will amount to a 35 per cent increase, and they are not willing to say, without reference to data not yet compiled, that a 35 per cent increase would be greatly in excess of the wages now paid in the west.

It has been the contention of the firemen that the Interstate Commerce Commission's statistics are inaccurate; that they are merely the statements of the railroad companies assembled and published by the government; that they are not compiled on the same basis, take no account of the differences in the length of working day in the different territories covered, and fail to distinguish overtime from the earnings of the normal working day. It is conceded by both

sides that the wages of the firemen in the east are considerably below those of the west.

The firemen's original demand as to wages included the payment of time and one-half rates for overtime after ten hours. In support of this claim they declared that the federal sixteen-hour law

"has practically created a sixteen-hour day for men employed in freight train service. . . . As workers in other industries have found relief from excessive hours of labor by securing an excessive rate of pay for overtime, so the firemen sought relief from conditions of employment that are unbearable."

On becoming convinced that it would be impractical to press this demand, however, the firemen eliminated it, and it will not go before the arbitration board.

Outside of wages, the most important demand was for the employment of two firemen on the larger engines on account of the severe strain involved in stoking. The original demand of April, 1912, called for the granting of an additional fireman on 13,500 engines in the eastern district. In a conference held December 2, 1912, this claim was modified to include about 5,000 engines, and on December 18, it was further modified until it includes only about 2,000. With regard to this claim the railroad managers insist that it is but the entering wedge preparatory to a demand for placing two firemen on all engines. Consequently, they have absolutely refused to grant the request. The matter will probably be thoroughly thrashed out before the arbitration board.

#### BACK TO THE ERDMAN ACT

The issue that is clearest at the present time, and one upon which it is possible to be more fully informed, is with regard to the facilities at hand for adjusting or arbitrating disputes upon railroads. From the point of view of the public this may well be considered the most important aspect of the situation. When it became evident that negotiations between the railroads and the firemen would amount to nothing, the question of arbitration was broached, with the result that the two methods mentioned above were proposed. The opposition of the firemen to departing from the Erdman act grew partly out of the experience of the engineers with the different form of arbitration.

One point was the length of time consumed by the board in the engineers' case. The engineers' claims date, as do those of the firemen, from April, 1912. The arbitration board began to hold hearings in July, and it was November before its award was announced to take effect from the previous April. But as late as February 17



last, while the firemen's strike was hanging in the balance, Warren S. Stone, chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, stated that only one railroad had put the settlement into effect, and there was so much difference of opinion over the exact meaning of the award that a meeting had been called at Chicago by Chairman Van Hise for February 20 to "decide what the award really means."

Again, the engineers' arbitrators entered into the general question of the settlement of disputes upon railroads and recommended a scheme which seemed to involve compulsory arbitration. In a statement given to the public, President Carter of the Brotherhood of Firemen intimated that it was the purpose of the railroads "to mold public sentiment to the end that legislation will be enacted forbidding railway strikes."

The more concrete objections of the firemen, however, were, first, that if arbitration were resorted to, other than as prescribed by the Erdman act, it would be impossible to punish witnesses for perjured testimony even if they should be sworn, and, second, that there would be no legal procedure laid down which the arbitrators would have to follow. Hence, they would be free, as were the arbitrators in the engineers' case, to seek evidence wherever they might find it. It was charged that this board got much new evidence of its own after the hearings had been closed and based its award upon this new evidence without either side having an opportunity to protest against its admission. Much of this evidence, particularly wage statistics, was from the reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission, which the firemen claimed are faulty and inaccurate.

Their objections to arbitration under the Erdman act were summed up by the committee of railroad managers in a letter addressed to Judge Knapp and G. W. W. Hanger, acting commissioner of labor, announcing their final acceptance of such arbitration in order to avoid a strike:

"At the urgent request of you as representatives of the government, and under the strongest protest we are able to voice, the managers' committee agree to arbitrate the firemen controversy under the Erdman act. The managers also desire to give notice at this time that they shall earnestly request that the hearings in this arbitration be open to the public.

"As the managers have stood out to the limit against arbitration under the Erdman act, and as the government—or the public—is responsible for whatever the consequences may be, the managers reiterate their principal objections to the Erdman act. These were pointed out by the board of arbitration in the engineers' case:

"The responsibility which would ultimately rest upon a third member of an Erdman arbitration board was too great to impose on any one man.

"The operation of the act is to settle a dispute rather than to adjudicate a controversy.

"The arbitrators are three in number. Each side is represented by one arbitrator. It rests, therefore, upon the third arbitrator to bring the other two arbitrators as nearly as possible together, and if he cannot do so he must decide between them. This is accomplished by splitting differences, and the case may be adjusted without adequate investigation of the facts involved, and the award may not rest upon a basis of equity.

"But the most fundamental defect of the Erdman act is that the interests of the public are not guarded by it."

"The managers feel that the public will not tolerate a strike, and realizing their threetold responsibility to the public, their men, and their shareholders, they only agreed to arbitration under the Erdman act when it seemed the only way to avert the calamity of a strike.

"The Firemen's Brotherhood has no responsibility except to its members.

"The question the public should seriously consider is whether, in compelling the railroads to arbitrate under a defective and inadequate law, and in thus securing temporary convenience and accommodation, they are not sacrificing their permanent welfare.

"The managers' committee wishes to warn the public at this time of another and similar demand for increased wages made by the conductors and trainmen. We desire to put the public on notice as to the crisis that will confront them when these demands are considered by the railroads.

"We also desire to call attention to the serious public danger of these recurring demands, backed up by repeated demands that the railroads arbitrate under the law.

"The whole situation is now in the hands of the government and the people. They have taken it out of the hands of the managers at a time when the latter hoped to make a stand for the public good."

#### BELIEF THAT ERDMAN ACT NEEDS REVISION

Meanwhile at another point the machinery of the Erdman act has broken down in the very way that has been feared by all who have recently given consideration to the terms of this law, calling as it does for mediation by the presiding judge of the Commerce Court and the commissioner of labor, the only two men in training for dealing with railway strikes. At this juncture, when there was imminent danger of the most populous section of the United States being deprived of railway service, the United States Bureau of Labor was without its official head. The name of Charles P. Neill, who had been commissioner of labor ever since the passage of the Erdman act, was sent to the Senate by President Taft for reappointment, his term having expired on February 1. This appointment, along with hundreds of others that have



been submitted by the President, has been held up in the Senate, and consequently one of the two men who has gained the confidence of the railroads and the workers alike and whose experience would have been invaluable at this time, was unable to be present in his official capacity. The difficulty reaches deeper, however. Judge Knapp and Commissioner Neill have been carrying a double load for six years. Whatever amendments may be made in the Erdman act as to the constitution of boards of arbitration, etc., there is growing sentiment among railroads and railway men that the work should be separated from the administrative work of the Bureau of Labor and developed along lines commensurate with its importance.

#### "DAMAGED GOODS" IS TO BE PLAYED IN NEW YORK

With the purpose of arousing interest in the propaganda for a law prohibiting marriage except on the presentation by both parties of a physician's certificate of health, Eugene Brioux's *Damaged Goods* (*Les Avariés*) is to be presented this month in New York. It is to be given under the auspices of the Sociological Fund of the *Medical Review of Reviews*. The Fund was started recently to co-operate with that periodical in a program which includes the dissemination of instruction through books, lectures and plays dealing with sociological subjects.

*Damaged Goods* was written in 1901. Its presentation was forbidden on account of its medical details, but it was read privately by the author at the Théâtre Antoine, Paris. The author's position, and that of the sponsors of the play, is expressed through the part of an enlightened physician who is brought into consultation with a prosperous family, every member of which, in his or her individual way, is suffering from the consequences of the irresponsible misdeeds of the son of the house before his marriage. The resulting tragedy is made the basis for the physician's plea for the spread of sociological education, the elimination of ignorance and false modesty, and the substitution of preventive measures through the sympathetic instruction of the youth of the present generation. He concludes with the hope that an awakened judiciary may be counted upon for a more enlightened viewpoint in applying social control to this evil.

An "all star" cast is to present the play on the afternoon of March 10, at the Thirty-ninth Street Theater. It is the hope of those who arranged for the play that this may be merely the first of a series of dramatic presentations to further the special work of the Sociological Fund of the *Review*.

#### A PRECEDENT FOR THE BOOHER BILL

The passage by the United States House and Senate of the Webb-Kenyon bill, which aims to prevent the shipment of liquor in interstate commerce into states whose laws forbid its sale, has given friends of the Booher convict-made goods bill hope that this precedent will aid the passage of the latter measure. The principle involved in the two pieces of legislation is declared to be the same. The Booher measure permits states to prohibit the bringing of convict-made goods across their borders.

A study of the debates on the Webb-Kenyon bill shows that the division which it caused in Congress was not along party but rather along constitutional lines. Democrats and Republicans alike divided into two camps with respect to the principle of the measure. In the Senate, for example, Mr. Root of New York, Republican; Mr. Paynter of Kentucky, Democrat; Mr. Pomerehne of Ohio, Democrat, and Mr. Sutherland of Utah, Republican, voted against the bill on the ground that it violated states rights.

Notwithstanding this serious opposition and notwithstanding the possibility that the courts will declare the law unconstitutional, it is asserted by many congressmen that the recent action of Congress has advanced the day when the federal government will exert its power to uphold state laws whose violators have so long lurked in Mr. Bryan's picturesquely termed "twilight zone."

#### A NATIONAL EIGHT-HOUR BILL FOR WOMEN WORKERS

Senator Kenyon of Iowa, who has shown an active interest in the District of Columbia eight-hour bill for women, has introduced a measure to establish, through the federal control of interstate commerce, the eight-hour day for women in all the states.

The bill would prohibit interstate carriers from transporting products offered for shipment by any mill or factory in which women work more than eight hours a day or six days a week. Affidavits must be filed by the mill or factory declaring that no women are employed longer than the hours specified before the carrier can accept goods for shipment. The form of the affidavit is to be left to the secretary of commerce and labor.

A fine of not more than \$10,000 or less than \$1,000, or imprisonment from one to six months, or both, may be imposed on the officers or agents or carriers who violate the law. Failure to file the statement as to the hours women work and false affidavits the bill makes punishable by a fine of from \$5,000 to \$20,000, prison terms of from three months to a year, or both.



## EDITORIAL GRIST

### EXVILLE AND 533 OTHER CITIES

CHARLES F. WELLER

Associate Secretary Playground and Recreation  
Association of America

In a city of 130,000 inhabitants I saw recently an example of American needs and opportunities which are important but little understood.

Four years ago the city council appropriated \$7,000 for playgrounds. But there was so little understanding of what constitutes a real playground that it became a "recreation movement" backward, growing weaker year by year. Finally, the original friends of the movement said, a year ago: "The latest appropriation (only \$2,500) is the last that Exville will ever make for playgrounds; we have tried them and found them unsatisfactory."

How many Exvilles are there? Altogether 533 American cities were active in playground or recreation movements last year. But only 285 had supervised playgrounds. The other 248, at least, are in danger of auto-vaccination—of having such inadequate, unsatisfactory playgrounds that the people will become discouraged and the development of effective recreational facilities will be prevented or postponed.

What is the answer? Exactly what saved Exville. A field secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America gave ten weeks of competent service. This cost, for salary and all expenses, \$1,000. It gave Exville first, an understanding of her own needs; second, a vision of what a modern recreation movement means in the most successful cities; third, a program—practicable, progressive, irresistible.

This \$1,000 will bring to Exville's children at least \$7,500 this year and, within a few years, from \$100,000 to \$500,000. The very first expenditure will be for a commissioner or director of recreation to select and train play leaders, to exercise a growing influence over all forms of recreation; in short, to do for leisure time what the superintendent of schools does for the hours of formal education.

Like a great but growing tide, the playground movement is sweeping over America. It is too rapid, may be said. Yes, but why? Because it is timely. Because it meets needs of which people are becoming keenly conscious. Because it answers some of the strongest social instincts in men's minds and hearts.

From thirty to forty cities are new recruits each year. Over 5,300 play leaders were employed last year, an increase of 22 per cent over

the previous season. More than \$4,000,000 were expended last year, in addition to bond issues of over \$3,700,000.

This tide can not be checked. It can be guided. Such guidance is one of America's gravest needs and largest opportunities.

### STATE FUNDS TO MOTHERS

EDWARD T. DEVINE

Two illuminating articles<sup>1</sup> in this number of *THE SURVEY* are very likely to be cited a generation hence as embodying in extraordinary perfection the two fundamentally contrasting social points of view of our perplexed generation.

Neither article is a reply to the other; neither writer had seen the other's in advance. Even the editor did not know that it was a debate which was forthcoming, for the reason that although both articles are contributed by request, one of them—no matter which one—has, through a fortunate misunderstanding, turned out to be something quite different from what was expected. The result is the clear-cut, refreshing, and instructive contrast which the reader finds.

Mr. Hard's paragraphs are short, epigrammatic, and oracular. One whole paragraph, for example, is to the effect that:

Even the best of us have principles.

Miss Richmond's paragraphs are longer, more formal, more balanced, conceding many things, and requiring attentive reading. Mr. Hard is writing a political platform and commenting on a study which he evidently finds irritating. Miss Richmond is developing an impersonal argument which requires deliberate historical excursions and a patient, even if not altogether sympathetic, examination of her opponents' positions.

Mr. Hard eschews "facts," especially "immediate facts" and "practical propositions," and soars at once into the realm of principles, of feelings, of moral and esthetic perceptions. He "writhes in mind" over certain phrases in current use and regards them as giving the precise "direction of the mental attitude" of "charity agents." He swings the "whole movement" of which he is speaking on a "moral pivot" from its "existence in human aspiration to its existence in human fact," hanging it meanwhile "before the vision in a paragraph."

Miss Richmond on the other hand will have nothing to do with "arguments that will not bear critical examination." She is all for "facts," precise, verified, analyzed and interpreted facts. She insists that legislation should be based on experience; that we should not be carried away by enthusiasm. No one better than Miss Rich-

<sup>1</sup> See *Motherhood and Pensions* by Mary E. Richmond on page 774, and the *Moral Necessity of "State Funds to Mothers,"* by William Hard, page 769.



mond sees the peril in a catch phrase; no one has so little faith in "any one remedy applied wholesale by statute" to a "ganglion of evils."

Mr. Hard, appeals to instinct, like a Bergsonian; Miss Richmond to intellect, like a Spencerian. Mr. Hard has faith in the political democracy; Miss Richmond in free trade, thrift, family solidarity, individual self-help, and unconstrained personal service. Mr. Hard gleefully proposes to go after the taxpayer. Miss Richmond sees in unnecessary soldiers' pensions the chief source, the only one she discusses, of the funds which might have been used to fight tuberculosis and feeble-mindedness.

To the one, taxation is an unlimited, virtually untapped resource. To the other, it is a fixed and limited sum like the old "wage fund" of the economists, which if used for pensions is not available for other public uses, however beneficial. The one apparently holds to the investment theory of taxation and to the most broadly social conception of the state; the other would seem to regard taxation, if not government itself, as a necessary evil, and to think of society as an organism acting through many other and better instruments than those supplied by the political mechanism of the state.

Both statements are invaluable; but their value is of very different kinds. Mr. Hard's instinctive insurgency, his warm—not to say hot—human sympathy, and his contemptuous disregard for what he believes to be irrelevant facts, even his own, are characteristic of a national, of an international movement which social workers must increasingly take into account. They are in fact doing so and are everywhere taking their part in it.

The report by Mr. Carstens, against which Mr. Hard lodges his protest, does not really deserve the adverse criticism which Mr. Hard gives it. It is not a narrow, reactionary, or partizan document. On the contrary, it is a very fair, open-minded presentation of an actual situation. It deals, and pretends to deal, only with "immediate facts" and "practical propositions." Whether such considerations are to be controlling or are to be disregarded in favor of abstract principles and ideals is for each man to decide for himself; but even the most ardently progressive idealist, even the most instinctive Bergsonian, should not object to such inquiries and reports. There is a place for observation, and analysis, and interpretation of facts, even if, in the end, we are to be pushed by the very principle of life itself, blindly, instinctively, and irresistibly, into policies which seem to have little relation to the results of our investigations.

It must be admitted that Miss Richmond is on impregnable ground in insisting that experience does count for something, and that any cause is weak whose advocates close their minds

to the lessons of experience; that along with increased material relief, whether public or private, there should go more individualized, more skillful, more thorough treatment of the widely diversified causes of dependence.

Mr. Hard's feeling about the use of the word "dependent" does him credit and though he may not think it, his feeling in this respect is not in the least different from that of Mr. Carstens or Miss Richmond. But "dependence" is not merely a disagreeable idea; it is an ugly fact. No esthetic revolt will of itself change the fact. It is not true—history clearly teaches the contrary—that by translating the relation of dependence to the public domain we win the only possible chance of transforming it into independence and self-respect. By that change alone you gain a legal definition. You gain neither strength of character, nor a fighting opportunity. There may be some fields in which a state monopoly is justified; but that of "caring for the widow and the fatherless" is not among them.

We "charity people" are reproached because we do not give a clear-eyed affirmative answer to the question as to whether "relief is adequate," or else join with those who advocate "state pensions." But the fallacy lies in the inquiry. Is education now adequate? Is religion adequate? Is justice adequate? Those who "distinctly evade" a question which is in itself fundamentally absurd are the only ones who give it the correct answer.

The desirability of state pensions does not turn upon the adequacy or inadequacy of voluntary relief, but upon the prospective results of the state pensions. Will they prevent commitments to institutions or increase them? Will they increase or diminish the actual amount of neglected poverty in the community? Will they increase or diminish the number of independent, self-supporting, self-respecting citizens? Will they strengthen or undermine character? Will they operate beneficially or injuriously upon the relation between the individual and the state and upon the relations of citizens to one another? Will they socialize or pauperize the nation?

Upon such issues as these the decision should rest. All the evidence pertinent to such issues should be diligently gathered and fairly considered. The burden of proof rests upon the advocates of "state funds to parents." It may be that the endowment of motherhood will come, as Mr. Hard anticipates, merely because it is involved in an irresistible social movement, as a result of esthetic perception, of accepting a principle. Some things, like the burning of witches, and the French Revolution, have come about in that way. Possibly those who are opposing state pensions to mothers should seriously consider whether they are confronting a similar phenomenon.



## LEBANON TRUST: AN EXPERIMENT IN SMALL PARKS FOR SMALL CITIES

[Midway between Cincinnati and Dayton, Ohio, on a ridge of fertile farming and grazing land between the great and little Miami rivers, lies the pleasant village of Lebanon. Besides being a marketplace for the farming country back from it, Lebanon is the site of one or two canning factories, a bridge works and an old but small university. The institution which distinguishes it, however, from hundreds of other middle western towns is the Civic Trust, which has kindled civic spirit in what was a dormant community and revived a variety of social and co-operative activities.

William E. Harmon of New York is an Ohio man. It is his belief, Andrew Carnegie's well-known predilections to the contrary, that the surest and most permanent basis for a public benefaction is land. In April, 1911, he decided to "try it on" his native town. He sounded a group of representative men by offering for an indefinite period to give the sum of \$3,000 per year for a community welfare campaign. A few months later he made a formal offer to buy land for park and playground purposes and to build a gymnasium. The next step was the purchase of an eighty-acre farm. Last summer work was started on a gymnasium in the center of the town. Because the nearest river was four or five miles away, a dam was built across a stream in the park, so that the boys should have a place for water sports.

An endowment yielding \$3,000 per year has been provided and seems to be sufficient. The management is lodged in a board of seven trustees acting under the name of the Civic Trust of Lebanon on the William E. Harmon Foundation.

While the work is but just under way, many forms of local co-operation have grown about it. The example has struck root, and others have made gifts to the town for various purposes.

The results of his initial experiment have been so encouraging that Mr. Harmon is keen to induce other towns to establish similar trusts, and makes an offer through THE SURVEY (see page 753). The story of the Lebanon Foundation in land and goodwill is told in the following pages by the people who have had a hand in it. First, the donor tells how he came to make the offer to his home town. Then the president of the university speaks for the trustees who are handling the money. Next the executive officer of the trust describes what has actually been set on foot, and, finally, an outsider, the editor of the Lebanon Western Star, gives a private citizen's views on the undertaking.—Ed.]

### ORIGIN OF THE HARMON FOUNDATION. BY WILLIAM E. HARMON, WOOD, HARMON & COMPANY.

SPEEDING TOWARD New York on the Twentieth Century, three of us dropped into a discussion of gifts in perpetuity. By that we meant such gifts to the public as combine the greatest degree of permanence with a fair degree of usefulness. Most donors like to feel certain that there is an element of permanence in their contributions—that is, the power of self-renewal or continuous growth. But the obvious facts are that many so-called permanent gifts return a low rate in satisfaction and become practically useless after a time.

We considered endowments, permanent buildings as adjuncts to colleges and hospitals, founda-

tions for education, and, finally, land—naked land. Most trusts that require oversight are ever subject to tempest, fire, earthquake, dishonesty, or unwisdom. After a time they seem to shrink in importance. Land only is forever prepared to fulfil a function at the moment of need. Land only is independent of oversight when not in use. Rome has parks 2,000 years old which in 1913 give breathing space to tired lungs just as they did in the year one. London has parks that, speaking in a general way, have constantly increased in usefulness since medieval times. One could cite instance after instance where vacant and apparently valueless land has brought the people a rich and increasing return as the years rolled on. But often the most reverently bestowed treasures of devoted, and perhaps as enlightened, people have disappeared



from the face of the earth and been forgotten.

It did not take us long to conclude that land as a gift to a community that needed it was a reliable form of benefaction.

The conversation then turned to parks and playgrounds. It seemed to us that private and public benefactions, reinforced by calculating grafters and genuine civic leaders, were largely meeting the needs of the big cities. There is a tremendous movement to provide parks and playgrounds. The work so far, however, has been mostly confined to cities. In them there is a bright outlook for the future.

While we were talking it suddenly came over me that thirty years ago as a boy in a village of 3,000 people I had had no place to play a game of ball. Surrounded by rich agricultural land, there wasn't an acre in that town where the boys had real rights as distinguished from revocable privileges granted by word of mouth.

We three had all come from the West, and, strange to say, each, it proved, had suffered the same restrictions in his youth.

Since then I have made a canvass of a number of interior towns. Everywhere I found a somewhat similar state of affairs: Plenty of land; good-natured owners; casual ball, marbles and hockey. But if any concerted effort arises to secure a permanent tenure to justify fixture and apparatus and perhaps a clubhouse, then up go prices to the sky. In a word, the whole thing is squelched.

Among a richer class who may desire playgrounds, exactly reverse conditions are encountered. A, B, C, D, and E form a playground association, but they call it a country club, and they get what they want on their own terms. Why? Because any shrewd owner of real estate knows that nothing will add as much value to land as a country club. This, with the social features offered by a country club, takes care of the needs of the more fortunate class of people.

After an extended investigation, I became convinced that among the youth of the typical small town there is really serious need for playground space, but before assuming that my remedy would solve the problem, I determined to "try it on the dog"—my native town. A tract

of eighty acres, reaching close into the town, was purchased, and on a nearby lot a suitable gymnasium is being constructed. We engaged the services of a director who, so far, has been fully occupied in the preliminary work of organizing clubs and teams for various youthful activities. Less than two years have passed since the idea was developed. A completely new spirit has arisen in the village, and the outlook has seemed so favorable that I believe some fairly definite conclusions can be formed.

## A ADMINISTERING THE HARMON TRUST. BY WALLACE E. MILLER, PRESIDENT LEBANON UNIVERSITY.

THE DUTY of the trustee is to carry out the intention of the founder of the Civic Trust. While this might seem to be an easy task, it is really somewhat difficult to interpret accurately the wishes of the donor. All conditions and dilemmas cannot be foreseen. Like a judge, the trustee must often apply a general principle to a specific instance. But his greatest anxiety is to understand the need before him so that the remedy adopted may be neither a waste of money nor an aggravation of the trouble.

The necessity for the trustee is quite obvious, because the founder planned an institution to



### EAST SIDE OF BROADWAY, LEBANON

This is one of the two main business streets in Lebanon.

### THE OUTDOOR GYMNASIUM

This shows part of the physical education apparatus set up in Harmon Park.





last beyond his own lifetime and beyond that of any of the trustees now chosen. Residence in a distant city, likewise, makes it impracticable for the donor himself to direct the work. As nearly as possible, every trust of this character should be conducted with great fundamental ideas as their base. The trustee, serving as a sort of go-between, is interested neither as a giver nor as a recipient. His decisions are dictated only by impartial and impersonal considerations.

Probably a greater responsibility rests upon the trustee than upon any one else connected with this Civic Trust. The benefactor has to a large degree parted company with his money, and in a sense with the idea. Both are in the keeping of others. A conscientious trustee, particularly where future generations are largely in view, wishes to build wisely and well so as to get reasonable returns now and not to impair success fifty or a hundred years hence.

The Harmon Foundation is seeking to develop the highest types of manhood and womanhood. It has not chosen a mould into which all characters are to be cast. It proposes to take young people as it finds them and encourage inborn tendencies. Many types of efficient character are bound to result from this elastic policy.

This development can be brought about only in the case of those whose characters are forming. Older persons with fixed ideas of life and

manners cannot be affected to any great extent. Their characters may be called into expression, but little or nothing can be added to them. A homely adage says that as the twig is bent so is the tree inclined. Growing boys and girls may have a profound tendency imparted to their lives through the trust. It is to give this predilection that we exist. We propose to furnish a richness to the content of life that would not be there but for us. The founder, I am sure, will be satisfied if this result is accomplished.

A rural environment need not be a handicap to one born and reared in it. It is often so regarded by those who take but a superficial view, in the face of the fact that much of the most virile energy of our urban centers was stored up in the countryside. The Harmon Foundation proposes to aid rural environment to do its best work.

There is a time in the life of every young person when the building up of a sound nervous system has reached its maximum. To cut short this period prematurely means a sacrifice of power in after years. By making country life interesting and attractive, we hope to retard a too early exodus from country to city on the part of our present population. Also, this same power in later life is impaired if incorrect ideas are incorporated into the life of a youth. It should not be necessary for the country boy going to the city to win his way to unlearn anything. His ideas should be substantially correct. They may be made so if the proper influences are at work in the country. Immaturity of thought and unfamiliarity with the true meaning of life handicap one for success. To do away with these will be a very definite result of the work of this trust.

Not so long ago, drudgery was the most prominent aspect of country life. Science and invention have tended to change this. Country life is becoming more and more attractive, and we are learning that the best life is that which is spent close to nature. It would be regrettable if the youth of the future were to disrespect his early rural environment. On the contrary, he will be so proud of it that he will be unwilling to change it for another, no matter how alluring it seems



#### THE LEBANON CITY BUILDING

The other important public buildings are a county jail and court house and Lebanon University.

#### THE "KIDS' DAM" IN HARMON PARK

The dam was partially constructed by the Boy Scouts and provides almost the only place for swimming and skating.





to be. To keep as much as possible of our population from being drained away into the cities will be our constant aim.

All things are not good merely because they are found in a country environment. We hope to minimize the influence of undesirable elements and ideas. Many conditions need to be corrected, many things need to be emphasized in order to make the surroundings of rural life better.

It has been the practice until lately to permit the hidden and unharnessed forces of our social organization blindly to work out their will. Now this is not thought to be the best way. Social workers are convinced that social forces need guidance. Students of social conditions in rural communities are sure that some of the finest constructive social work is waiting to be done in thousands of sections like the one of which Lebanon, Ohio, is the center.

A trustee of this foundation may therefore be pardoned for feeling that he is doing a pioneer work, the results of which must appear little by little, and make themselves far more apparent to his grandchildren than they are to him.

**WHAT THE CIVIC TRUST IS DOING.** BY S. C. BRITTON, DIRECTOR OF THE HARMON FOUNDATION.

A CERTAIN old lady, so the story runs, upon returning from a visit to the farm remarked, "I wonder why they didn't build the big cities out in the country?" Perhaps one might ask with equal grace, after a visit to the city, with its parks, playgrounds, operas, and other recreations, "Why didn't they place the country within the big cities?" Therein lies a problem. The country boy, longing for excitement, is going to the city. Probably his departure is to be lamented, but a more serious feature of the situation is that he is lifting a curtain which reveals new scenes—scenes for which he is not prepared. To assist the growing generation to appreciate the real happiness that may be found in the country and to acquaint them with the environment of the city is the work of the Civic Trust of Lebanon.

For this reason the trust is establishing in Warren county some of the worthwhile attractions of the city. An eighty-acre field has been secured. Some may doubt the need of a recreation field in the country. Let them ask Farmer Jones for permission to play a game of ball in his pasture. Let them explain the popularity of Harmon Park in the village of Lebanon. Country boys as well as their city cousins enjoy American games, and appreciate a public playground. This park is used much. It is not uncommon to see the park alive with several hundred boys and girls from six to twenty—yes, some from twenty to sixty, for all are young here. Formerly the boys went "swimmin'" in "Mulford's Hole," which resembled a crowd on election night. Now they go swimming in the "Kids' Dam," where

they have more fun and less mud. Skating was a neglected art. But with the new water course "as slick as glass," many are the plans and boasts, and often is proved the proverb "Pride goeth before a fall." Many of the outdoor activities will be transferred to the gymnasium and clubhouse which is now under construction. This will be a social center.

The social side has been disintegrating. An occasional "belling" is all that breaks the monotony now. But a generation ago the beaux and belles had the husking bee, barn dance, quilting party, spelling bee, and debating society. Man is a social being, even in the country, and needs social meetings. To fill this need a series of lectures by local talent has been developed which is offered to any school, church or other organization in the country. Eight places have arranged courses. The Presbyterian Boys' Club of Morrow are saving the surplus made from their course for a library and club room. Union and Ridgeville expect to raise some funds in this manner to beautify their school. The other communities are content to "break even." Although the lecture venture is young, it is serving as a potent magnet in drawing the people, especially the young men and women, into social groups. An orchestra of boys, under a boy director, is to give one of the numbers. A revival of the old-time spelling bee promises encouraging results. Overflowing crowds have twice journeyed to the Union School to see who was the best speller in the "deestrick."

To promote any movement thoroughly worth while until it can stand alone, and to foster any that cannot, is the purpose of the trust. This makes possible a broad field of activity. A corn-growing contest, in which forty-one boys and two girls were enrolled, has just been concluded. Three of the boys and one girl won prize trips to Washington, where they will meet the President. One farmer declared, "It has done more for our township than all our farm magazines." A garden guild, enrolling 10 per cent of the youngsters of Lebanon, closed with an exhibit and lecture. Reforestation has been materially encouraged in Lebanon. Although this village is in a veritable grove, yet three railroad cars of trees were imported in 1912. And the School House Beautification Contest has been responsible for much rivalry. One school this Fall on a single afternoon planted fifteen hard maples. Birds and their protection is now the thought of many little bird police who are members of the Audubon Society. A snowbird photo contest, athletic contests and the Boy Scouts, who assisted in building the "Kids' Dam," are all helping to bring the city to the country boy.

"Remember we are here to help you help yourself," is a familiar sentence in the correspondence. The trust will not force its way, but will win it. In fact, one of its useful deeds is getting the people of each community to carry on their own work. Although the trust is still new, its present use and the increasing demands for its assistance is evidence of its need and value.



**W**HY THE CITIZEN APPROVES.  
BY JOHN M. MULFORD, EDITOR  
LEBANON WESTERN STAR.

LEBANON is as beautiful a village of 3,500 souls as can be found in Ohio. It is a substantial settlement, which dates back over a hundred years and enjoys more than average educational facilities. During the bigger half of its life it has had institutions of higher education. Today the town furnishes free tuition from the kindergarten through the college. It never had a park, however, until William Elmer Harmon of New York, who was born and reared in Lebanon, presented us with eighty acres about a year ago.

When it became known that Mr. Harmon had given us a park, there were some of our citizens who couldn't understand why he had not donated his money to some "worthy purpose," as, for instance, the endowment of the college or the erection of a small hospital. It was argued by others that they had grown up without any place for play, save the street or over in the "pasture field" of some neighboring farmer. They thought it was unnecessary to have parks for the children of the present generation. One man even remarked that "Elmer Harmon is a pretty big man, and he hadn't any park to play in when he was a boy." These criticisms were from those who cannot see any good in a project unless it pays 6 per cent in the coin of the realm. Others, and they were the more numerous, welcomed the park—because of its possibilities, even though they acknowledged that they didn't know what these were. Among the boys and girls, however, there was not a dissenting voice. They were not worried about the relative value of the bequest. It meant to them a great big playground, bigger than the largest yard, bigger than the generous school grounds, and even bigger than any pasture in which they could play. Yet the children were as far from realizing the possibilities as were friendly adults.

With the park came a young man to teach the children how to play. He was not considered by the youngsters when they grew enthusiastic over their playground, because they knew nothing about his appointment, but today he is loved and respected by all of them. He is their scout master, and leads them on long hikes or camps

with them in veritable wigwams in the park; he is their football coach; he is their teacher of agriculture, conducting a garden contest among the boys and girls; he is their forester, teaching them to know trees and how to plant them. Ever alert, he keeps a watchful eye over the youngsters, tactfully giving them great freedom with the least possible show of restraint, which is the secret of all government. The Civic Trust of Lebanon, which is in charge of the park, decided to dam a beautiful meandering creek and thus make a swimming pool in summer and a skating surface in winter. At once the director interested a band of boys from fourteen to sixteen years of age in the work. They camped in the park, cooked their suppers and breakfasts in the open, listened to stories around the camp fire, and at 4:30 in the morning were out along the creek gathering stone to be crushed for the concrete work of the dam. This was thoroughly enjoyed, and it was a physical, mental and moral education. Today, December 14, there is a beautiful expanse of ice, affording room for hundreds of skaters.

The playground apparatus, which affords hours of enjoyment to all ages of children, is a novelty to them. After school they hasten to the park and enjoy wholesome athletic sport. At supper time, thoroughly tired out, they go home ready for a night of sound sleep. What is true of the small children applies equally to those who play on the tennis courts, on the baseball diamonds, at basketball or at football.

In the park children gather in little self-chosen cliques for play. Here they spend hours and, even if unwatched, behave better than in their own "back yards." I know that the camp fire stories have inspired the reading of history and biography. The work in the gardens has led to a desire for books on agriculture. In fact, so great has become the demand at the Public Library for elementary books on science that one of the fraternities of the town is preparing an entertainment for the benefit of the Children's Department of the library.

Harmon Park is a blessing to Lebanon. If no other proof were at hand, the plea of my sturdy six-year-old lad at this very moment for a pair of ice skates because "I want to go to Harmon Park" to me would be convincing.

#### A FINAL WORD FROM THE DONOR.

*I will give \$5,000, in sums of \$1,000 each, to any five towns in the state of Ohio having a population of less than 7,000 that will inaugurate and carry through a movement similar to the one we are working out in Lebanon, namely, to provide a permanent playground and gymnasium adequate to the needs of the community involving an investment of not less than \$10,000. This offer is limited to such movements as begin after, or take their incentive from, these articles, and to a period of two years from the date of this publication.*

WILLIAM E. HARMON.





THE VISTA OF BLUE MOUNTAINS FROM PHOENIX  
An irrigated orchard in the foreground

## THE CITY OF LIFE AND DEATH

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIETIES FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY

THE contrast came to me grimly, irresistibly, when my guide pointed to a shabby house. It was a very ordinary oblong wooden building, two stories high. "I suppose more people have died of tuberculosis in that house," she remarked, "than in any house in Phoenix."

Yet only a few feet away across the yard was a great ditch which ran high with the promise of abounding life—one of the secondary irrigation streams on its way to wreath the desert with fragrance and plenty.

In a valley of marvelous richness, needing only the water which has thus been brought to it, lies the capital of our youngest state. Strange to say, though the most important city in Arizona, Phoenix is not on the main line of any railroad. The Santa Fe reaches across two hundred miles of wild mountain ranges and desert from its main line at Ash Fork on the north, and the Southern Pacific pushes up some thirty miles of branch line from Maricopa on the south to a point where the two roads almost, but not quite, touch each other. Only a narrow street separates the two termini but it has been enough to block the scheme for a union station.

Nevertheless this is the only place in Arizona where the two great railroad systems come together. Before the Santa Fe built its branch line from Ash Fork, travel by rail from south to north Arizona, or *vice versa*, could be accomplished only via Los Angeles. So in a

pretty real sense Phoenix is the heart of Arizona.

As a capital city Phoenix ranks among the comparatively few which, taking advantage of their political importance and other natural and acquired advantages, assume leadership among cities. The population in 1910 was only 18,000, but staunchly the city holds the vision of a fair and beautiful metropolis, veritably pacing its way across the valley.

Phoenix is a city of beautiful vistas—blue mountains not many miles away, broken, jagged hills of the desert, jutting back from one section of the city. Italian skies and sunshine, fragrant air, a dare-devil soil once it has drunk, fairly squandering its richness in unbelievable exuberance of plants and flowers, transforming nothingness into magic gardens—all this has the capital city of Arizona.

Such advantages of climate and altitude have brought the cities of southern Arizona a great social problem, the problem of imported tuberculosis. Northern Arizona is generally higher in altitude and reacts unfavorably upon the disease. Not so southern Arizona, and its reputation has diverted the stream of the tuberculous which in earlier days wended its way to California or Colorado. Phoenix and Tucson, the largest cities, have naturally felt this problem most keenly, and I found a far greater degree of sympathy for the incoming sick in Phoenix than in either Texas or southern California. The rea-



son is not hard to find. Texas was a state of many large cities and had reached its second stage of development long before the tuberculosis invasion. Southern California took its first start as a health resort, but soon its great productive possibilities and its manifold attractions as a winter resort for the well and well-to-do brought in a population which in numbers tremendously exceeded those who came simply in search of health.

In Phoenix, on the other hand, quite a large proportion of the population is made up of families who sought residence here on account of the health of some of their members, and having found health for the sick ones have deemed it necessary to remain in order to conserve that health. Bronchial diseases and similar troubles bring others here, so in Phoenix sympathy comes largely from this fellow feeling.

This is something fine to build upon. Indeed, one cannot but be impressed with the fact that the possibilities of social development in many lines in Phoenix, when once men relax a bit in the wild scramble for wealth, are greater by reason of this sympathy. I recall the remarks made to me by social workers in Los Angeles in contrast. The Californians told me in sorrow and some little bitterness of spirit how little support could be obtained from many people who make a winter playground of their city. In very many ways social development in Los Angeles is stunted because vast numbers of its wealth-holding population, especially the temporarily resident, feel little social responsibility.

If the people of Arizona can be aroused to the meaning of a social program, the community will be able, I believe, to surpass even California. But the very first step, of course, is for them to realize that their fellow sympathy for the tuberculous has not yet gone far enough. For it is true that hundreds have died of tuberculosis in Phoenix; many have died on the way to the city and many have died on the way home. Not a

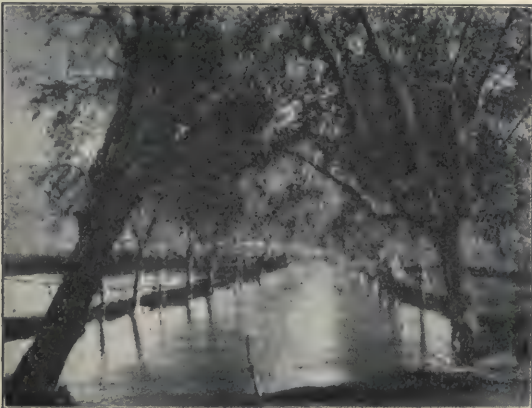


THE HOLLAND HOUSE

Sixty-five consumptives within five years died in this house. Scarcely one was a resident of the state. Five lived but a week after arriving from the East penniless. Rooms were sometimes relet within six hours after a death. During the past year, however, no consumptives have been lodged in the building.

few are struggling along in the city with insufficient funds for their support—their doom sealed. And it is true that of those who died some might have been saved if in their own homes, in the incipient stages of the disease, they had sought local sanatoria. Therefore, fellow sympathy becomes a hard and cruel thing if it does not link heart with heart and throw all its influence in such ways that, whether they go to Phoenix or are kept from going to Phoenix, more shall live.

What can Phoenix do? It can take advantage of the very exigencies of its situation as a haven of refuge for the sick to give what might be called health leadership to those sick and to the regions from which they come. This is one of two alternatives in the large scale public control of the tuberculosis problem. The other was suggested in an editorial in *Harper's Weekly* recently. In criticizing most unjustly a statement of the governor of Texas, this article indicated that the tuberculosis problem should be handled by national and not local agencies. If this means anything at all it means that to the few states having a favoring climate there shall be transplanted all the tuberculous with small means in the United States, in most cases with their families. Furthermore the experience of many people in Phoenix and elsewhere goes to show that an arrest of the disease in Arizona holds good only as long as the patient remains in the beneficial climate. Therefore the transplanting would in a great many cases be permanent and there would be obligation on the national government to see to it that this great population was absorbed industrially each year into the natural population of each state. If such a plan were possible from a practical standpoint it would play ducks and drakes with one of



AN IRRIGATION CANAL

March 1, 1913.





THE CITY HALL OF PHOENIX

the foundations of the present campaign of education, viz.—voluntary early examination of suspected cases and the early use of sanatoria. Early examination would become less frequent, instead of more so, if the patient felt that it inevitably meant that he must pull up stakes and cut himself off from old connections. And the states would scarcely make provision for their own sick at home if federal transportation to the Southwest offered an easy escape from the burden. No, “sanatoria everywhere” is the only safe hope for diminution and it is the local sanatoria which encourage early examinations.

The first of the two alternatives—state action—is the one which I offered in a report to the social agencies of Phoenix. My recommendation was that the Southwest should make covenant with the rest of the country as follows:

First, we, the people of Arizona, recognize that the only real way of making headway against the mass of tuberculosis is through local treatment all over the country; nevertheless we hold our favoring climate free to all.

Second, we will provide through private and public agencies, physicians and citizens, the necessary supervision of all tuberculous cases within the borders of the state, and thus guard against increased contagion in this region of health giving. This in itself is a pretty large and expensive job and has scarcely been touched as yet. Not even is registration of cases required and the neglect of fumigation is simply shocking. Rooms and houses in Phoenix are let to new patients and their families after old ones have moved out, without a word said about fumigation.

How much indigenous tuberculosis there is is a bone of contention, but waving this aside it is preposterous to imagine that a badly infected room will not unfavorably affect a patient or other delicate members of a family, no matter how good the climate may be.

Then there is need of medical advice. The physicians in Phoenix and doubtless elsewhere are giving a considerable amount of free service. It may be best for all concerned for Phoenix and Tucson to have tuberculous dispensaries on a

free basis. We have said that even the question of the geographical inception of present cases is an unsettled question. This is but one indication of the need that the state board of health be given by law such facilities as will not only enable it to lash municipal authorities into taking proper precautions but also in maintaining a pathological and social record of every case in the state. It is very important to know not only reactions upon various conditions but accurately what indigenous cases there are and how far the climate will from year to year, with increasing centers of infection, continue to strengthen the resistance of the inhabitants to this infection.

As one physician quaintly put it “We’ve got to watch out that by a process of elimination we do not breed here a sturdier bacillus which will defy even our climate’s killing powers.”

Third, having accepted these heavy burdens, public and private, the people of Arizona demand that others provide the living expenses of every one who seeks its climate. We cannot do everything. Therefore, to the patient who is sent here without means or who is stranded here, the only merciful thing to do is to return him to his home unless persons or public or private agencies in his home city or state provide for his support. Such returns have already been arranged by private agencies, such as the Associated Charities in Phoenix, and by public agencies, such as the Board of Supervisors of Maricopa County in which Phoenix is situated.

Now we propose to ask the state legislature to pass a law providing for the transportation by the state of non-resident dependents to their place of legal residence. This will be a general law which of course will have special application to the tuberculous. Such a state law would attract country-wide attention to Arizona’s attitude—the only merciful one. Phoenix would then be no longer a city of awful misery for scores of human souls.

We would, if we could, support those in the incipient stage of the disease, but we cannot bear the burdens of a whole country and others must help. The whole country should be warned that many; many die of tuberculosis in Arizona, and that it is criminal to urge those in the advanced stages of the disease to seek benefit here.

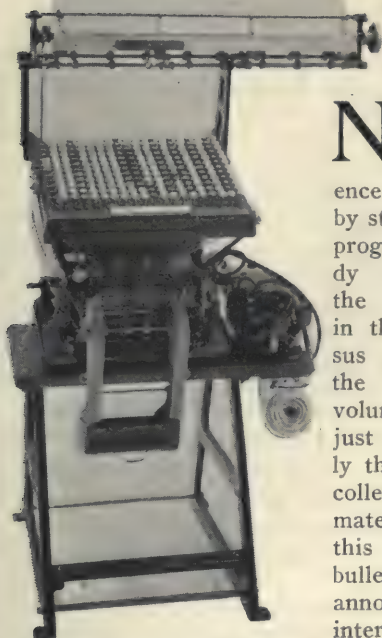
Only the most superficial and crassly ignorant critics could characterize this policy as any except the most righteous, the most humane, the most sympathetic. It remains for the social agencies of the state and of Phoenix particularly, to urge upon the legislature the first steps in the carrying out of this policy in the Southwest. It remains for the rest of the country to take to heart the fact that early examinations and universally present local sanatoria—not removal to Arizona or Texas—are what must be counted upon to force down the tuberculosis death rate.



# OUR NATIONAL TRIAL BALANCE

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN

NEW YORK SCHOOL OF PHILANTHROPY



CENSUS CARD PUNCHING  
MACHINE<sup>1</sup>

NOT a little disappointment and impatience have been felt by students of social progress at the tardy publication of the facts gathered in the federal census of 1910. For the first completed volume has only just appeared, nearly three years after collection of the material. Prior to this a few printed bulletins and certain announcements of interesting general results made through the press are all

the information that has been given out. One reason for this is an improvement in method of presentation which made it necessary to wait until all the main classes of figures were tabulated before presenting any in extended form.

Another is that in the preparation of the census results for the public the director of the census had laid upon him the highly unsatisfactory task of making bricks without the requisite quantity of straw. For the ruling powers, in a praiseworthy but unenlightened desire for economy, have cut down the appropriations for this great enterprise to about half the amount stated by the director to be imperatively needed and to much less than half the amount required to make a thoroughly full and satisfactory presentation of the census facts. Every lover of efficiency should enter an urgent protest against such a short-sighted policy. What would be thought of the business manager whose first act of economy was to discharge the bookkeeper and throw away the ledger? Yet that is precisely what is done in so far as our government curtails its activities in keeping proper account of that most important element of our national resources—our population.

It is unfortunate that supplies are always begrudged to statistical work of any description,

<sup>1</sup>The extent to which the use of machinery has displaced the old hand tally methods is explained in the forepart of the magazine.

due largely to the general prejudice against statistics. The average man is repelled by long, dry columns of figures, and will not try to understand them. Consequently he thinks them useless, and their preparation merely an excuse for drawing fat salaries. And it is the average man, to a great extent, who controls the purse-strings.

But, after all, these dry "statistics" of our census give the basal facts by which any effective direction of social and political forces must be guided. Indeed, there is hardly a scrap of information in the many bulky volumes of the twelfth census which has not been used to practical purpose and found invaluable by some worker along some line of social advance, and there has been crying need for more—much more information than that census afforded.

Peculiarly short-sighted, too, is the special disinclination to allow money for the proper working up and presentation of results after the facts are collected. Such economy simply means a waste of money already expended. If the public cannot have the results, why collect the facts? In the New York state census of 1905 were gathered numerous items with regard to population on the same basis as the federal census, and under the direction of one of its officers. But the only results published were the bare numbers of the population in different districts.

All classes of social workers consider it most desirable to have statistics of the larger cities given by smaller units, as far as possible by single blocks. In point of numbers and variety of population the large cities are surely entitled to this. The city of New York alone has a larger population than any single state in the Union excepting the one in which it is situated and the two which contain the two remaining cities of over a million population. Its single blocks range in number of residents from the ordinary small town, which is tabulated separately as a matter of course in the census, to the fairly good sized city. And within the city's boundaries there is greater variety in the characteristics and composition of population in the different blocks than would be found in all the counties of some of the farming states of the Middle West.

In the large cities arise some of our most acute social problems, and to deal with them adequately we must know, not simply their general extent, but just where they are localized.





CARD TABULATING MACHINE—FRONT VIEW

In measuring our success in improving health conditions, for example, we may be positively misled by a low average death rate for an entire city. Statistics by small districts might show that the low average concealed plague-spots of disease in certain quarters which should be made the center of attack, and that while progress had been made in reducing diseases peculiar to certain occupations and age-groups, those characteristic of other classes were gaining headway. The proper placing of the various remedial agencies in social work,—social settlements, playgrounds, schools and parks—depends on a knowledge of the distribution of the different elements of population. This the federal census ought to give us.

This need has been so deeply felt that before the taking of the present census a committee of social workers in New York, called together by Lawrence Veiller, urged the director of the census to undertake the preparation of statistics for New York city by blocks for the more crowded sections and by forty-acre districts for the entire territory.

Other large cities were invited to join in such a request, and did so. The director of the census was entirely favorable to the plan, and took the necessary steps for its adoption. But, owing to the lack of funds, the nearest approach to block statistics for New York city was given in a publication by enumeration districts—some covering less than and some much more than a block—of statistics of total population, without subdivision by nationality, sex or age. And now we understand that the results by forty-acre districts are to lie unpublished until the city or some private organization is ready to pay the expense of issuing them.

This is entirely wrong; it should not be left to any one community or organization to decide what facts should be published. A city govern-

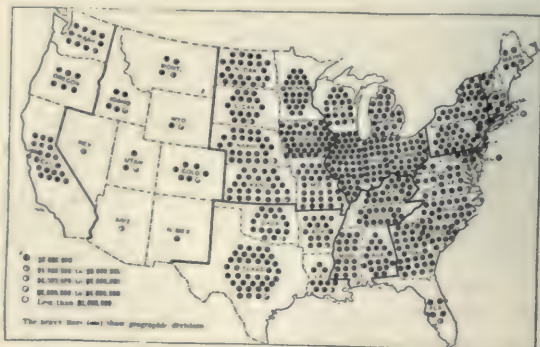
ment might be the last to desire the publication of detailed facts about the territory under its jurisdiction. A private organization which had expended its money for these results might be unwilling to share its knowledge with others, might, in fact, use this in a money-making enterprise, and in any case, the private organization should not be asked to divert its funds from the urgent business of social betterment to that of discovery of conditions. The facts regarding any one of our great cities are the concern of the nation, and the nation should give them out.

It is not too late even now to secure the publication of these statistics. The material is collected. The Census Bureau is a permanent organization. All that is needed is a small additional appropriation. The additional cost for New York city is estimated at only about five thousand dollars, including printing. Could not our social workers try again to get this?

### *The First Volume for 1910*

Turning to the first complete volume before us, we find it issued under the title *Abstract of the Census*, but containing something entirely different from what we are accustomed to see under that name.

The "abstract" of former censuses was a compact little book, giving in the most condensed form possible the main statistical tables relating to the United States as a whole, to the states and to the principal cities. No explanatory text accompanied these. Little space was assigned to comparisons with any former census, and no attempt was made to show the real significance of the facts by maps or diagrams or by computation of percentages or averages. For all interpretation of the figures the reader had to turn to the brief introductory sections of one volume after another of the main series of the census, and for detailed information about any one locality or any one subject of special interest had to search through many scattered pages besides.



VALUE OF FARM CROPS, 1909

The total for each state is obtained by adding the values of the dots and circles



This method of presentation put the government to the heavy expense of sending every one of its great books to everybody who needed to use the census at all, and put the recipient to the embarrassment of finding storage room for the long line of blue-backed elephants which kept coming and coming.

The purpose of the new arrangement is to give the majority of the users of the census all they are liable to need in one volume, and, so far as possible, all they are likely to need at one time in one place in it.

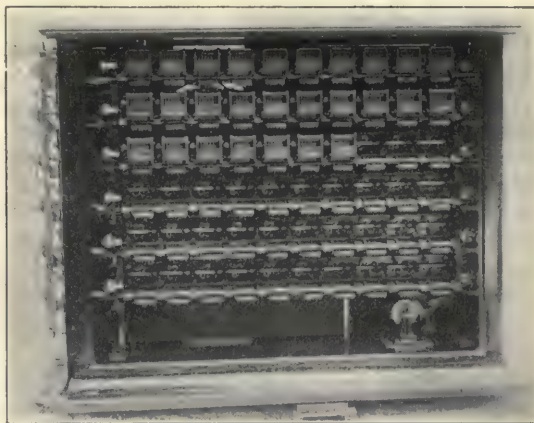
The present "abstract" is intended to be this one volume. It is divided into two sections, the first and longest being the abstract proper. This covers the four principal branches of inquiry taken up by the census—population, agriculture, manufactures, and mines and quarries—and is complete as to all the subjects under these four branches except for occupations and one or two minor inquiries of the population schedule, the data for which have not been fully tabulated.

The "abstract" appears at first glance to be simply a collection of the various explanatory texts formerly given as prefaces to the separate volumes. Here are the diagrams, the maps, the computations, the comparisons, and the discussion of the meaning of all these and of the tables that characterized those introductions. But it is more than this. Here also are all the general tables which the present census will give, in close connection with the text explaining them.

### *The State Supplements*

The second section consists of a state supplement, giving in greater detail than is afforded in the abstract the statistics for that state. This combination of an "abstract" of the kind here found and a detailed state supplement is the most novel and interesting change in method of presentation in the new census, and is the device by which the output on the general mailing list can be reduced to one volume from the dozen or more of the former census.

It is presumed that beyond the general facts every one wants to know, the interest of any



CARD TABULATING MACHINE—REAR VIEW

one person in local details (which bulk so largely in the older censuses) will not as a rule extend beyond the state in which he resides. For distribution in each state, then, a different edition of the "abstract" is issued, with a supplement for that state, the matter of the abstract proper being identical in each edition.

The new volume is attractive in make-up, but in some details betrays the prevailing economic stringency. A cheaper grade of paper, apparently, has been used, which makes the book agreeably light to handle, but allows the imprint to strike through a little and gives a limp handful of pages to turn. Some of the tabulations are so badly crowded that their use makes patience a virtue and spectacles a necessity.

The maps and diagrams are on too small a scale to be entirely satisfactory and printed as they are on the ordinary page paper are less distinct than we should like. We hoped that to supplement these there was still to be issued a statistical atlas of as fine workmanship as that embodied in the census report of 1900. Such an atlas places directly under the eye the very process of growth of the different elements treated in a way that no tabulation or description and no roughly worked out diagram can effect.

But we regret to learn that it is by no means likely that such an atlas can be published, also owing to insufficient appropriation. The most that can be hoped for is the assembling of all the present black and white maps and diagrams in one volume printed on somewhat better paper than is used in the ordinary text volumes.

The method of draughting the maps is good, and we note an ingenious new device for indicating amount of product, shown in the accompanying diagrams of the value of manufactures and farm crops.

In general, the changes in arrangement and presentation are admirable. They are all along the line of the general purpose of the new plan



VALUE OF MANUFACTURES, 1909

The white circles and black dots range in value from \$37,500,000 each to \$150,000,000.



of getting together in one place what will be needed at one time. The most noticeable change is the closer connection of text and tables. In the presentation of any subject, text and tables have been treated as a unit, the tables being either inserted in the text or placed immediately after it. The maps and diagrams also have, as far as possible, been printed in immediate connection with the subject referred to.

#### *The Handling of Details*

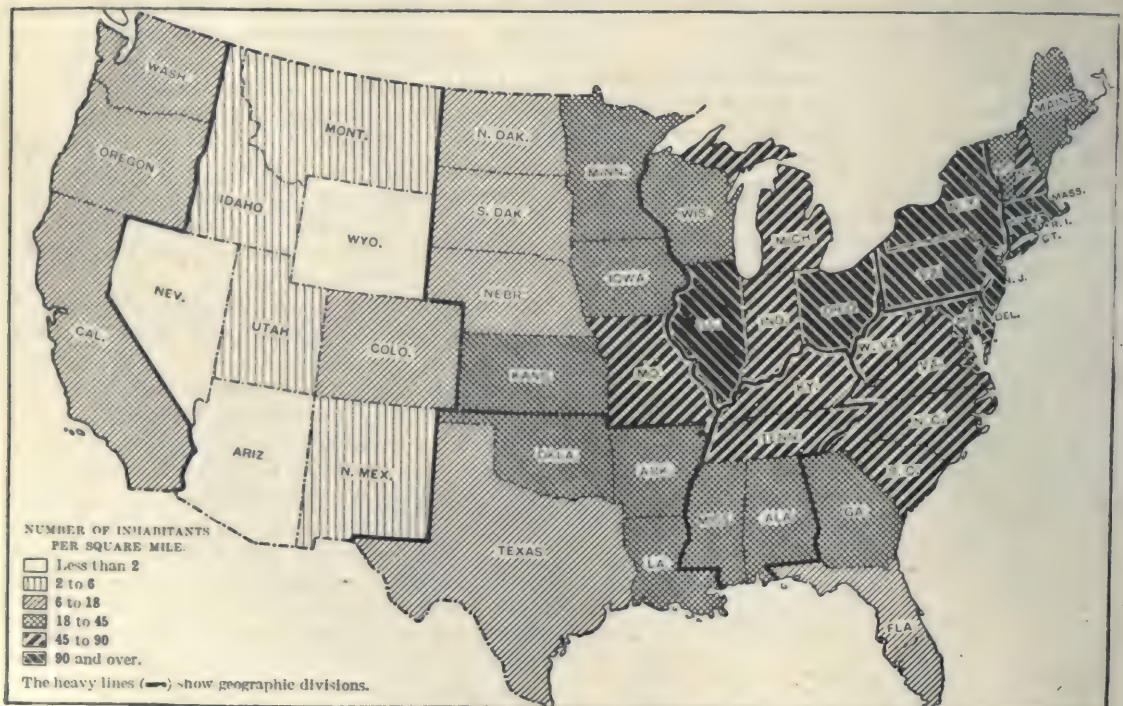
The five geographic divisions of the twelfth census have been subdivided, to correspond with the growth and diversification of our population, into nine, each covering a group of states fairly alike in physical character as well as in the characteristics of their population and their economic and social conditions, while each differs sharply from most others in these respects. Again, these nine subdivisions are regrouped in certain tables into three great sections—the North, the South and the West.

In the principal state tables the alphabetic order of the last census has been replaced by a geographic order, leaving the state under the heading of its own geographic division, which makes it easier to compare conditions in contiguous states, or to summarize facts for like units.

The state supplement, which is in itself the greatest innovation, shows the greatest inno-

vations in arrangement. This, like the abstract, covers statistics of population (exclusive of occupation statistics), agriculture, manufacture and mining, and embraces all of the census results to be published concerning that state. The supplement now before us is for Maine, and gives all the facts in the brief compass of eighty pages. Apparently nothing essential is left out. In fact, there is more detail than was formerly given. Here are given summary tables relating to the state as a whole, detailed tables for counties, and for cities, and, finally, for subdivisions of the larger cities. Accompanying these is a full explanatory text, a feature never before attempted for the separate states.

The facts about population, agriculture, manufactures and mining are given in different chapters, but for any one subject the arrangement is such that all data pertaining to one locality are grouped together, with the exception of some repetitions in summary tables. When we see given in a single page for the city of Portland, for example, the total population at successive censuses from 1870 to date, the percentages of increase worked out for the last two decades; the color and nativity of the population, with comparisons for 1900, and percentage of the total population at both censuses; sex, subdivided by color, country of birth of the foreign-born, males of voting age by nativity and color, with comparisons and percentages; illiteracy and school



POPULATION PER SQUARE MILE, BY STATES, 1910

The original of this map appears on page 29 of the Abstract of the Thirteenth Census of the United States



attendance by age, color and nativity, practically each figure of which would have had to be extracted from a different page of the old census, and from a different volume in many cases, we realize how much labor has been saved us, and how much more freely the census facts are likely to be used when given in so convenient a form.

It also makes us long for a similar supplement for New York city. If Maine, with her three-quarters of a million population, can have eighty pages of detailed analysis, why not New York city, with her five millions? What an interesting book it would be! So, too, would be the book for Chicago, and Philadelphia and St. Louis, and San Francisco and Boston. Cannot the principal cities ask for them and get them?

#### *Complete Editions for Special Students*

This combination of abstract and one state supplement in one volume is an admirable plan to meet the needs of most uses of the census. There are a few people, however, who have no occasion for the state supplements, and for their use a separate edition of the abstract, apart from any state supplement, is in preparation.

On the other hand, a comparatively large class—special students of social and economic conditions or the many national societies devoted to social betterment of various kinds, for example, are interested in details from all the states. To meet their needs a full set of reports will be issued comprising the abstract volume above mentioned, the contents of all the state supplements, and analytical discussions of special topics relating to population, agriculture and manufactures. Those parts of the various state supplements relating to population will be bound together to form two volumes on population, two more volumes will contain the state sections on agriculture, and one, the sections on manufactures. The volumes dealing with special topics will contain all the data regarding states and large cities which appear in the various state supplements, the order being rearranged so as to assemble all the information about any given subject in one place.

There will also be issued a series of pamphlets, each containing an entire state supplement—population, agriculture, manufactures and mining combined, chiefly for the use of libraries which have special state collections. It is hard to imagine a more ingenious plan to give maximum service at minimum expense.

Most of the general results of the census given in the abstract volume before us have already been given to the public by piecemeal. But marshalled here for the first time, they make a more definite impression.

In the decade ending in 1910 nearly 16,000,000 persons were added to the population—an increase of 21 per cent—which is the first gain in



CARD PUNCHING MACHINES IN OPERATION  
Partial view of one room in census building

rate since 1860. The gain is slight, and may be merely an accidental variation. It may, however, be the first indication of a shifting of economic base from agriculture to manufacture that will have far-reaching social results. This seems to be suggested by the fact that while the less densely settled agricultural divisions of the far West showed the highest rates of increase, their absolute gain amounted to less than 3,000,000 of the total 16,000,000 for the whole country, while the strongly industrial states of New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, making up the Middle Atlantic group, with a low rate of increase (higher, however, than the average for the country), gained nearly 4,000,000 inhabitants.

#### *Some Grand Groups of Facts*

Notwithstanding the great increase in immigration of the last two decades, the foreign-born have maintained about the same relative proportion to the general population since 1860. In 1910 they constituted 14.5 per cent of the whole, and their absolute increase is a little over 3,000,000. Second generation foreigners made up 20.5 per cent. This element in the population, unlike the foreign-born, has been steadily increasing in relative importance since 1870, and



the actual additions between 1900 and 1910 were about 3,250,000. The Negro population, on the other hand, has dropped from 15.7 per cent of the total population in 1850 to only 10.7 per cent in 1910. Less than a million of the total increase for the last decade was furnished by them.

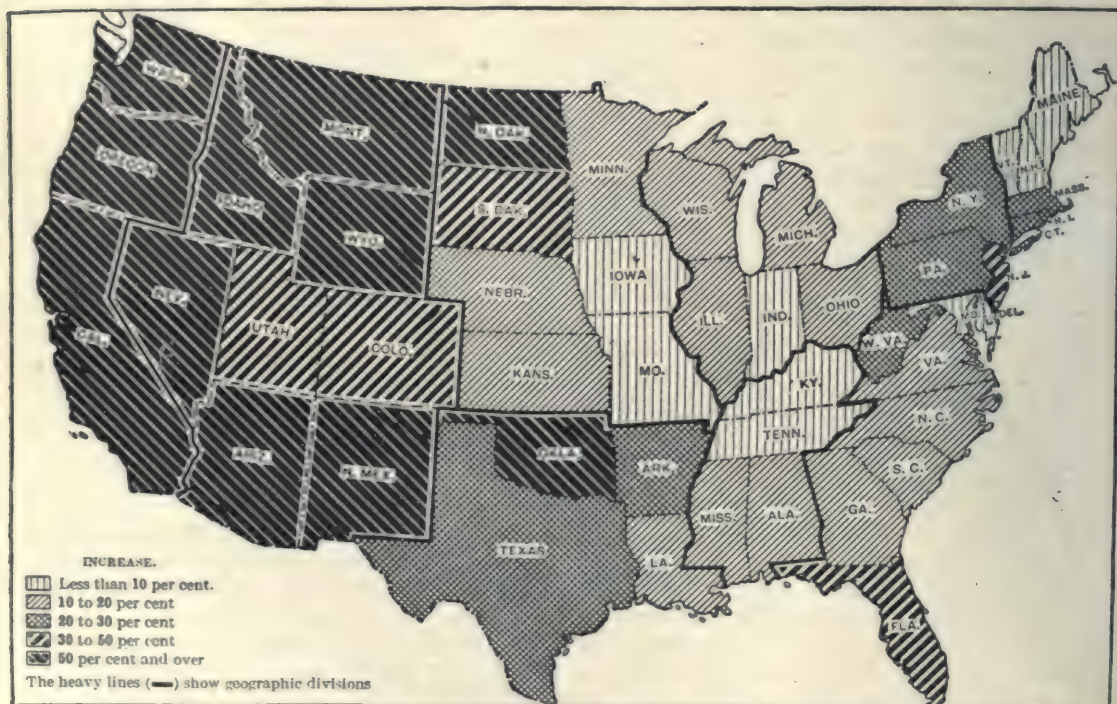
In the southern divisions, where they make up from one-fourth to one-third of the population, their relative statistical importance has declined materially since 1900. And they are being supplanted, not by foreigners of the first or second generation, but by native white people of native parentage. On the other hand, this purely native element has dropped from 50 per cent to 40 per cent of the population in New England, and from 48 to 44 per cent in the Middle Atlantic States, with a corresponding gain in foreigners of the first and second generation. This reflects the growing part played by the foreign-born in our industrial life. For of the 4,000,000 total increase in the Middle Atlantic States, over a million and a half were foreign born. The net result of the racial changes in the United States has been a constantly decreasing proportion of the native whites of native parentage from 1860, when they constituted nearly 60 per cent of the total population, to 1910, when they were just short of 54 per cent, a little over one-half.

The present census takes account of the change

in character of immigration within the last two decades by grouping separately the foreign-born from northwestern and from southern and eastern Europe. In 1900 67.8 per cent of all the foreign-born were from northwestern Europe; in 1910 only 50 per cent. In 1900 only 17.7 per cent were from the South and East; in 1910 the proportion had mounted to 37.4 per cent—still considerably short of the northerners. Of the 5,000,000 southern and eastern Europeans in the country in 1910, over 1,700,000 were from Russia, 1,670,000 from Austria, and 1,343,000 from Italy.

### *New Classifications*

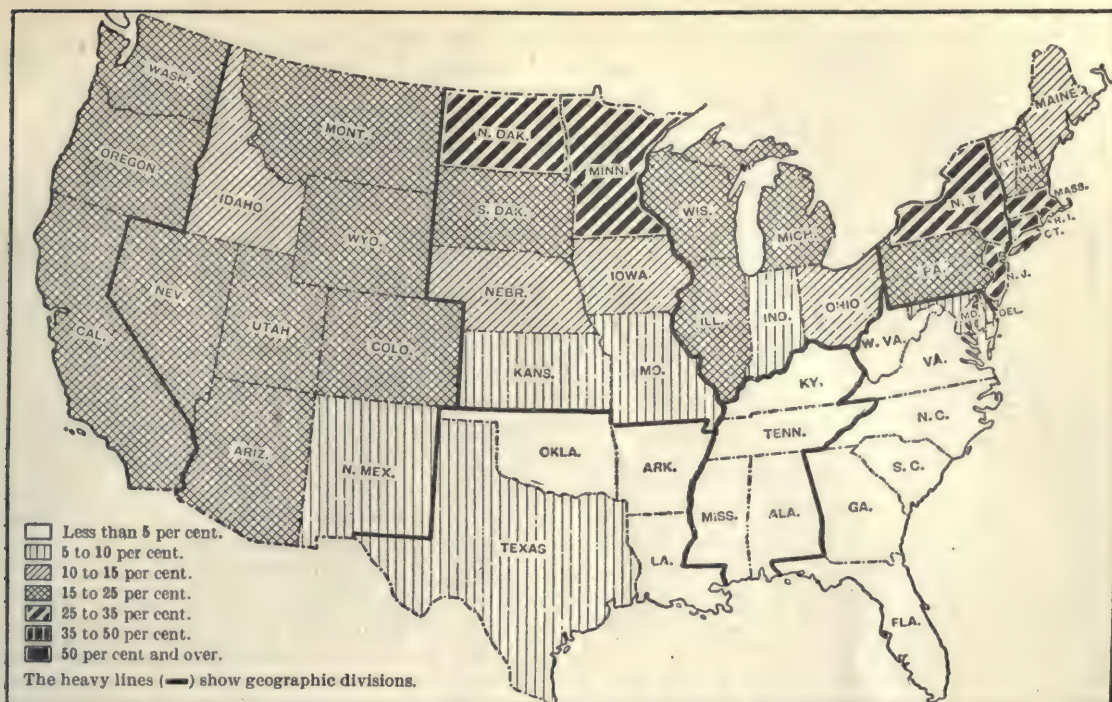
The material afforded in this abstract tempts to endless quotation and combination in following up only a few of the highly significant facts it reveals. For the first time the foreign-born are classified according to mother tongue, which allows us to see the actual racial divergence under a common nationality. The foreign-born are also classified according to the date of immigration as a means of determining what proportion of the immigrants of each year or period of years had remained in this country and were still living. A study of the growth of cities is helped by the present census grouping of large cities with their suburbs and natural dependencies, in metropolitan districts, and by grouping of cities



PER CENT OF INCREASE IN TOTAL POPULATION, BY STATES, 1900-1910

This map appears on page 23 of the Abstract





PERCENTAGE OF FOREIGN BORN WHITES IN TOTAL POPULATION, 1910

"For the first time the foreign-born are classified according to mother tongue. The foreign-born are also classified according to the date of immigration as a means of determining what proportion of the immigrants of each year or period had remained in the country."

according to size with their rates of increase. The chapters on age and marital condition are scholarly studies of population facts which have little popular interest, but are basal to any thorough understanding of the other subjects. We could wish, however, that statistics for divorced persons had been kept entirely separate from the married and widowed, as at present we are not able to work out in detail a matter which is of interest to many.

The statistics of state of birth of the native population enable us to trace the extent of interstate migration, which in 1900 had resulted in 20.6 per cent of the population being found living outside the state in which they were born, and in 1910 in 21.7 per cent of the population out of their native boundaries.

The chapters on illiteracy and school attendance give a comforting or discomfoting impression of progress, according to the way the figures are looked at. It is cheering to note that the percentage of illiteracy in the population of ten years of age and over has decreased from 17 in 1880 to 7.7 in 1910; that the rate for natives of native parentage has dropped from 7.5 in 1890 to 3.7; that the second generation of foreigners show the phenomenally low rate of 1.1 per cent, and that, notwithstanding the great in-

crease of immigration from countries in which the rate of illiteracy is high, foreign-born whites show an actual decrease in illiteracy from 13.1 per cent in 1890 to 12.7 in 1910.

On the other hand, it seems inexcusable that in the year 1910 there should be over 295,000 native white persons of native parentage, ten years of age, in the northern states who can not read and write; 46,294 in the far western states, and 1,118,573 in the southern states. And that the total number of illiterates of native white birth and parentage is exactly four-fifths of the total number of illiterate foreign whites.

All the above topics are taken up in the section of the abstract devoted to population alone. The sections on agriculture and manufacture afford just as significant indices of our national growth, and are as carefully prepared.

It is to be hoped that no changes in governmental policy will disturb the present careful organization of the Census Bureau, but, rather, that more ample financial support will be given to enable it to carry out with full effectiveness the excellent plans that have been conceived and inaugurated, and that we may expect, year by year, a series of special studies as full and as interesting as those made for the twelfth census.



# THE CANAL BUILDERS

EDWARD T. DEVINE

**T**HIS is not a survey but only a snapshot of the Canal Zone. The impressions were gained during a week in January of the seventh year since the zone was actually occupied by the builders, though it is nearly nine since the concession to build was obtained from the newly fledged government of Panama, the rights of the French company secured and the building of the canal undertaken.

Now is the best time of the seven years for the layman to visit the canal, for the huge locks, although nearly finished, are still empty; the lake, although fully impounded, still leaves uncovered much of the 164 square miles of swamp and jungle which it will cover; the great cut through the continental divide at Culebra is within a few feet of the bottom, in some places actually at the bottom, and yet the unconquered—though not unconquerable—slides still push their toes menacingly into the canal, as if the angry earth gods would show the puny engineers that they must not be too confident, at any rate of the precise date of their final triumph. The end is in sight. Water will go into the canal, whether it is ready or not, when the rains come, and dry excavation will have to be replaced by wet dredging if digging is still necessary, so the engineer of the Atlantic Division, who holds the dam and spillway and is responsible for the great lake, declares. And the engineer at Culebra still says, "Let it come," although at the very moment he is postponing for three months the date, which for two years and a half he had kept unchanged, for the completion of his task. This was made necessary because the Cucurache slide, having slept for a year, recently awoke and began to push again, to push harder than at any time since 1907 when it first troubled the American diggers, to push more angrily, more expensively; for after all it is mainly a matter of cubic yards, of weeks, and of dollars, and the division engineer has saved enough in other ways to be even yet within his estimates.

The end is in sight. Shops are concentrating, houses are being demolished where they are no longer needed, purchases of materials are made cautiously, army officers are speculating about future details, the Federation of Women's Clubs has held its last annual meeting. And yet, notwithstanding the unmistakable signs of an early end, there are at the moment more

men actually employed on the canal zone than at any previous time—over 40,000. The whole organization is working at its maximum capacity. Long after the recruiting of labor was stopped as being no longer necessary, 500 Negroes are again on their way from the Barbadoes. Steam shovelers at Culebra and lock gate mechanics at Gatun are engaged in a display of well-directed competitive energy—each determined not to be the limiting factor that will delay the completion of the great enterprise. And up at Culebra, in the operating headquarters, the chairman of the commission and his engineers and aids are no doubt keeping an eye on the distribution of money, men, and materials with a view to a symmetrical and well-timed rounding out of all parts of the work, so as to satisfy the just expectations of the nation whose trusted agents they are.

Yes, this is the time to see the canal. The hospitals and the penitentiary are in smooth working order. The quarters supplied by the authorities are fully occupied—congested at some places, the official reports say—and besides, whole villages of unofficial commercial tenements are crowded, really congested, with "silver" laborers and their families. Congestion of population and extortionate rents are among the sights of the canal zone which may be less in evidence next year than this. The "red light" districts of Panama and Colon will no doubt remain, at least for a while, and the lottery (for these are not on the canal zone); and the overcrowding in those two cities will continue unless the United States, through its new civil government in the canal zone, decides to extend its sanitary regulations and police surveillance, as the treaty with Panama gives it the right to do if it deems it expedient. At present residents of Colon and Panama are required to install a sanitary toilet and to supply their dwellings with running water. Sewers, drains, and paving are also constructed under sanitary direction. Otherwise there is no interference with domestic arrangements, and the local regulations do not insure safety against any such dangers as those from fire, congestion, or the greed of landlords. Whether the Chinamen, the canal zone employes, and others who build the flimsy tenements and rent them at \$10 in gold a month for each room are all making a big return on their investment, may, of course, be



a question. Building materials are expensive and the harvest time is short. Not all speculative builders get rich, even in the cities of the North. But it seems a safe guess that the income from rentals should balance the cost of construction in about six months.

No doubt many people suppose that all the laborers and their families are housed by the government, just as they are fed, at fixed prices, from the official messes and commissary. But that is not the case. What the commission undertook to do was to furnish "bachelor quarters," i. e., for laborers, bunks in large dormitories, and, for more highly paid white employes, comfortable rooms, each shared by several men, with adjoining shower baths, screened verandas, etc. It was also expected that "so far as practicable" married men in the more responsible positions who wished to bring their families would be provided with "married quarters." Reduced rates on the New York steamers are secured for wife and children only after "married quarters" are actually assigned. At present there are over 700 applications for such accommodations on file which cannot be considered favorably, for lack of the necessary buildings. Those who choose to bring their families or to establish new households without having obtained the privilege of "married quarters" must therefore pay rent or build for themselves. Many of the Negroes do the latter, and their shacks in the brush are a feature of the landscape all along the line of the canal. They are the aristocrats of the zone, free from landlord's extortion, free to work as much or as little as they please, cultivating a little ground, buying what they like from the commissary, untroubled for the most part even by the sanitary authorities. They are about as healthy and vigorous as their more industrious and better fed neighbors, although they have some malaria most of the time, and die quickly of tuberculosis or pneumonia, if either attacks them.

The larger number, however, of the Spanish and West Indian laborers who depart from the free "bachelor quarters" do so to take up their residence in the commercial tenements of the speculative builders. These tenants represent the more industrious, more dependable, better paid, and it must be confessed, so far as rent is concerned, more exploited part of the population. Their dwellings are often unscreened, the children are bitten unmercifully by insects, their death rate is high, co-habitation is not always preceded by marriage, as it is supposed to be in "quarters," though the clergymen try to bring this about whenever possible. Private physicians of no great learning or capacity drive a flourishing practice, easily persuading the gullible Negroes that, because of their

higher price, their remedies must be worth more than those furnished free or at a nominal charge by the authorities. Even the lawyer hangs out his card unblushingly and finds plenty of clients—notwithstanding the chairman's Sunday morning court in which justice is "dispensed" without fee or technicality.

Among the ingenious inventions to which social conditions on the isthmus have given rise, first place must be given to the broad distinction between "gold employes", who are mainly white citizens of the United States, and "silver employes," who are divided among common laborers recruited in Spain, frequently referred to for brevity as Europeans, and black West Indians, who make up the bulk of the unskilled, and much of the skilled, laboring force on the Isthmus. To be sure the line is not strictly speaking either geographical or racial. A capable colored mechanic may be put on the "gold" pay roll and a Spaniard may now and then have that distinction; but speaking broadly the social problem is solved by the arbitrary classification into those who are paid in gold and those who are paid in the silver coin of Panama, the parity of which at a fixed ratio with the American gold dollar as a token currency is guaranteed by the government. There is no "Jim Crow car" on the Panama Railway; but there is a first and second class with separate coaches, and on work trains there are separate cars for "gold" employes. The patent subterfuge might make "trouble" in some parts of the country; but on the zone, with Negroes who are mainly British subjects, and "Europeans" who are accustomed to the idea of social classes, the plan seems to work satisfactorily.

The laborers on the zone are all well paid and well treated. They respond as might be expected. The Negroes especially, whether because of the superior education at home on the islands, or because of the discipline, the abundant food, and favorable health conditions on the isthmus, have amply justified their selection. The police force consists largely of Jamaicans and other West Indian Negroes who have previously served as soldiers in the British army. As teamsters they have shown extraordinary capacity for improvement and are now generally as trustworthy as any who could be found to manage the army mules. As pitmen around the feet of the almost human steam shovels they may aspire to count their wages proudly in gold, and even in the strong rooms of the treasurer and disbursing officer they are employed in places requiring intelligence and character.

Best of all, they do not threaten the safety of women, or furnish a marked disproportion of criminals. Of course, much of the crime with which the local courts deal does appear among them for the same reason that it appears among



the immigrants in the cities, because they are relatively "the poor," the part of the population which is paid least, has least at stake in the community, has least of opportunity and of outlook. Drinking, gambling, and other vices flourish as might unfortunately be expected. A devoted missionary who worked on the Isthmus long before the Americans came and who has seen all the revolutions and developments of more than a dozen years there, thinks that the Negroes have advanced in nearly every way under the influence of the conditions which have prevailed, though he thinks it not to their advantage that they have learned "American" ways of spending their Sundays in dissipation, or at best in pleasure excursions, instead of in the more quiet and orderly religious observances to which they had been accustomed in their West Indian homes. It would be easy to collect stories of the ignorance and childishness of many of these West Indians, as it is even easier to hear of their precocity and extraordinary imitative teachableness. One little youngster gravely informed a tourist that "the London policeman is most discriminating in the world, able to tell by looking at a man whether he is a law-breaking or a law-abiding citizen." "Were you ever in London?" asked the tourist. "No," said the lad, "except in my mind."

Another young man, who had been employed for a year or two as attendant in a dispensary "along the line," found himself alone at the noon hour when the doctor on duty was taking his siesta. When the doctor appeared he heard his colored aid say, "I did not want to disturb you, doctor, and so I sewed this man up myself." The patient was a Spaniard who had a four inch cut in his back. The operation seemed to have been perfectly performed and the closest questioning revealed that the amateur surgeon had used the right instruments, had disinfected his hands and the wound properly, had, in short, done the work just as he had often seen it done. Unfortunately, however, infection developed which made it necessary for the doctor afterwards to undo the work and deal with the consequences. Such things no doubt happen sometimes in the most correct operations, but the boy was instructed not to assume again so much responsibility.

The three departments of the canal zone administration which have greatest interest for the social worker are those of the quartermaster, which includes the recruiting of labor and the erection and management of "quarters"; sanitation, which includes not only preventive sanitation but also the management of hospitals and dispensaries; and civil administration, under which come the schools, the post office the courts and police, the jails and the penitentiary.

The chief quartermaster is Col. C. A. Devol,

U. S. A., who in San Francisco in 1906 made friends for the United States Army in every direction by the efficiency, sound judgment, and good sense with which he handled the relief supplies. This service was highly commended by General Greeley in his official report and was recognized by the American Red Cross in the award of one of the first gold medals conferred under its present charter. On the canal zone, as his friends in the army and in the Red Cross would naturally expect, he is showing the same unostentatious but efficient capacity, and there, as in the emergency relief work in San Francisco, the real importance of his functions is far greater than the uninitiated might suppose.

The sanitary department, for example, decides upon health policies, but whether the houses and settlements shall really be sanitary depends, of course, upon the way in which they are kept, the removal of night soil and garbage, the cutting of grass and digging of drains, and other services the actual performance of which devolves upon the quartermaster's department. Again, the policy as to what labor shall be employed may be determined by the commission, that is to say by the chairman, or by the secretary of war, or even by the President, but the actual recruiting of the labor, the transportation of laborers, the supply of quarters, the cleaning of their beds and the supply of their drinking water, all come within the province of the quartermaster.

By a coincidence in which the writer takes special pleasure, Chief Quartermaster Devol—who was a major when we were working side by side in San Francisco seven years ago and a colonel in Panama during the brief visit of which this is but an imperfect record—received by cable in that week the notice of his nomination to the rank of brigadier general. The promotion is somewhat tardy as he has served thirty-three years in the army and has on many occasions deserved well of his country. President Taft is said to have been especially desirous of promoting him before the expiration of his own term of office because he has been a good loser on previous occasions and borne no ill will against those whose rewards have come more promptly.

Of the chief sanitary officer there is not less to be said but perhaps even less occasion to say it. Colonel Gorgas had won international renown by his extraordinary achievements in Cuba, and it is enough to say that the luster of that renown has grown brighter by the success which has followed him through the entire history of the canal zone. He was fortunate in Havana in having General Wood as governor, and he has been fortunate on the isthmus in having to report to Colonel Goethals. But he richly deserves his good fortune in both instances, and the advantage has certainly been mutual. The story is summed up in the fact



that yellow fever is banished and malaria controlled. There are, of course, many deaths from accidents, from pneumonia, from tuberculosis, and some from malaria. The death rate on the zone for the last fiscal year, including the cities of Colon and Panama, was 19.82 per thousand. In 1906-7 it had been 42.08. The next year, with an increase of more than 25 per cent in the population, the actual number of deaths fell by 570 and the death rate to 27.67. The death rate among employes last year was 10.16 per thousand, but these are, of course, of selected age and resistance; and this must also be considered in comparing the death rate of the zone as a whole with that of normal communities. Colonel Gorgas was not assigned to the task of making a health resort though he has very nearly done so. What was expected of him was that he should make it possible for men to work on the canal with reasonable safety from preventable disease in the light of modern knowledge. This he did promptly and continues to do at the cost of eternal vigilance. We have no reason to cease to take pride in the brief typical announcement in the official report for December, 1912: "No case of yellow fever, small pox or plague originated on or was brought to the isthmus during the month."

The general index for health conditions on the isthmus, however, is the morbidity rate of malaria. Since 1904 this has been year by year per thousand as follows:

1904-5. . . . .	162
1905-6. . . . .	727
1906-7. . . . .	625
1907-8. . . . .	287
1908-9. . . . .	312
1909-10. . . . .	183
1910-11. . . . .	202
1911-12. . . . .	143

There is a high infant death rate: 1,212 deaths out of 3,163 last year being of children under five years of age, and 956 of these under one year. Pulmonary tuberculosis in all ages accounted for 293 deaths; malaria and malarial fever for 256, diarrhea and enteritis for 394, and Bright's disease for 146. There were 22 suicides.

School attendance is not compulsory, but is general and reasonably regular. In December, for example, the net enrollment in the white schools was 1,241, the average number belonging 1,095, and the average daily attendance 1,025. In the colored schools the enrollment was about the same, but the average daily attendance only about three-fourths as good. There is an efficient corps of teachers, most of whom have had professional training and experience. Five pupils were graduated from high

school last year. One colored school boasts a school garden. As might be expected, there is a system of medical inspection. Notwithstanding the transitory nature of the population, and the shifting conditions, as a result of which, for example, the high school is this year conducted at Ancon while last year it was at Gatun, the educational needs of the children may be said to be fairly met.

There is no law against child labor in the canal zone and the official regulations distinctly recognize Boy A and Boy B rates of pay, which are five and seven cents an hour respectively. The boys are mainly water carriers and messengers. On June 30, 1912, there were only three employes receiving the five cent rate and 351 the seven cent rate. Among the latter, however, there may have been some men who had been injured in the service of the commission or the railway and were capable of performing only light work.

It would be refreshing to review the work of the district, circuit and supreme courts, to discover to what extent they have been able to create new precedents and to escape from the useless formulae and traditions which impede the development of the law in more stable communities, but something more than the slight and superficial observations for a snap shot would be required for this purpose. The ordinary civil law is that of Panama, modified by specific acts of Congress, ordinances of the commission, and executive orders from the President and secretary of war. For the criminal courts there is a penal code not substantially different from those of the various states. But the courts have had to deal with conditions as they are, and we venture to think that a capable law student would find an interesting theme for a dissertation in the examination of the decisions and opinions of the current decade in the canal zone. In one sense it will soon be a completed chapter, as the higher courts will be abolished under the new civil government which is to succeed the commission, and justice will be represented thereafter in the person of a single magistrate. If there is to be an appeal from his decision, or if a writ of habeas corpus is to be secured to set at liberty any one who is confined in pursuance of his judgment, it will be necessary to make a long and expensive journey to the nearest regular circuit judge in Louisiana for the purpose.

There is no juvenile court in the canal zone, no probation system, and virtually no resources for dealing adequately with the by no means infrequent cases of genuine juvenile delinquency which occur. Dismissal with ineffectual reprimand or commitment to the penitentiary are the unwelcome horns of the dilemma which the district judge faces. Thanks to the women's clubs,



a separate part of the district jail is set apart for women offenders, but the segregation in practice is apparently not always effective, as in the Colon jail the only woman, a young West Indian awaiting deportation as a disorderly person, was holding animated converse with a convicted felon across the corridor. Probably, however, the attention of the efficient chief of police, who is responsible for the jails and penitentiary, has already long since been called to this oversight, and its recurrence prevented.

Capital punishment by hanging is practiced on occasion, although juries are slow to convict of the degree of murder which has that result. There are some 150 convicts in the penitentiary on an average, and they are employed largely in road building and other outdoor work. They wear the striped clothing of the state's prison tradition. Also, alas! for the first three months, while at work, they wear the *ball and chain*, which saves guards, and as the chief of police thinks, some lives, for if the convicts were not chained the guards would have to shoot more freely when escape is attempted. The ball and chain and the striped clothes are a rough means of classification, but it seems a little hard on a man sentenced for three months that the most exemplary conduct secures graduation from the lowest grade only on the expiration of his term.

An army officer was once conveying some military convicts from Fort Snelling to Fort Leavenworth, all of whom were heavily encumbered with the ball and chain. They came to a place in changing trains where it was necessary either to cross a trestle, which the prisoners could not do in their chains, or make a long and tedious detour. The officer did not relish the prospect and said as much, whereupon the leading spirit among the prisoners, after a look of free masonry among his comrades, said: "Captain, if you don't mind, just to accommodate you, we will take these things off." Without further permission or assistance, they sat down and pulled off their boots and the irons, carried them across the trestle and then all in good humor and patience put them on again. They had some misgivings as to whether other Fort Snelling prisoners might not lose the advantage of the arrangement which they had had with the the accommodating black-

smith. The canal authorities might possibly find that if they would let their convicts slip off the chain they would not only build more road, but would also get more safely over the difficult bit of road which separates the life of a criminal from that of a law-abiding citizen.

There is no space left to tell of a bit of infant life saving by two trained nurses among the passengers on the Panama railway and of the way in which the other passengers showed their appreciation and congratulations; or of a horse-back ride into the jungle where a rubber plantation, a little gold mining, and some cocoa bean curing punctuated the long sweep of brilliant flowers and luxuriant vegetation.

Nor is this the place to try to appreciate the services of Colonel Goethals and his assistants, Colonel Hodges and Mr. Rousseau, to tell the story of the achievements of Colonel Sibert at the Atlantic end, of Colonel Gaillard in the central division, of Mr. Williamson on the Pacific, of Mr. Goldmark's lock gates, of Colonel Wilson's hotels and commissary stores, of the excellent railway service, of the work which Mrs. Brown, Miss Beattie and their associates have done in the women's clubs, or even of Mr. Dickson's Y. M. C. A. club houses, the centers of the social life of the isthmus. Of these last I have naturally the most vivid and appreciative recollection, for it was in them mainly—at Cristobal, Gatun, Gorgona, Empire, and Culebra—that I had opportunity to meet the builders, from members of the commission down to messenger boys, and a superb lot of men and boys they are. All honor to them; for this that they are doing, unlike some of the misty and mythical marvels of antiquity, is a real wonder of the world. Every one who has a part in it is to be envied. Every one who has a chance even to see it is to be congratulated.

The social and sanitary problems of the canal zone are expected to disappear with the completion of the canal. For the word is that, except for the army and the few necessary canal employes, the zone is to be depopulated. This is now said to be the easiest means of defense against both armies and aeroplanes. Whether that is so or not, it is no doubt the easiest means of preventing yellow fever, malaria, congestion, illiteracy and immorality. If there is no life on the zone then the problems of life will be utterly simple.



A Y. M. C. A. CLUB HOUSE  
This building is at Empire, on the Canal Zone.



# THE MORAL NECESSITY OF "STATE FUNDS TO MOTHERS"

WILLIAM HARD

AUTHOR OF THE WOMEN OF TOMORROW

[Mr. Hard has been conducting a department in *The Delineator* for the last eighteen months on the subject of legislation affecting women and children in their homes. In the course of this work he has made inquiries into such topics as the property rights of married women, the joint guardianship of children, the rights of the widow in the property left by her husband, and the enforcement of non-support and desertion statutes. He printed one of the first magazine accounts of the "state funds to mothers" movement and has taken a favorable attitude toward it in the material sent from his office to newspapers and individuals now actively forwarding "state funds to mothers" legislation in various states.—Ed.]

**I**F we discuss "state funds for mothers" as a mere immediate "practical" proposition, we shall never be finished.

For instance, Mr. Carstens alleges a certain local transitory fact about "commitments" of children to institutions in Chicago. We are not thereby advanced. For I immediately set up the local transitory explanation of the fact.

The fact is (and Mr. Carstens places it first among his statistical offerings in his *SURVEY* article<sup>1</sup>) that in the first six months of 1912, with the new State Funds to Parents Law in operation, there were 125 more "dependent" children committed to institutions by the Chicago Juvenile Court than in the first six months of the previous year, 1911, when there was no such law being enforced.

The explanation lay ready to Mr. Carstens' hand.<sup>2</sup>

Certain "homes" and "asylums," in the first six months of the year 1911, were "private enterprises" in the full sense of the phrase. They were receiving children; but they were not receiving public pay for receiving children. Consequently the children were received, large numbers of them, without being "committed."

By the first of January, 1912, the racial-religious groups maintaining several of these "homes" and "asylums" had re-organized themselves, either in their old buildings or in new ones, under the training-school and industrial-school acts of the state of Illinois; had become competent to receive public pay for receiving children; and had begun to have children "committed" to them by the Juvenile Court, regularly and officially.

In addition to re-organizations there were certain totally new openings. In the first six months of 1911, for instance, there had been no institution

<sup>1</sup>See *Public Pensions to Widows with Children*, *The Survey*, January 4, 1913.

<sup>2</sup>He makes what may be, or what may not be, an allusion to this explanation when he concludes his paragraph on commitments by saying that "It is not reasonable to suppose that the granting of pensions has had the effect of increasing the number of children in institutions," and that the increase in question was due to "other causes." This relegation of unspecified "other causes" to the last sentence in a paragraph which specifically and prominently stated the effects of those causes has done an injustice and an injury to the "state funds to mothers" movement in the United States. I have heard the fact of that increase repeated time and again without the explanation. I want to give the explanation in full.

to which to "commit" dependent colored Catholic girls. In the first six months of 1912 there was the "Illinois Technical," established in the interim for that sole purpose.

Reorganizations and openings together brought into the "commitment" records a large number of children who previously would either have made their way to institutions privately without passing through the court or else would have been thrown back into the community, though deserving "commitment," because of the absence of institutions operated by persons of their own nationality and creed.

Accordingly, the "Polish Manual," "St. Hedwig's," the "Kinderheim," and the "Illinois Technical," which had no "commitments" at all in the first six months of 1911, had 143 in the first six months of 1912.

This increase of 143 overlaps Mr. Carstens' increase of 125 by a margin of 18; and it is mainly nothing but the recorded exhibit of certain racial and religious classes of minor dependency which had previously existed unrecorded. It means an increase not of cases deserving "commitment" but of facilities for receiving such cases and for receiving them at public expense and, therefore, under public scrutiny.

When we turn away from new institutions created to meet old unsatisfied needs and also from old institutions re-made to merit public pay for a continuance of work already being done, and when we confine our attention to institutions and to agencies which were having children "committed" to them in the first six months of both years with no shift of policy, we arrive at different results; for we find that the "commitments" to such institutions and agencies suffered a decline of 85.

I submit, therefore, that Mr. Carstens' fact is worthless.

I also claim that my explanation is equally worthless. It shows, at best, the probability of a small loss, rather than a small gain, in the number of "commitments" ordered out of comparable sections of the population in the two compared periods. Meanwhile, behind both fact and explanation, there stretches, answerless, the dreary query as to what standards, right or



wrong, varying or identical, were used in deciding on the commitments of individual children, case by case.

We can set our teeth to such tasks forever without gaining any nourishment. They are not food, but a sort of intellectual chewing-gum, producing much interesting factitious mastication but no important alimentary consequences.

The question of "state funds to mothers," like all other questions which have moral as well as technical implications, will be settled not mainly on the basis of immediate facts and results, but mainly on the basis of principle.

Even the best of us have principles.

When I observe Mr. Carstens' success in displaying the increase of commitments in Chicago and his failure to display, or perhaps to discover, the reason for that increase, I suspect him of adhering, even as I do, though oppositely, to a principle, a theory, a philosophy, on the whole subject of the State and the Individual.

My suspicion deepens as I proceed farther into his article and observe both his assumption that private charity can, and will, give adequate "relief" to the widow with dependent children and his conviction that private administration is, and must be, superior to public.

As an illustration of the assumed adequacy of the "relief" now furnished to such cases by existing agencies, I observe that the Commission on the Support of the Dependent Minor Children of Widowed Mothers in Mr. Carstens' own state of Massachusetts found, in studying 757 separations of children from widowed mothers, that 429 of them involved no unworthiness of either mother or child and that "in a clear majority of the 429 cases economic causes determined the separation."

In New York I challenge any charity expert to deny that a few days' work in the Children's Bureau will reveal hundreds of cases containing the following elements:

1. The mother is known (has been reported) to a private charity society.
2. She has one or more of her children in her home.
3. One or more of her children are in an institution.

Are these mothers "worthy" or "unworthy"? If "unworthy," the children with them are being injured. If "worthy," the children not with them are being outraged.

To the question "Is relief to widowed mothers now adequate?" the answer returned by charity people is either distinctly evasive or, as in the case of Patrick Mallon of the Brooklyn St. Vincent de Paul Society, deliberately negative. I never yet have encountered a clear-eyed affirmative.

In the 1911 report of the New York State

Board of Charities, at page 39, in the course of comment on the number of children in institutions in New York, the opinion is expressed that "there is practically every reason to believe that many [broken] family homes should be kept together" and that "this is particularly true in the city of New York where public outdoor relief has been long discontinued and where the private relief-giving agencies admit, practically with one accord, that their present means are inadequate to the task they have voluntarily assumed."

In Chicago, as Mr. Carstens says, "state funds to mothers" may next year cost \$200,000.

In only 10 per cent of the cases studied by him did Mr. Carstens find that the homes were such as should not be maintained. In 9 per cent of the cases he was in doubt. Let that 9 per cent be deprived of the benefit of the doubt. Let 10 plus 9 per cent of the \$200,000 be regarded as waste. There remains \$162,000 to go into homes of social value.

Few homes will be excessively subsidized.

To be sure, Mr. Carstens says: "It must be conceded that where an average of \$23.28 (a month) is provided for each family, temptations come to spend money recklessly and foolishly, even in some of the better families."

I do not envy Mr. Carstens the multitudinous concern with which he must gaze at the masses of women to whom their husbands or their husbands' wills or their husbands' insurance policies each month deliver a sum considerably in excess of \$23.28 to be expended in all manner of indiscreet living utterly unregulated by the agents of any of our private charities.

I find, however, when I come to Mr. Carstens' tabulation of his inquiries that in answering the question "Is the relief given by the court adequate?" he says "Yes" for only sixty-one of his hundred cases, while for thirty-nine of them he says "No."

I find, further, that certain types of cases are now being recommended back to the private charities by the court because the rules of administration adopted by the court do not permit, for these cases, a "pension" large enough to provide for the needs of the family. The judge wishes to confide such cases, exceptionally, to the particular attention of the private charities rather than break a set of rules which at the present time seem to him to be demanded by the novelty of the "state funds to mothers" system.

In Chicago, as in Kansas City, the policy of the court, during this experimental period, errs (by intention) toward parsimony. The system is untried and the merit of it must be demonstrated to the tax-payers on a scale small enough not to arouse uninformed hostility.

Do I then admit an element of inadequacy in the Chicago and Kansas City "state funds to mothers" systems? Most frankly. I admit it



for the public systems, just as I charge it against the private. But I note the reason why the public systems have come into existence and I note the relative prospects of private and public enterprise in this country.

The public systems came into existence with the approval and assistance and sometimes through the spontaneous personal exertions of Juvenile Court judges who, in cities plentifully supplied with charity societies, had observed, with their own eyes, children suffering for necessities or committed to institutions through no fault whatsoever of their own or of their mother's. If private charity was adequate, its sphere of influence did not extend to the court rooms of Judge Wilbur of Los Angeles, Judge Porterfield of Kansas City, Judge Pinckney of Chicago, Judge Neely of Milwaukee, and Judge Lindsey of Denver.

The public system in Chicago, devoting itself almost exclusively to that one phase of child poverty which is caused by the death of the father, discovers, even under a rigorous and parsimonious set of rules, an appropriate scene for the expenditure of \$162,000.

The private societies, with all other phases of child poverty, to say nothing of adult poverty, crying to them, are, in turn, crying to the benevolent for subscriptions, just as before, and most rightly and meritoriously. They are not complaining either of lack of work or of surpluses in their treasuries.

What chance then do they think they would have had of raising, for next year, on behalf principally of just one type of case, "the widowed mother with dependent children," the sum of \$162,000 in excess of their present budgets? And if they think they could have raised it, why did they fail to raise it last year and the year before last?

To these questions there is no answer except the one currently given, namely, that the private societies, though not giving "adequate relief," were, and are, moving toward the giving of it, rapidly.

A typically "private-enterprise-individual-initiative" position is taken in this matter by many of the opponents of "state funds to mothers." They say that the private charities can rise to the level of adequacy and that the public systems are much less likely to do so, because, as one of the leaders of one of the largest charities in Chicago expressed it to me the other day, the resources of private charity are "virtually unlimited," while the resources of the public treasury are "fixed."

May I be pardoned for saying, in the midst of an otherwise moderately good-natured argument, that this is what I have been hearing for years from traction people and real-estate exchanges and bond-holders' committees and all the other

elements in society which seem to believe that there is money enough in the world for all luxuries except taxation?

The advocates of "state funds to mothers," on the contrary, are among those who believe that if the money is there to be contributed to the private societies it is there to be coerced into the public treasury, and that the coercion is going to happen.

Here, again, I am convinced, we split not on facts but on principles, policies. Mr. Carstens would improve the situation by whipping up the business man in his capacity as philanthropist. I would whip up that same man in his capacity as tax-payer. From his own standpoint, incidentally, and for the good of his own soul, since he has to pay the bill anyway, and ought to pay it, I would have him do so in the manner least calculated to tempt him toward thinking that he is performing an act of moral grandeur when he is really performing an act of elementary civic routine.

We split once more on principles when we come to the matter of the supervision of the families receiving stipends from "state funds to mothers."

I concede the basis which exists for severe criticism of the character of the work done by certain of the supervisory probation officers of the Chicago Juvenile Court.

It would, of course, have been generous in Mr. Carstens if he had taken pains to point out the fact that those officers were engaged in a work still new to all of them; that the Juvenile Court was in the midst of passing through political troubles unprecedented for violence; that the unique (and I use the word advisedly, for there can never be more than one Bartzén) temperament of the president of the County Board, happening upon a moment when the very method of appointing probation officers was in litigation, resulted in the presence of many sixty-day temporary appointees among the probation officers; and that at no previous time in the history of the court could an investigator have found so propitious an occasion for criticism of a hostile sort.

It was a period now coming to an end. The courts have lodged the appointive power in the hands of the judiciary, and new examinations for chief probation officer and for deputy probation officers numerous enough to form a majority of the probationary force have been held by a committee, the members of which (Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, Sherman C. Kingsley, Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, Rev. C. J. Quill and Leonora Meder) are certainly not likely to be suspected, as a body, of a failure to understand and to appreciate both "civil service" and "social service" ideals.

I believe that an improvement in the public service may reasonably be expected. Such must be the hope of every person who believes that the



future is worth encountering. If there is any person who thinks that the public service cannot learn how even to administer a "pension fund" to widows, he has cast aside his heritage in democracy. He has despaired of the republic. He may be right, in the end; but the game of trying to render this planet tolerable will go on without him.

I observe that the public service does improve. And I observe that it improves especially in communities such as Wisconsin in which the functions of the state are farthest extended and in which ambitious men incline toward going into public life rather than into the service of reform organizations. The way to get reformers into public life is to have a public life for them to go into.

Even with an improvement in public service, however, the supervision given to widows with dependent children by public officials will be different, we may not only admit but hope, from the supervision given to them by the agents of private charity societies.

If we incline toward the gradual recognition of the principle of the endowment of motherhood, we shall devote special attention to the development of those policies which will give, not supervision, but instruction, possibly compulsory, to all mothers,—not merely to some of them, but to all. The public school nurses, the public visiting housekeepers, the public district doctors, the public health inspectors will carry their lessons down every street and will maintain principally by precept but in appropriate cases by ordinance, certain standards of child life in households in which the father is alive as well as in households in which the father is dead.

We can see the beginnings of such processes already in the educational activities of municipal milk stations and in the punitive activities of truant officers. In neither of these cases is there any of that "I-am-responsible-for-your-general-development-as-a-human-being" supervision which is bestowed on a dependent. The milk and the instruction about milk are given. The child who has failed to come to school is made to come. The contact is without favor on the one side and without obligation on the other. And it involves the wife as well as the widow.

In the case of the widow, if the state agents administering "state funds to mothers" establish the fact that the husband is dead and that the widow is no worse now than she was before his death, when she had the children, we shall cause her to be able financially to continue to have them and we ultimately shall not regard her as deserving any superior amount of supervision merely because her husband has died.

Mr. Carstens himself looks forward to a state of this kind. He speaks favorably of the principle of social insurance.

What sort of supervision, we may ask, will follow the principle of social insurance? The widow is in receipt of a monthly or weekly income from the insurance fund. That fund is established by coercion. The dead husband and father had a certain amount of money taken out of his wages each pay-day and retained by his employer forcibly to go into a treasury private perhaps but clearly owing its existence to public enactment and regulation. The formal state treasury itself, fed by taxation, could not be more impersonal. The money that comes to the widow will not have been earned by her. To her it will be money that comes without effort. It ought, if such money implies supervision, to be supervised. But what scheme of social insurance, existing or proposed, in this or in any other country, ever provided that supervision should be extended to its beneficiaries by the skilled social-service experts in the employ of private charity societies or even by public officers? The widow will spend her insurance stipends as she pleases and will maintain her family on them in her own way as long as she does not fall below those general standards of morality and efficiency to which every mother, without exception, must rise if she is not to be deprived of her children by general operation of juvenile court law.

I cannot but regard it as incautious of Mr. Carstens to conclude an article the principal point of which is the need of an expert private supervision, technical and intimate, with an advocacy of a system under which no such supervision will be in vogue.

The advent of universal compulsory insurance would be welcomed, so far as I know, by advocates of "state funds to mothers." It occurs to us, however, that several years will pass before we are able to welcome it throughout this country in any even partial form and that many years will pass before we are able to welcome it perfected. In the interim our view of the sort of supervision necessary in the case of the widowed mother makes it possible for us agreeably to accept the probation officer as a temporary substitute for that still less supervisory person, the distributing agent of the insurance fund.

We accept him and we propose to provide him with sufficient funds for his duties. We also propose to build up about him a system so large finally that it will compete on equal terms with the private charity societies for the services of especially intelligent and forceful young men and women.

Somewhere,—and wherever we can,—we must break the stalemate which threatens to keep the public charities department inferior because the efficient men and women are in the private charities, and which threatens to keep the efficient men and women in the private charities because the public charities department is inferior.



The case of the widow with dependent children is an excellent place at which to begin to break it, for two reasons. First, the administration of such cases is much easier than that of cases in which elements like unemployment and sickness of the husband are present. Second, the widow with dependent children is the most undeniable embodiment of the principle that the mother who needs aid for the single purpose of bringing up children is not properly an object of private charity, is not properly a "dependent."

Let me quote here from a man from whom Jane Addams has recently quoted in *THE SURVEY*.

L. T. Hobhouse, professor of sociology in London University, in his book on Liberalism, in the chapter on Economic Liberalism, which, by the way, begins with an attack on both the historical and the economic theory underlying Socialism, says:

"A third [way of attacking destitution] may be illustrated by the method by which the minority of the poor law commissioners would deal with the case, at present so often full of tragic import, of the widowed or deserted mother of young children. Hitherto she has been regarded as an object of charity. It has been a matter for the benevolent to help her to retain her home, while it has been regarded as her duty to keep 'off the rates' at the cost of no matter what expenditure of labour away from home. The newer conception of rights and duties comes out clearly in the argument of the commissioners, that if we take in earnest all that we say of the duties and responsibilities of motherhood, we shall recognize that the mother of young children is doing better service to the community and one more worthy of pecuniary remuneration when she stays at home and minds her children than when she goes out charring and leaves them to the chances of the street or to the care of a neighbour. In proportion as we realize the force of this argument, we reverse our view as to the nature of public assistance in such a case. We no longer consider it desirable to drive the mother out to her charring work if we possibly can, *nor do we consider her degraded by receiving public money. We cease, in fact, to regard the public money as a dole; we treat it as a payment for a civic service; and the condition that we are inclined to exact is precisely that she should not endeavour to add to it by earning wages, but rather that she should keep her home respectable and bring up her children in health and happiness.*"

Here we come to the pivot, the moral pivot, on which the whole movement of which we are speaking swings from its existence in human aspiration to its existence in human fact. It can be hung before the vision in a paragraph. But its validity must merely be felt or not felt. It cannot be proved or disproved.

It is a matter of moral, or, speaking even more broadly, of esthetic, perception.

I cannot prove to a man that a certain picture is beautiful nor can he prove to me that it is ugly. What determines our judgment is within us, under layers of customs and theories, unreachable by immediate argument.

I cannot even prove to a man that a self-governing community is nobler than a despotically governed one, unless the prospect of freedom strikes to a flame against the conception of freedom is in his own soul.

I cannot make Mr. Carstens understand why I writhe in mind when he speaks in his article of the creation of a new class of "dependents" under the operation of "state funds to mothers," unless he already has, rightly or wrongly, in his own mind a certain conception,—that is, my conception,—of motherhood and of the state.

Mr. Carstens clearly sees a "dependent" and properly wishes her to be supervised by expert private charity visitors. I see an independent citizen kept from self-support only by the presence or future citizens at her knees and requiring, in order that as she fulfils her instinctive duty to them she may also fulfill her indirect civic duty to the state, the means of support really for them and only incidentally for herself.

Her true position is determined not by her poverty but by her duty; for her stipend stops when her duty has reached fulfillment, when the future citizens in her charge are at the age of entrance into the self-supporting world.

To call such a person a "dependent" is to me as monstrous as to call the librarian of Congress a "dependent." He is paid for his work; she for hers. And she should be paid by those for whom she does it,—all the citizens of the state, not the subscribers to the charities.

When Mr. Carstens calls her a "dependent," he gives us the precise direction of the mental attitude taken toward her by the charity agents, an attitude which infuses all their daily intercourse with her.

The only chance that exists,—not a sure chance, but still a chance—of winning her an environment in which she can maintain a home for herself and for her children as self-respecting as the home next door is to annex that home of hers to the public domain.

In the public domain it can possibly be self-respecting, if we develop our plans manfully for making it so. In the private domain, self-respect is, for her and for those whom she is training to democratic citizenship, permanently impossible.

In the one case, we are sailing on the right sea on the right tack and may reach haven. In the other case, no matter how skilful our present skippers may be, and no matter how well they may sail, there is no haven. There is only more sailing.



# MOTHERHOOD AND PENSIONS

MARY E. RICHMOND

**A**RGUMENTS that will not bear critical examination are being advanced on both sides of the mothers' pension question. Wholesale claims that every need is now adequately provided for by this agency or by that; solemn general warnings about the dangers of pauperism; harrowing instances of hardship with most of the facts pertinent to the subject under discussion omitted; statistics from sources unknown or discredited; startling discoveries that pension plans lean to Socialism, or that their opponents conspire to reduce women's wages, or to increase the prestige of social workers—all this claptrap should be brushed aside. Until both sides have had a chance to be heard, until both have brought forward their evidence, the case is not settled, and the effort to settle it by stampeding our state legislatures can only cause delay. If, for instance, bills are passed as a means of emptying the children's institutions, but are so framed as only to increase their population in the long run, it is better to hear what competent witnesses have to say about this before than after legislating. Competent witnesses are often wrong, it is true, but only by witnesses more competent, with facts still more pertinent and unassailable, can they be so proven. And if we legislate that mothers shall remain at home with their children, as we are now doing, in some states, without giving so much as a thought to the experience of those who know most about home work, and the probable industrial effect upon it of a state subsidy, we may be vindicating our principles and "standing up for motherhood," but we are doing it at the expense of the very group we aim to help.

Decidedly the time to look about us, to compare experiences and reason together, is now, and the time to legislate is after we have done this. Many social workers, though not nearly all, have no faith in any one remedy applied wholesale by statute to the ganglion of evils that mother's pensions are supposed to do away with. As campaigners, this places them at a disadvantage. A single remedy, easily explained and picturesquely defended, makes an appeal that they cannot hope to make. But, as has been shown in more than one legislative hearing on this subject already, the people who live close to the facts and are in the habit of thinking about them constructively have nothing to lose by conference and by discussion. The Illinois

Funds to Parents Act was passed in 1911 without discussion; and now, when all its friends, from Judge Pinckney down, are striving to amend it, some other states, also without discussion, are adopting it verbatim in its unamended form. This is a wasteful way of getting forward. Surely experience counts for something, and that cause is weak whose advocates close their minds to the lessons of experience.

On what central facts are we all agreed and on which do we differ? We are all agreed, I think, that families are being broken up which should be kept together; that mothers are being overworked with disastrous results to themselves and to their children; and that inadequate food and clothing, together with overcrowding in the home, are physically and morally handicapping the children there. We are further agreed that it is far more important to remedy these conditions, and to remedy them in a way that will prevent their recurrence, than to vindicate our preference for private initiative or public initiative, for the word "relief" or the word "pension." Thus far we should be able to go along together without disagreement.

We are going to differ about the causes of these bad conditions inevitably, and to differ also about the series of remedies that must be inaugurated promptly while we continue to hammer at causes—to push the death-rate lower, to punish exploitation in all its forms, to segregate those who should not propagate their kind. Nevertheless, frank discussion helps—discussion, that is, which leaves our opponent some standing ground and does not impugn his motives.

Without further preamble, let me attempt to give, as my tentative contribution to such a conferring together, some of the arguments that seem to me to be related to this question.

## *The Institution Argument*

The claim is freely made that mothers' pensions would empty the institutions, but if, in cities giving pensions to mothers on a large scale, the children's institution population should continue to increase, then, whatever the cause, some other remedy will have to be found for this evil, in so far as it is an evil. If the per capita subsidy system prove to be one of the causes, can a per capita subsidy to the family be the remedy?

Analysis of institution populations would reveal, I believe, the following reasons besides "pov-



erty only" for commitment: Death of mother, illness of mother or child, moral disabilities of mother, desire of both parents to be relieved of care until child can earn, need of specialized care of child which the home cannot supply. A certain proportion of the children, a proportion varying greatly in different places, come from homes that should never have been established. As we know more of what it means to a child to be not only well cared for but well born—to have, that is, physically and morally sound parents—the more carefully we feel like scrutinizing any scheme which involves the possibility of making children (by means direct or indirect), a financial asset to parents of unsound stock.

The foregoing statements do not mean that we should not immediately take steps to see that all children are kept in their own homes that they can become good citizens there. I believe that the number now being removed is grossly overestimated, however, and that an equally important if not more important next step, as regards the number of children involved, would be the adoption of much better standards of care for the children that are in institutions and in charge of placing out agencies at public expense.

#### *The Overwork Argument*

The women upon whom work conditions press the hardest today will not be reached by the pensions now proposed. The widow or the wife whose husband is away or permanently disabled is at least relieved of the double burden of wage-earning and child-bearing. In helping that widow and that wife, we must be careful to put no further barriers in the way of the social workers who are striving to give all women a more dignified, better organized, and better safeguarded industrial status. But six of the mothers' pension bills on my desk would put up such a barrier, though quite unintentionally, for they prohibit the beneficiary from work outside the home altogether or for more than one day each week, but do not provide complete support. In discussing this aspect of pension legislation with one of the best authorities on women's work, I pointed out that these provisions might tend to subsidize the sweated industries in the large cities. But I was told that the measures would be equally dangerous in less populous places; that no home was remote enough from the freight office and the parcels post to be safe from such exploitation.

It will be suggested that the remedy for this is complete support by the state, and the prohibition of all work for wages, whether in the home or outside. This would be better than the present proposals, but in some of our cities, especially in their foreign quarters, the mothers who have always been wage-earners resent enforced home-keeping and grow very restless under the nerv-

ous strain of it. Glasgow tried the experiment in its "special roll" for the relief of widows with young children, and it records that "so many of the women are devoid of domestic and other interests that work for wages is a positive safeguard." But they should be taught, it may be suggested. Here we have the idea of personal service and individual care from which our pension friends are so eager to get away.

#### *Pensions as Relief and as Reward*

I have said that our preference for the words "relief" or "pension" should not permanently divide us, but the ideas behind those words, as I pointed out in a recent SURVEY,<sup>1</sup> are quite distinct. It was impossible then and will be impossible now to take up all the arguments for and against new pension measures, but at the risk of seeming to digress unduly, I should like to make myself clear on this one aspect of the question, for it has a very important bearing, I think, upon this year's legislative campaign. In so far as the words "relief" and "charity" have undemocratic connotations, I regret it, and would welcome substitutes for them, but the word "pension," to Americans especially, implies three things that destroy its usefulness as a substitute: First, it implies payment for a service rendered *in the past*; second, it implies, without any reference to the needs or the characteristics of the individual receiving it, a fixed rate of payment; third, it implies no responsibility for what happens. Pension advocates are now claiming, quite logically as it seems to me, that "one hundred cents out of every dollar" should go to the mother, thus cutting away at one stroke all careful choice of pensioners in the first place, and all personal service to the children of the household later on.

A case could be made out for a service pension to all mothers, rich and poor, at fixed rates, and a case could be made out for the further development of the relief measures that are now inadequate, whether public or private. But the mixture and confusion of the two ideas of service pensions and relief grants will make nothing but trouble. It is a confusion that has cost our country dear already. The same mixture of motive appears again and again in the records of soldiers' pension legislation—now it is payment of a debt, and again it is charity; now the pension roll is a "roll of honor," and again it is a thing that must be kept private because the veterans are sensitive about its publication. It will not be time wasted to turn aside long enough to see what has been happening to United States pensions. It is true that most of the mothers' compensation acts are only proposing to substitute state for local funds, but federal pensions to mothers have already been suggested, though not very seriously as yet.

<sup>1</sup>See The Survey, February 15, 1913, p. 665.



### *Soldiers' Pensions*

The basal principle of earlier pension legislation, as explained by Glasson in his careful study,<sup>1</sup> was the granting of pensions for "injuries received or disease contracted" in the line of duty, or on account of death directly resulting. No American can quarrel with that or with the desire to provide for the old age of actual veterans; but what are we to say of the piecemeal legislation, ever widening the scope and breaking down the safeguards of these conservative provisions, which has saddled us with the burden pictured on the next page? Now, in this year of grace 1913, when three-fourths of the soldiers of the Civil War are in their graves, we are spending more than we ever spent before; we are spending annually on an army mustered out of service nearly fifty years ago three-fourths as much as Germany spends on the second largest standing army in the world. Exclusive of administrative expense, our pension appropriation for the current year is \$164,500,000.

When Garfield reported to Congress thirty-five years ago a pension budget nearly *one-fifth* the size of the present one, he did so with the apology that this would be the maximum, and that in the natural order of things the sum would gradually decrease. What accounts for the quintupled increase since Garfield's budget was adopted? Not the Spanish-American War, whose pensioners are even now less than three and a half per cent of the total. Not bad administration at Washington, for the figures have mounted during good and during bad pension administrations alike. Not deliberate fraud, for though there has been much of this, especially during the years '66 to '78 when pension attorneys were most shameless, the number of pensioners actually decreased in those years nevertheless. Not even selfish special interests that played upon the country's generous feeling for the soldier account for the increase, though it is true that the situation has been used by these. On the whole, it has been honest people who have been betrayed into this unprecedented raid upon the people's treasury, and it has been the honest sentiment of the country that has betrayed them. Many of the young men who came out of the War of the Rebellion able and anxious to make their own way had no thought of seeking a government pension until it came to them fourteen years after the war in the overwhelmingly tempting guise of a large check for arrears.

This was by the act of 1879. An act of 1890 still further extended these arrear payments to all discharged soldiers, whether disabled or not, provided they were incapable of earning a living by manual labor. But the newer legislation did

not develop instead into "a dignified form of relief" for the indigent, "for it made no inquiry regarding the soldier's property or income." In fact, after the demand for pensions had been artificially stimulated, the cost of sifting the just demand from the unjust was almost prohibitive, and the process, moreover, became increasingly unpopular. Some of the later laws put a direct premium upon perjury, and perjury there was in plenty.

Eloquence—floods of it—addressed to the warm sentiment of the country toward the old soldier filled the pages of our Congressional Record. These pages read very like the reports now coming to us from legislatures and mothers' congresses, as the following examples will show:

From an address on mothers' pensions before the Congress of Mothers at Washington, D. C., quoted from the *Texas Motherhood Magazine*, November, 1912: "The state is a parent, and as a wise and gentle and kind and loving parent should beam down upon each child alike. At the knee of this great, just, loving mother or father, no child should beg in vain. The bounties of opportunity and reward should flow therefrom freely and gladly into each life upon this fair continent. It is not for you and me to struggle and travail under the masks of institutions of charity and benevolent organization, that the children of this parent may have light and love. From the fountain head—THE STATE—all benefits should issue. We, the mothers of the land, should go in a body and make the appeal for what we wish, then stand aside and rejoice as we see our desires expressed—just gifts given by a loving father, received equally by the children."

From a speech in favor of mothers' pensions before the Indiana legislature by one of its number, quoted from the *Indianapolis Star* for January 28, 1913: "We make an awful mistake when we assume, as often we do, that we can add to or take away from a mother's love, because a mother's love is a part of the mechanism of the soul, and it receives no abridgement from any known condition. It is a jeweled diadem placed upon the brow of a finite creature that the world may honor and obey. We know it to be imperishable, because it bears the impress of an undying perfection, and it is cherished as life's chiefest beatitude, wielding empire over the domain of human tenderness."

From a speech on the "dollar a day" pension bill in the House of Representatives, quoted from the Congressional Record, December 12, 1911. (Pension disbursements for that year \$157,325,-160): "Mr. Chairman, section 3, in my opinion, is a load upon this bill. (Applause.) It closes the door of hope to the old war veteran whose frugality and industry since the war have given him an annual income of a thousand dollars or more. In effect, it is a punishment to him because of his thrift since the war, rather than a reward because of his faithful servitude to his country

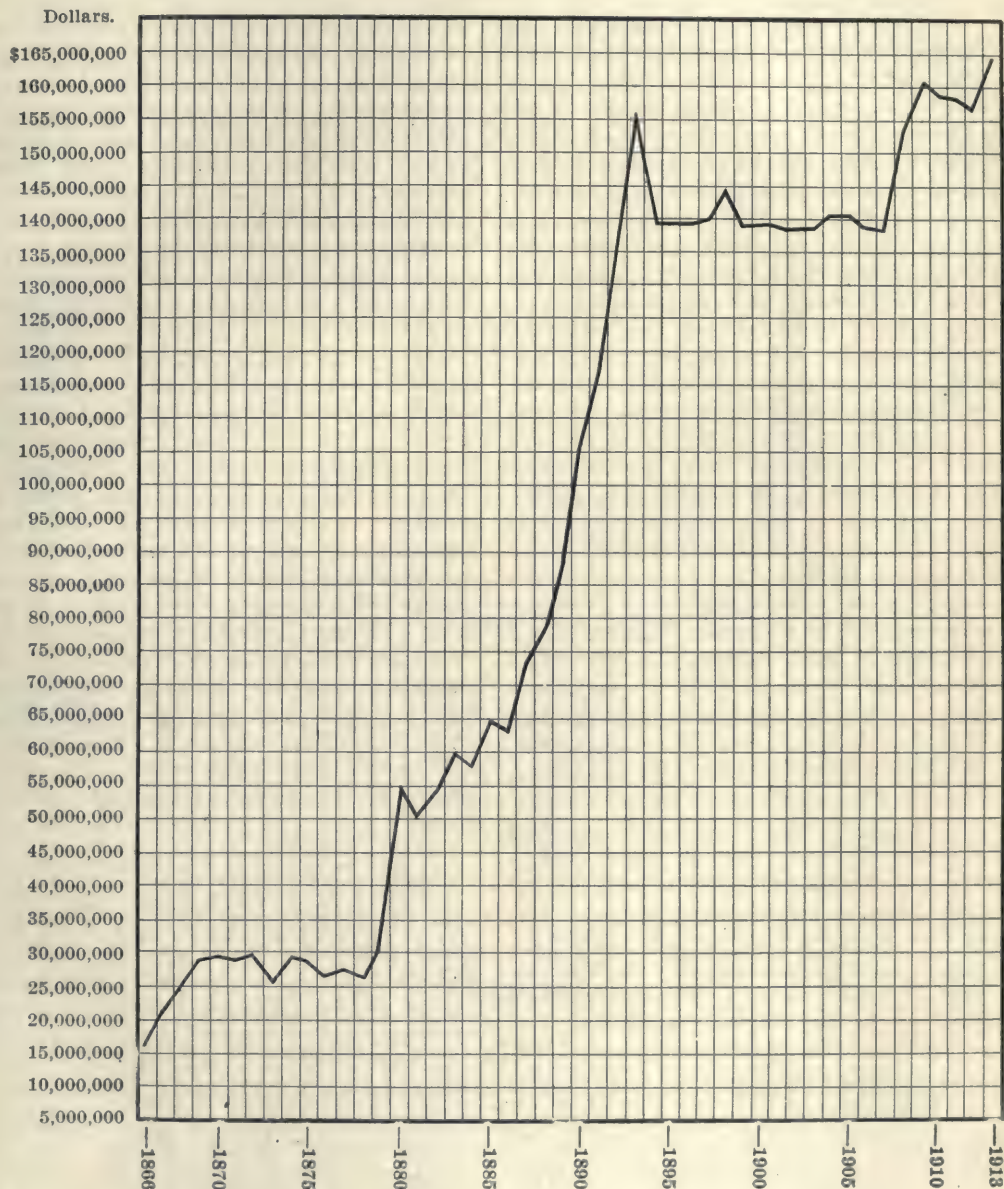
<sup>1</sup>See *History of Military Pension Legislation in the United States*. By William Henry Glasson. Columbia University Press, 1900. See also Publication No. 331 of the American Academy of Political and Social Science



during the dark days of the Civil War. It is an unjust discrimination which ought not to be made, and one which this House can not afford to sanction. . . .

"Mr. Chairman, . . . the true friend of the soldiers is the man who stands for the framing of a meritorious bill upon the broad basis of relief to the men whose services blotted out the

Mason and Dixon line, made certain the Union of these States, and sealed forever the destiny of this Republic, and after such a bill is drafted, works industriously for its early passage. Mr. Chairman, I am glad to say that this House bristles with such men on both sides of this Chamber—men whose hearts are earnestly enlisted in a most noble cause."



#### THE LADDER UPON WHICH SOLDIERS' PENSIONS HAVE CLIMBED

The Congress still sitting as this magazine goes to press has reported out of committee pension bills which would send this ladder up to the \$180,000,000 mark if the estimates published are correct.



Side by side with the development of general pension legislation there had grown up a system of special pension acts. Congressmen pleaded for more liberal legislation in order that they might be relieved of the intolerable pressure of these private pension bills, of which nearly 36,000 had been passed. But they sought a remedy that only increased the evil. In the closing days of the Sixty-first Congress, in February, 1911, these personal bills were being introduced "at the rate of two hundred per day."

The size of our pension expenditures, which have amounted to more than \$4,129,000,000 for Civil War pensions alone, is not, in itself, an indictment of the system, if it is clear that the money has been and is being well spent, and that it is bringing better returns to all the people of the United States than any substitute expenditures could bring. No one who has lived in America during these fifty years can fail to know of many cases in which a Civil War pension has been a great blessing, and has been of such definite benefit to the families as to benefit the community also; but the more kinds of people we know and the more intimately we know them, the more certain we are to have also encountered cases of degeneracy either induced or fostered by pensions. The rolls are secret, and no study has ever been made of the effects of soldiers' pensions upon family life, of their relation to social efficiency on the one hand or to social inefficiency on the other.

As to the positive evils that are matters of public knowledge, I do not quote William Bayard Hale or Charles Francis Adams, for, irrefutable as many of their items of evidence are, these authorities may be regarded as taking an extreme view—I turn again to Glasson, who is most moderate in all of his conclusions. He recognizes fully our obligation to all who have been handicapped by actual military service, and to those directly dependent upon them; he might also, in a country without old age pensions, concede the justice of provision for the aged veteran. But he finds that we have lowered the standard of morality and patriotism among our volunteer soldiers; that we have fostered fraud; that we have led honest people to imagine disabilities; that we have pensioned the affluent on account of disabilities in no way connected with military service; and that youth has been wedded to old age for the sake of the widow's allowance. "The investigator," he adds, "must, at times, turn from the record in disgust."

Glasson is a hopeful man. In his first pension study, the one of 1900, he expresses the belief that pension legislation will cease to be a question of party advantage, as the voting strength of the Grand Army decreases. That was thirteen years ago, and more than a hundred and

thirty-three thousand pensioners have dropped from the rolls since. But what is Congress still doing? If this too extended summary of pension administration is regarded as irrelevant and as an appeal to the history of other times and other manners, let us turn to the Congress which is still sitting as I write. It passed in 1912 a new law that sends our pension expenditures to a higher point than they have ever reached before, and is now engaged in sending them, by more bills, still higher.

One of the difficulties encountered by the advocates of universal peace is that every large expenditure in preparation for war helps to create a class in the nation who are specially interested in making these expenditures still larger. Give any considerable group a capitalized interest in one kind of legislation, let that interest find and join hands with a generous public sentiment, and then see all the seekers of special privilege of whatever kind rally to the aid of both. This is why the tide of pensions is always at flood.

There is another aspect of the pension question, however. Veterans are a diminishing class unless we have another big war; not so with mothers. The point of this comparison between mothers' and soldiers' pensions—a comparison which did not originate with me—is that grants to voters, or to those who may, perhaps, soon become such, tend to mount up and up, without any assurance to the state of an adequate return. The phrases "endowment of motherhood," "funds to parents," "mothers' compensation," are already being taken up by shrewd politicians who may give them a significance and a power of popular attraction that their originators never intended. These latter are rubbing the lamp industriously without any conception of the temper of the genie soon to appear.

#### *Constructive Statesmanship Is Delayed*

Let us ask ourselves what constructive policies now well thought out could easily be postponed indefinitely by a new flood of pension eloquence and a new series of pension grants. Far as we are from any immediate prospect of a general pension for mothers, we are no farther than the legislators of '62 and '66 and the years succeeding were from spending, as in some years since we have, 97.9 per cent of our total internal revenue upon pensions.

The heaviest cost may be in the further postponement of constructive health measures. Take, for example, the costliest disease and the costliest defect that afflict society today—take tuberculosis and feeble-mindedness. We know what to do about both of them, but we are not doing it. We have decreased the tuberculosis death-rate in New York city, but we are very



far indeed from having the disease under social control. We have known for a long time that the segregation of advanced cases is indispensable, for instance, but we still follow the line of least resistance by treating them at home instead. If the most careful estimates available mean anything, the only way to secure social control of tuberculosis in the United States is to increase five times over our present rate of expenditure upon care outside the home. The bearing of this upon pension problems is shown by the percentage of dependent widows who lost their husbands from this particular preventable disease. Out of 985 records of such widows recently studied by the Russell Sage Foundation, 799 gave the cause of the husband's death. In 29 per cent of these it was tuberculosis.

Very conservative estimates place the number of feeble-minded in the United States at 200,000, but recent students of the subject believe that 300,000 would be nearer the real number. Here is another group for whom home care is a failure, but only 20,000 are in institutions for the feeble-minded. The segregation for life, or at least during the child-bearing age, of a whole generation of the feeble-minded would bring this terrible curse under social control.

The interesting fact is that we apparently have already wasted enough money on soldiers' pensions to do both of these things—not to eradicate every case of tuberculosis or feeble-mindedness, for that is not going to be possible, but to bring both of these scourges under subjection and make them almost negligible quantities. We could do this, I believe (provided the custodial and supervisory powers granted were made commensurate with the expenditure) for a billion dollars less than has been unwisely spent for pensions.

The basis of this estimate, which is only of the roughest and most tentative kind, of course, is as follows: If the natural decline in soldiers' pensions shown for the years 1871 to 1879 is projected to the present year, we get an estimated pension disbursement of \$11,890,000 for the fiscal year 1913, and proportionate amounts for the intervening years. These may be regarded as the normal Civil War pensions. Taken together, they amount to \$680,590,000. Add to this the pensions granted on account of the war with Spain and in the Philippines, \$38,114,000. We may then assume that pensions to soldiers not otherwise provided for, beyond the age of sixty-five, are legitimate, purely as old age pensions, and for such payments add a billion dollars more. If we now deduct the sum of all of these items, \$1,718,704,000, from the \$4,106,585,000 actually spent on pensions during these years, we have still a total unnecessary expenditure of \$2,387,881,000.

Only a small part of this money actually could have been spent on either of the preventive campaigns named, because science had not discovered and social workers had not fully worked out the details of care or of prevention. But if the same rate of unnecessary pension expenditure were to continue (there were 508,812 applications for United States pensions or for increases in the same in the year ending June 30, 1912), or if our plans for cure and prevention had been ready earlier, a portion of this money could have been spent in a ten years' campaign for the control of tuberculosis, and another portion for a thirty years' campaign for the control of feeble-mindedness.

The highest estimate available (Easton's) places the cost of control of tuberculosis in New York city, where control is peculiarly difficult, at less than \$50,000,000. Let us say, then, \$45,000,000 in New York city, with its 10,000 deaths from tuberculosis per year, and multiply that by 15.5 for the country, which has 155,000 deaths per year from the same cause, according to Irving Fisher's estimate, and we have a total cost for social control of approximately \$700,000,000. This is probably an estimate which could be much lowered by good social and medical engineering.

The feeble-minded must be cared for longer—for thirty years, but their care is not so costly, and the most important single factor is the uncared-for woman of child-bearing age. Assuming that one-third of the total 300,000 of both sexes do not need custodial care, and estimating school care, exclusive of buildings, at \$175 per year for seven years, and adult care at \$100 per year (according to Johnson's plan for partial self-support) for twenty-three years, we have the enormous total of \$705,000,000. But from this it is fair to deduct the cost of caring for the 20,000 already in institutions for the feeble-minded, and the cost for the estimated number of 47,000 feeble-minded now in almshouses, insane asylums and prisons and reformatories. This leaves an estimated cost of \$408,750,000 for care, to which should be added \$133,000,000 for buildings. This gives a total estimated cost for the social control of feeble-mindedness of \$541,750,000.

Deducting the estimated cost of both tuberculosis and feeble-mindedness controlled from the estimated unnecessary payments in pensions, we still find \$1,146,000,000 remaining for the social control of other preventable diseases, and of such other social maladjustments as can be attacked from many sides at once by government activities.

In all our social planning nothing must be done which will deprive us of this power of



attack on many sides. It is useless to spend large sums in an unrelated, piecemeal way. We need a combination of high administrative standards and of deeply social motives; of competent technique and ample volunteer service. The advocates of mothers' pensions have no such carefully thought out program, or, if they have, they have not yet stopped to realize the demoralization that must come to social plans and social results from government per capita grants that are open to all the objections ever made against our present pension system.

### *Relief and Child Welfare*

No attempt has been made to keep to widows' pensions in this discussion, because the legislation already proposed in many states goes far beyond this. One publicist has said that these new pensions should be called children's pensions, and this title is the one, probably, which most accurately describes their purpose. If the pension bills introduced are passed, most of them will permit the present public relief officials to relieve families in which there are children, and the pensioning authority newly created will be expected to do the same. Now, the relief and oversight of children in those families which have a male breadwinner does not demand skill that is essentially different from the skill needed for the relief and oversight of families that have no male head. Family problems and child-helping problems are involved in both tasks, and both should be undertaken, whether at public or at private expense, by that agency in each community which is best able to secure good results.

It is true that there are many neglected children in their own homes today, and both the service and the relief that they are receiving are pitifully inadequate to their needs. The claim is made that it is only more income which is needed; that personal service, supervision, continuous oversight and care are not only superfluous but even impertinent. If individualized care is not necessary at this point, if "case work" has no place, then we are confronted here with the solitary exception in the whole range of social endeavor, in so far as such endeavor touches individuals. Human beings are different, and to get socially helpful results we have to do different things for different people. The dispensaries and hospitals are discovering this and are trying to socialize their work; the public schools are finding it out, in connection with their truancy work, their home and school visiting, their vocational guidance, and other activities. A list of the departments of human endeavor that are just waking up to the fact that they must individualize their clients would fill this page. None of them has the requisite skill

as yet—our agencies for family rehabilitation certainly have not, but their workers cannot acquire even a modicum of the technique necessary for this particular task without becoming immediately in demand far beyond the boundaries formerly given to social work. We social workers would welcome being put out of business by the general adoption of our program, but we want it adopted in full, and not in fragments.

I have said that no one remedy can meet the need or even relieve it. By those who are willing to accept this view and to agree to a plan of campaign in which more adequate material relief shall be made a part of more individualized, more skilful and more thorough treatment, what immediate further steps might be taken to advance child welfare in families?

1. Community by community, we must know what is happening. This is not the place in which to present a bill of particulars, but the experience of the best child-helping and family workers should be utilized in drawing up and making available a series of questionnaires that would help to bring out the salient facts as to relief and family dependency in each city, town, and rural neighborhood.

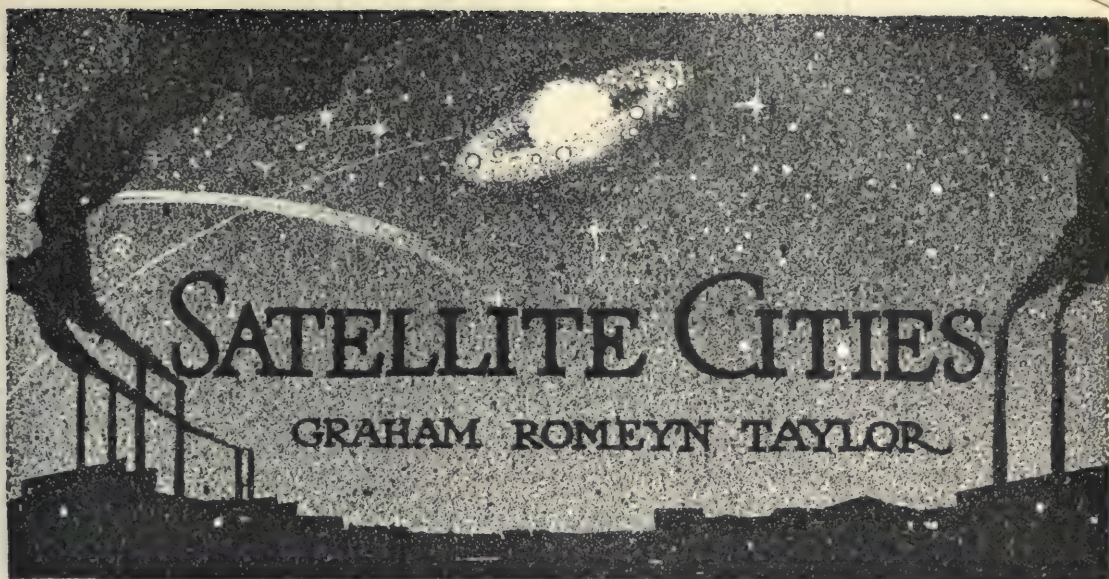
2. The relation between the conditions discovered and the campaigns of cure and prevention already launched in this country should be made very clear indeed, in order that relief administration and its accompanying work for individual families may no longer be regarded as an unimportant matter by a considerable group of social reformers.

3. Whatever undeveloped resources for service exist in each community, let us develop them. If the public agencies are carrying the chief burden already, and carrying it with any degree of responsibility and efficiency, strengthen them, aid them in every way, work to secure for them more adequate resources in relief and in service. If the private agencies are the chief burden bearers, do as much for them.

4. Some places will show very inefficient public and very inefficient private care of families, and an unaroused public sentiment as to their needs. Bombard the public with facts. Be sure that you have them first; devise a reasonable program based upon them, and then make these known by every engine of publicity, every graphic means.

5. Untiring work must follow. People and not surveys or exhibits must make things different by hard and steady pulling together. And to the solution of one family's difficult problem, to the safeguarding of one child's right to health and a fair chance, might well be brought, in contribution, everything that human ingenuity has devised or human sympathy has longed for.





## V GARY<sup>1</sup>

**"I**F YOU'LL give us the colors we want, Sophie will do the painting herself." This, broken up into foreign sounding English, ended the parley with the company decorator. He was putting a new coat on the interiors of houses provided for the cheapest immigrant labor of the steel mill.

But "Hunkyville," as this section is dubbed by the rest of the town, had a little school girl who, unabashed, challenged the United States Steel Corporation's scheme of art. And in the "box" occupied by her family she had her way. Outside it remained like all the rest in the row, but indoors, with stencil designs, such as she had learned to make at school, she painted the walls with borders at the top and panels running down to the floor.

This episode tells the human story of Gary—wholesale provision for community life, and that life itself surging in to cut its own channel for expression.

Gary is probably the greatest single calculated achievement of America's master industry. A score of steel towns have slowly grown from small beginnings. But the creators of Gary planned *de novo* a city which in five years attained a size that required thirty years of growth at Homestead and which is not unlikely to become the second city in Indiana before many decades pass.

Industrial power has perhaps never before had a simpler civic opportunity than when in 1906 it brought vast resources to an uninhabited wild-

erness at Lake Michigan's southern end. How did industrial power meet its civic responsibility, when there was nothing but a sand flat to gain-say its will, and how are the citizens meeting theirs now that the sand flat is a town? What of the relations between the two?

THE SURVEY<sup>1</sup> has already presented the main facts of Gary's development during the first three years which saw a square mile of steel plant, a made-to-order harbor for the great ore freighters and a substantial, well-appointed city of 12,000 people spring into being. The federal census of April, 1910, found a population of 16,802. In November, 1912, there were more than 30,000. According to the last published report of the city officials, for the year 1910, the building operations for that year involved \$4,000,000. In 1911, property valuation of the town reached \$19,000,000, and taxes \$229,638.60.

The inhabitants are mainly, of course, the working force of the steel mill and the subsidiary plants—officials, foremen, American and foreign skilled workmen, and the unskilled laborers, nearly all foreign. But civic affairs have been influenced quite as much by the smaller number of men not identified with the steel corporation. One of them, in fact, has been mayor ever since the beginning. To this element—real estate operators, tradesmen, and all sorts of foot-loose incomers, anxious to try their fortune in a place that offers quick development—is attributable much of the pioneer spirit that reminds one of the far West. The earlier days witnessed a scramble for "ground floor" advantages which the future might magnify. Like a

<sup>1</sup>Previous articles in the Satellite Cities series were: I. The Outer Rings of Industry (Introductory), October 5; II. Pullman, November 2; III. Norwood and Oakley, December 7; IV. Granite City, February 1.

<sup>2</sup>See THE SURVEY for April 3, 1909, page 20.





new mining camp, Gary attracted adventurers whose "pasts," even if known, mattered little to a community absorbed in the here and now.

With such a mixture of people it is not surprising that the civic history of Gary has packed into six short years all the political intrigue and struggle, the "gang rule," the "graft exposures" and "reform movements" which usually occupy a generation. Her mayor, owing to the bitterness of the strife, has been arrested no less than fourteen times in two years without having a charge proved against him in court. But her citizenship has shown an independent spirit especially in relation to the industrial power.

The average citizen scorns the thought that Gary is a "satellite" of Chicago if that implies dependence. This happens to be the spot, he points out, where raw material can most economically be assembled and finished steel distributed to the great middle West markets. But it would appear that this advantage has been bound up in large part in Chicago's great railway facilities, all at Gary's service, in the Chicago labor market and in the housing accommodations of Chicago's southern suburbs. Furthermore the president and other principal officers of the subsidiary companies which have developed Gary are to be found in the heart of Chicago's business and financial district.

The tract of land the company bought across the Indiana state line, stretching eight miles along the shore of Lake Michigan, and averaging two miles in width was in a sense but a great addition to the corporation's already

large holdings at South Chicago. All the plants except two occupy a strip between the Lake Michigan shore and the Grand Calumet river, which parallels it a mile or more to the south. The residential subdivisions laid out and developed by the Steel Corporation through its subsidiary, the Gary Land Company, occupy a strip flanking the south bank of the river. Still further south are the subdivisions which outside real estate promoters are "booming." Thus in general the Grand Calumet river separates the plants from the town.

From east to west the industrial strip is given up to the 560 coke ovens which supply all the gas needed in the operation of the steel mills; the possible site for a plant of the National Tube Company; the artificial harbor and the square mile of steel mills which flank it; the plant of the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company; the site for the proposed plant of the American Steel & Wire Company; the switch yards and repair shops of the Elgin, Joliet & Eastern, the steel company's railroad; the site on which the American Car & Foundry Company will build and the plant of the American Bridge Company. This last is already second only to the Ambridge plant of the same company and when completed will be the largest structural steel plant in the world.

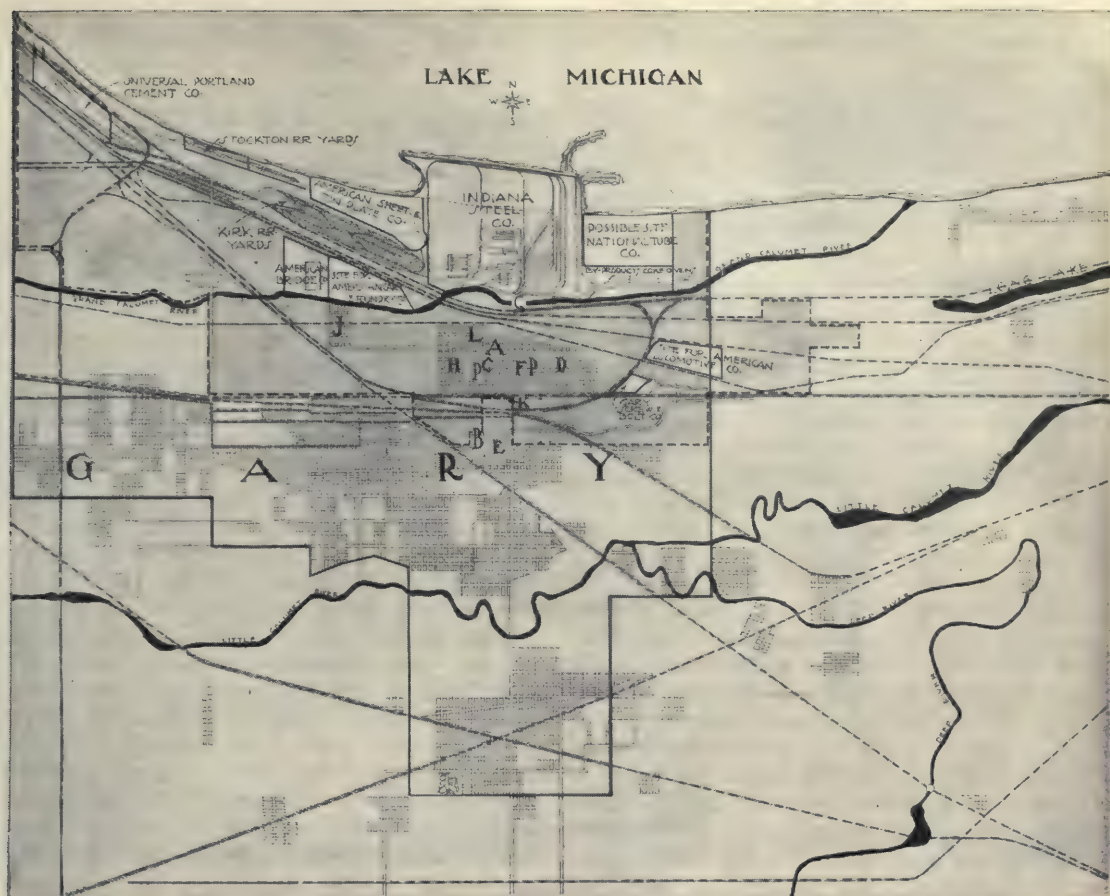
That rank has already been obtained by another of the Gary group. Two miles farther west along the lake shore is the plant of the Universal Portland Cement Company, another subsidiary of the United States Steel Corporation. It uses immense quantities of blast furnace slag from the steel mills, and is operated by electrical power generated by the waste gases of the blast furnaces. Thus the whole scheme of industries is bound together with great adroitness and efficiency. South of the Grand Calumet river and just east of the original subdivision laid out by the Gary Land Company is the site for the American Locomotive Company



AT THE STEEL MILL GATE

March 1, 1913.





- A. Grouping of Public Library, Y. M. C. A., and Post Office (to be built), on Fifth Avenue near Broadway.
- B. Froebel school, with its park and recreation features, in the midst of a large population of poor foreigners.
- C. Jefferson school, built by the company when the town was started.
- D. Emerson school, a fine modern plant built by the public.
- E. Neighborhood House, maintained by Presbyterians in the midst of a large foreign population.
- F. City Hall.
- G. Steel Company Hospital.
- H. Mercy Hospital, under Catholic auspices, the money to build it raised, however, by a general campaign committee of citizens with the Y. M. C. A. secretary as manager.
- J. Housing development in connection with the plant of the American Bridge Company.
- K. The first block in Gary's "patch" just south of the subdivision developed by the Gary Land Company. This block as it fronts on Broadway is a continuous row of saloons.
- L. Concrete houses built for the employees of the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company.
- P. P. Parks.

plant which will probably employ 3,500 men and have a capacity of fifty finished locomotives per month. Nearby is the only one among all the plants not a direct subsidiary of the United States Steel Corporation—the Gary Bolt and Screw Company, owned principally by Pittsburgh capital.

Gary's industry thus consists of the great mill and the group of plants which use the steel it manufactures.

### *City Planning*

The contrast between the arrangement and team work of these great plants and the rule-of-thumb planning of Gary, the city, has already been pointed out in *THE SURVEY*<sup>1</sup>. The street plan is the old-fashioned rectangular gridiron the steel corporation's subdivision being no ex-

ception to those promoted by local real estate men. To anyone who has glanced even cursorily over a few of the forty-odd city plan reports which have been made for American cities in the last decade, nothing is more evident than the effort to break up such rectangular street arrangement by diagonal direct routes. These can cut cross-town travel in two and add beauty and variety to the scheme of thoroughfares. It does not take much of a stretch of the imagination to see the future Gary employing a city planner whose report will propose belated diagonal streets cut at great expense through built-up sections. This situation, pointed out in these pages two years ago, is even clearer now. Take only one of the many obvious instances. To go from Broadway and Fifth avenue, where important public buildings have been grouped, to the southwestern annexed part of Gary, one must travel

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, October 5, 1912, page 16.



approximately two miles covering two sides of a right angle. A direct diagonal would measure scarcely more than a mile and a half.

Many radical improvements could still be achieved at a cost very little greater than that involved in present haphazard lines of growth. The cost may be prohibitive later on. The city has not as yet made good the corporation's short sightedness. Present requirements are merely that new streets shall be continuations of present streets and bear the same names. Indeed the town has fallen back from some of the standards set by the industrial leaders. The uniform building line which the steel corporation wisely stipulated in the subdivisions under its control has not been extended to other parts of the city. In no way could the municipal officials of Gary render a more important service to their community, and incidentally go the steel corporation one better in making an orderly and beautiful city, than by bringing in expert city planners while the place is still plastic. The Commercial Club of Gary has made a start in this direction by the appointment of a committee on city planning to work for boulevards, diagonal streets in outlying sections and the proposed lake front park. But the opportunity to grapple with a big situation in its formative stages should command ability of the first order.

It has already been pointed out that the plants occupy a strip along the lake front and that the steel companies set apart the strip adjoining it, on the inland side, for residential purposes. It was evidently their notion that the workmen in each plant would live back from it in a subdivision within walking distance of their work. A principal thoroughfare was laid out parallel to the lake to connect all these subdivisions. This is Fifth avenue, eighty feet in width, with a grouping of public buildings on it at the point where Broadway, running south and inland from the main mill entrance, intersects it at right angles. The growth of the town has, however, expanded quite as much to the south as along the flanks of the mills. Broadway is the main street today and has now been laid out six miles south from the mill entrance, and for well over three miles it is built up more or less continuously. Frequent street car service for this distance has doubtless had much to do with its rapid development. City officials assert that this

growth south of the steel company's residential strip was both unexpected and undesired by the company. The latter flatly denies this and says that it has consistently welcomed any growth or development of the city.

The expansion to the south not only calls for a reconsideration of the city structure but involves a situation both extraordinary and amusing. Gary's annexation experiences rival the most complicated matrimonial career that ever found its way into a divorce court. It seems that Indiana has a law permitting any town or city, by action of its board or council, to annex contiguous outside territory at any time. If it would avoid being summarily kidnapped, the contiguous territory must file in the proper court within thirty days a petition signed by two thirds of all its voters. The burden of the situation is thus put, not on those who do the annexing, but on those who want to stay independent.

The "game" was started in the spring of 1910 when the city of East Chicago, Ind., immediately west of Gary, suddenly embraced the larger city of Hammond which adjoins it on the far side. The councilmen of Gary, fearing that East Chicago in her thirst for dominion might without warning turn about and swallow up the future citadel of steel, decided as one city father declared to "beat her to it." Accordingly the mayor and the nine councilmen hastily met before daylight the very next morning and officially annexed the newly enlarged East Chicago. Once started Gary annexed the town of Tolleston, just to the southwest, and later the town of Miller just to the east. When these various places began to wake up to the situation a number of by no means uninteresting parleys resulted in a family understanding. East Chicago said she had not thought of wanting Gary and Gary acknowledged that the only reason she had annexed East Chicago was to prevent the reverse happening. Hammond put in her plea for single blessedness. So they all went to the superior court and agreed to dis-annex. Gary wanted to keep Tolleston and Miller, so they did not figure in these proceedings. Miller gained enough signatures to her petition to be allowed to go her own way. But Tolleston failed to do so and thus became a part of Gary which thereby swelled to an area of thirty-two square miles.



Gary's first railroad depot six years ago and her present Union Station for the Lake Shore and the Baltimore & Ohio.



A final point remains to be noted in the layout of Gary. While it may fall short in its community features, there are those who see in it an extraordinary degree of industrial strategy. They spread before you a map of the region and point out that the plants, with Lake Michigan on the north, are separated from the people on the south by the Grand Calumet river which would thus serve as a veritable

moat against possible mob violence in times of stress. With the lake front so extensively controlled by the company, strike breakers and supplies by the boat load from numerous ports on the Great Lakes could be brought directly to the plants without risk. It is pointed out that under such conditions, a repetition of the Homestead strike would be impossible, and that possibly no great industrial plant or series of plants occupies a position so impregnable to mob attack and so calculated to withstand a prolonged industrial siege.

### Housing

The housing provided by the corporation shows considerable diversity of architecture and little of the monotony ordinarily characteristic of "company housing." Solid rows of brick dwellings such as are to be found at Pullman have been avoided. The 506' dwellings originally built for steel mill employes and the new ones for the employes of the American Bridge Company and the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company, each of which have made their own designs, are handled by the one land company.

Gary's significant new development in company housing is an extensive experiment in the use of concrete. It is especially interesting in view of Mr. Edison's enthusiastic predictions and the general impression that this is the coming method of supplying good housing at low cost

The original 506 houses and their rentals were described in THE SURVEY for April 3, 1909. Two miles west of Broadway is the new subdivision for the American Bridge Company houses. These include:

1	nine room house
9	seven " houses
30	six " "
30	five " "
40	four " "
72	five " flats
112	four " "

Each house or apartment has a bath room additional. The company's experience in housing its employes at Ambridge, Pa., convinced it that such facilities were well used. It should be mentioned, however, that common laborers constitute not more than 30 per cent of the working force.



STEEL COMPANY'S OFFICE  
Grand Calumet River at Broadway.

for working people, especially when large numbers of houses are built at the same time and place. With the largest cement works in the country at Gary, operated as a subsidiary of the steel corporation, it may seem strange that concrete construction was not attempted at the beginning of the town. The reason put forward is that the need for houses was so pressing as not to warrant the risk involved in experimentation.

The Sheet and Tin Plate Company decided to take the risk. Should its houses and flats fulfil all the hopes for them, an important contribution will have been made toward the solution of the housing problem in America. The results of this experiment should be watched by every industrial leader and every housing reformer in the country.

Concrete houses have many points of superiority. They are indestructible, thus reducing fire risk to the minimum. They are sanitary, to an extent impossible to obtain in the ordinary frame or brick house. Deterioration is so slight as to reduce repair bills and maintenance costs to the lowest figure. And the cost, according to those responsible for the development at Gary, is not expected to exceed the cost of fairly well built frame houses.

From the capitalist's point of view a concrete house is a far better investment at 8 per cent than a frame house is at 10 per cent.

Curiously enough the actual decision to use concrete construction came when the Sheet and Tin Plate Company's engineer found excessively high building costs at Gary, due to high wage scales established by the building trade unions. It became necessary to devise a construction scheme which, by the use of machinery, would reduce the labor factor to the smallest proportions. This led in turn to the design and construction of special machinery and adaptable





CONCRETE HOUSES AND APARTMENTS FOR WORKINGMEN

molds. With this initial cost out of the way, the company can build additional houses at a still lower cost.

The first group of houses, already occupied, consists of:

24 apartments, some of 3 rooms at \$12.50 a month but mostly of 4 rooms	"	16.00	"	"
40 five room houses	"	17.50	"	"
30 six " "	"	20.00	"	"
10 nine " " (3 stories)	"	27.50	"	"
6 detached houses.				

Most of these houses are in terrace construction in groups of six or ten. Each house or apartment has a bathroom, pantry and a coal bunker under the front porch.

Sheet and Tin Plate Company employes eagerly rented the whole supply, finding the rentals considerably cheaper than corresponding accommodations elsewhere in the town. The tenants are all skilled workmen, mainly American. The undertaking thus far has proved encouraging, both to the engineer in charge and to the Gary Land Company officials and there seems to be a reasonable hope that it may point the way to a hitherto unattained type of concrete house for low paid unskilled workingmen.

Under the Gary Land Company's terms of sale<sup>1</sup> according to the statement of the superintendent, the sale price covers the actual cost of the land, the cost of the complete improvements—street paving, sidewalks, sewers, etc., and the cost of the house plus 5 per cent per year. The total amount may be paid in ten annual installments, with 5 per cent interest on deferred payments. This amounts to very little more than rent. If the householder is discharged, or voluntarily quits work, or for any reason wants to anticipate his payments, he can do so. Or if he wants to turn back his house, the amount he had paid in will be refunded, minus 9 per cent a year as rent. In case of his death similar terms are open to his heirs. American Bridge Company officials declare that such a scheme has proved satisfactory at Ambridge. By distribu-

tion of seeds and free water for garden purposes, the Gary Land Company has made efforts to encourage tenants to keep their premises attractive. It has offered prizes for the best lawns and has planted several thousand trees.

#### *Lodgers and Overcrowding*

Company provision for construction gangs of immigrant labor has been far from good. When the American Bridge Company was erecting its plant the huts which were provided bunked thirty or forty men in a room not only too small but poorly ventilated and lighted. The men were left to do their own cooking, with no facilities except crude fireplaces, which they built of stones and pieces of corrugated iron around the hut entrances. Construction workers have been known to pack themselves to the number of thirty-five in a one-room shanty 30 by 15 feet, half of them sleeping by day and half by night. Each man merely had a blanket in which he rolled up on his allotted floor space. The windows were never open and a Gary physician states that among the thirty-five men he found six cases of tuberculosis.

The company's provision for the low paid immigrant laborers who make a large and permanent part of the mill force has been slight—chiefly in Kirkville in the northwestern corner and in "Hunkyville" in the northeastern corner of the first subdivision. Its experience has been somewhat dismal with the problems of dirt and rural habits among those foreigners who take in an indefinite number of boarders. Miss Byington's study of the boarding boss establishments in Homestead and Mr. Lauck's analysis of wages, rents and overcrowding at Granite City,<sup>2</sup> show that the unskilled laborer with a family looks to the lodger as the often necessary means for supplementing wages. In the midst of these conditions there were evidences of a desire for better things, such as the little girl who wanted to "mind the paint" herself and another young-

<sup>1</sup>See Homestead: The Households of a Mill Town. By Margaret F. Byington. Survey Associates. Price \$1.50; by mail \$1.70.

<sup>2</sup>See THE SURVEY for Feb. 1, 1913, p. 593.



ster who asked for some white enamel to fix the pantry in her home like the "domestic science place" at school. There were, on the other hand, many flagrant abuses of the property by the tenants; the company despaired of its efforts and rather than be responsible as owners for the miserably insanitary conditions which prevailed, ordered the tenants of "Hunkyville" to move out. The houses were then put in order for American and foreign workingmen with families who agreed not to crowd their houses with boarders.

The failure of the company to work out the housing needs of its low paid immigrant labor was emphasized by its apparent indifference as to where the "hunkies" found a new abode.

Gary's south side which has been privately developed presents the worst and most menacing housing problem. The prices which workers on low wages are inveigled into paying to speculators amount practically to robbery. To illustrate: a foreigner was induced to pay \$1,800 for two lots adjacent to two others which were bought for \$700 by persons who knew actual land values. The payment of installments on outrageous land contracts is a hard and unnecessary burden on many a struggling Gary family, and has pitifully limited the sum available for house building. Speculative builders have put up flimsy, box-like frame houses by the hundreds. Even so the scarcity of housing accommodations has made exorbitant rents possible.

The most flagrant examples in all this bad housing are to be found in a score or more of barrack-like shacks to which the former denizens of "Hunkyville" had to turn. A typical shack is about 18 feet wide, 100 long, and one low story in height. The little space at the end of a 125 foot lot is occupied by the privies, one for every two "apartments." When two of these shacks are on adjoining lots, there is scarcely more than three feet between them. Standing on posts a couple of feet above the ground, the structure is built solely of boards, outside walls as well as partitions. An "apartment" extends across the width, each of the two rooms thus measuring about 9 by 9 feet. The room on one side of the building has a door and a window; the other room, two windows. There is no running water and one pump usually serves all the people in an entire shack or perhaps two. Slops and the less bulky refuse are merely thrown out



TWO TYPICAL SHACKS

of the door of the apartment into the unpaved passage way. Two typical shacks, separated by a narrow passage way into which the doors of the "apartments" opened, contained eight apartments each, two of the sixteen being unoccupied. In the twenty-eight rooms no less than sixty people lived. In most cases the family has two or three boarders additional; and not infrequently one finds a group of single men keeping house—such as it is—by themselves.

Two-room "apartments" rented for \$6 to \$9 a month. The average would certainly not be lower than \$7.50. One shack contained seven apartments at this figure, and a small space at the end which was rented as a saloon at \$35 a month. When wholly occupied, the monthly rental would thus total \$87.50, and amount to \$1,050 in a year. At a liberal estimate the construction of the shack could not have exceeded \$1,700 and the cost of the lot \$500. On the total of this investment, therefore, the income was approximately 50 per cent a year. Even if some of the space was for varying periods unoccupied, the return would certainly be "good." Other shacks, containing eight apartments each, renting at \$6 apiece, cost, according to the owner's statement, about \$1,600; a contractor stated that he would be glad to build one like it for \$1,450, and another estimate was still lower. With all the apartments filled, the total rental per year would be \$575. In both of these typical cases no account has been taken of the amounts the tenants charged their boarders.

The building of such shacks, as well as of the ramshackle hovels of boards, tin and tarpaper, which are a remnant of the early days,



"HUNKYVILLE"

March 1, 1918.



is now fortunately prohibited in Gary, but they are sufficiently substantial to remain a serious problem for some time to come.

Nor is overcrowding confined to the shacks. Such cases may be found as that of a man with a wife and baby who rent a six-room flat at \$45 a month and sublet three of the rooms to lodgers, his own family using the kitchen, and even the bathroom sometimes, for sleeping purposes. In the ordinary four-room houses in Kirkville or throughout the south side the immigrant family which does not have boarders is an exception. Typical four-room households are: a couple with two children and five boarders—nine altogether; a man and his wife and ten boarders; a man and his wife and eight boarders. The head of the new Neighborhood House settlement vouches for one case of a Ruthenian and his wife and twenty-five boarders, all in seven rooms. The man does the cooking and prepares the lunch baskets.

A few of Gary's more public spirited people feel the reproach which these conditions reflect on her civic life. Not many share the point of view of one owner who, when asked if the city authorities were requiring better conditions in the shacks, said, "Yes, they even want us to put in running water, but a rail pen is good enough for 'hunkies.'" In unconscious irony he placards his barracks with the sign of the "Indiana Improvement Company."

As the construction period in Gary's industries has given way more largely to that of operation, the proportion of foreigners has decreased. In April, 1909, an estimate of Gary's population made by the superintendent of the Land Company, divided the 10,246 total into 4,500 Americans (including Scotch, Irish, English and Canadians) and 5,746 foreigners—about 56 per cent. A similar estimate made in November, 1912, places the number of foreigners at about 12,000 out of the 30,000, or about 40 per cent. As long as the actual number is increasing, however, the probability is that the shack owners will have no difficulty in making a big profit.

Gary's building code is inadequate to cope with the situation, and her building commissioner shows little grasp of the situation. The regulations contain scarcely a word calculated to prevent some of the things which have led to the worst slum conditions in other cities. Nothing is said about windowless rooms, minimum requirements of air space in bedrooms, the use of basements for living purposes, etc. Small shafts for light and air are required, but the proportion of the lot area which may be covered is absolutely unrestricted. In fact, the commissioner volunteered the information that when a cheap house is to be built, he urges that it be placed on the rear of the lot. A premium is

thus put on the building of two houses on a single lot. What this means could be learned by a visit to the tenement districts of a city like Chicago. It is not a minute too soon for Gary to begin to "head off the slum" by proper housing ordinances. The Indiana housing law<sup>1</sup> covers only the larger cities, and does not apply to cities of the fourth class, in which Gary's present size places her.

### *Living Costs*

Living costs in Gary, while at their highest in rents, are by no means low in other necessities. A comparison of food prices at two stores in Gary and at an average store in Chicago showed that the Gary rates were never less, and almost always more, than those charged in Chicago. Moreover, an investigator who inquires the prices at the Gary stores and then examines the grocery books found in the homes frequently finds discrepancies, which are always to the advantage of the store. Several household budgets were secured. Those of two Polish households, the one of a family group, the other of a boarding boss establishment, throw light on the housing conditions already discussed.

Family "A"—Polish—consists of six: man, wife, wife's brother, three children under seven. Expenses per month: Rent \$7.50; food \$37.50, fuel averages \$4.51 (\$5.42 in winter and \$3.60 in summer); clothes \$2; tobacco and beer, \$1.35; doctor \$6.00. Even with the absurdly low estimate for clothing—the wife said the man bought one second-hand suit a year, and that she sewed all the other clothing by hand—the budget amounts to \$58.36 a month. The head of the family earns \$2 a day in the steel mill.

Family "B"—Polish—consists of man, wife and ten lodgers. Expenses per month: Rent \$17; food \$62.46; fuel, \$5.42; clothing \$5; furniture \$5; water rate \$.75. Total \$95.63. The man earns \$1.43 a day, amounting to about \$40 a month. The ten lodgers pay a total of about \$90 a month, or more than double the man's earnings.

Three charity visitors, a settlement resident and a visiting nurse estimated<sup>2</sup> that in South Chicago the cost of securing for one year the bare decencies of life for a family of five amounts to \$630. In Gary this figure would be swelled considerably by higher rent and food costs. The wage scales at the Gary steel mills are the same as at South Chicago, and the problem at Gary of making both ends meet must be even more acute than at South Chicago, where, as Mr. Fitch shows, the common laborer, at 17½ cents an hour, can not earn this minimum in three hundred days of twelve hours each, nor

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY for December 5, 1908; March 20, 1909, p. 1218; December 17, 1910.

<sup>2</sup>See THE SURVEY for April 6, 1912, page 19. The Labor Policies of Unrestricted Capital, by John A. Fitch.





### THREE OF GARY'S FINEST BUILDINGS

The Y. M. C. A. building, shown in the top picture, is the third largest in Indiana and cost \$250,000. It was given by Elbert H. Gary. The equipment and furnishings, which cost \$40,000 additional were a gift from the Steel Corporation. The Steel Company Hospital is shown in the center. The third building is the \$65,000 public library, given by Andrew Carnegie.

In the grouping of public buildings on Fifth avenue just west of Broadway, the Y. M. C. A. and Library face each other. The Post Office, for which the government has appropriated \$125,000, will be built just east of the Y. M. C. A.



in three hundred and sixty-five days of ten hours each. It is, of course, pointed out that many low-paid immigrant workingmen have hundreds of dollars in the banks at Gary. This may be accounted for in part by the large numbers of single men. And any one familiar with foreign colonies knows that many families, also, exist on the lowest standard of living in order to save. The problem for the family which desires normal home life is of course not solved by the savings of those who spend less than enough for physical efficiency or jeopardize their children's well-being by turning their rooms into sleeping quarters.<sup>1</sup>

### *Labor Organization*

Gary has been the scene of special effort by trade unions, alert to the significance of any success they may attain in a town controlled by a corporation which has so conspicuously fought labor organization. The American Federation of Labor in March, 1910, presented to President Taft bitter charges against conditions in the Gary plants. The efforts to organize the mills have not materialized; but the crying need of the town for more houses gave the building trades a foothold. The very fact that in 1910-1911 jurisdictional disputes among these unions nearly put a stop to all building operations indicates the extent to which they have taken lodgment. So critical did this become that the Commercial Club of Gary appointed a committee and went to great pains in its efforts to adjust the difficulties.

Demonstrations of what these organizations have accomplished for their members are bound to impress the steel workers. Ignorance of the English language is a barrier, but even the immigrant laborers in the steel mill who earn 17½ cents an hour can not fail some day to wake up to the fact that laborers doing similar work in Gary building operations are paid from 34 to 37 cents an hour. The present demand for labor has indeed drawn out a few "hunkies" from the steel mill to the better pay in the town.

Intermittency of work has not been a serious problem recently. But for several months, beginning in the fall of 1910, the mill was operated at only about 40 per cent of its full capacity. The unemployed included some who go from one point to another hunting jobs. One recent arrival from Westmoreland County, Pa., was still considerably preoccupied by the dangers of a region where "they shoots men."

### *Health*

Despite the poor housing and insanitary conditions described, Gary has not yet been men-

<sup>1</sup>There are undoubtedly some cases of what amounts to actual polyandry in Gary. A doctor of established position in the community is authority for the statement that ten boarders who lived with a couple habitually had relations with the wife, all with the entire knowledge and consent of the husband.

aced by any serious epidemic of infectious diseases. Climate, sandy soil, excellent water supply are important health factors. The water comes through a company tunnel which reaches a mile and a half out into Lake Michigan. The system is being extended throughout the city, displacing the many wells.

As the sewers also are developed, the dangers which now lurk in the privies and the indiscriminate throwing of slops ought to diminish. Some effort has been made to keep wells and privies reasonably far apart, but there are many evil conditions throughout large sections of the south side which could be eliminated under the state law, which makes it "unlawful for any person, firm, company or corporation to institute, permit or maintain any conditions whatever which may transmit, generate, or promote disease." The city does not appropriate funds sufficient to support an up-to-date health administration. In 1910 it paid \$1,837.55 to preserve its health, \$25,084.41 to keep itself from burning up, and \$33,583.26 to get itself arrested. One difficulty is a state law which limits the salaries of health officers.

One deputy health officer is charged with the inspection of food and its handling, including the dairies supplying milk. An excellent and obviously well-enforced regulation prohibits the display of goods on the sidewalks. Another deputy, a woman, devotes attention to insanitary living conditions. Although not possessed of much technical knowledge, she is active in dealing with obvious evils. Not only premises, but bad conditions inside the houses, even the care of babies, receive her attention. In a small way, moreover, she has brought various agencies to bear upon cases of dire poverty.

Cases of marasmus and other diseases due to poor nourishment or bad air are frequent, according to one of the health officials. The city has its full share of tuberculosis and pneumonia, and these diseases, he believes, are fostered by the fact that many men come from hours of work in a highly heated atmosphere into cold air and then breathe the foul air of the shacks.

The three health commissioners have taken turns in serving as executive of the board. One of them, whose training and professional record has been the subject of criticism, was more active than many another man of greater learning. Through newspaper publicity and talks on hygiene to the school children he kept the subject of health before the people. But both his ability and his singleness of purpose have been questioned by men who declare that his main object is to increase his private practice and his political prestige. One of his deputies habitually distributed the health commissioner's personal card, suggesting him as a good doctor to go to



in case of illness. The fitness of this deputy was indicated by a naive reply to a question regarding the milk supply, "The man brings it around." As a whole, the health administration fails to carry conviction.

### *Saloons*

Saloons are present in extraordinary numbers.<sup>1</sup>

In April, 1911, there were 238 to about 21,000 population. It is doubtful if another city of that size in the United States had so many. Miss Byington<sup>2</sup> reports that in Homestead, a city of 25,000 people, there were at the time of her investigation sixty-five saloons, ten wholesale liquor stores, a number of beer agents, innumerable "speakeasies" and a dozen or more "drug stores." Even if we lumped this assortment as a round hundred saloons, the proportion would be one saloon to every 250 people, whereas the proportion in Gary was one saloon to about every 88 people. This situation has improved, the proportion now being 198 saloons to about 30,000 people, or one to every 151. A typical working people's ward in Chicago has 304 saloons in a total population of 70,099—a proportion of one saloon to every 231 people. The McKeesport saloon keeper<sup>3</sup>, who started in without a cent and became a retired capitalist in four years is matched in the case of the young Italian in Gary who, starting similarly, is about to take a trip to Europe to celebrate his reaching the \$30,000 mark.

Gary started as a "wet" city, except that in the first subdivision the company stipulated in every contract for the sale of a lot that the premises should not be used for the sale of liquor. In only two places in this subdivision does it permit bars. Early in 1908 a petition was signed by a sufficient number of voters at the previous general election, though a comparatively small proportion of all the voters in the city at the time of the petition, to prevent for two years the granting of additional saloon licenses. When this more or less dry period came to an end, the rush to establish saloons rivaled that of a gold excitement.

In the spring of 1911, however, Indiana passed a law under which Gary saloon licenses rose from \$375 to \$725 each, of which amount \$500 goes to the city, \$200 to the state, and \$25 to the



INSANITARY CONDITIONS ON GARY'S SOUTH SIDE

federal government. Another provision of the same state law specifies that no new licenses shall be granted until the proportion of one saloon to every 500 people is reached. If the present 198 saloons are now paying businesses, they should reap large profits as the city rapidly grows.

### *Schools*

The schools of Gary are the special pride of the city administration, and, indeed, of most of the citizens. In the early days, when Broadway was just being laid out and not one permanent house had been erected, Thomas E. Knotts, the present mayor and at that time a member of the town board, was taking a Sunday morning walk along the sand hills flanking the street to be. On meeting a young man and finding him to be a school teacher, he recalled his own school teaching days and thought he would find out what the young man knew about education. "We hadn't talked long," said the mayor, "when I decided to shut up and listen." Before they parted the young man was asked whether he would consider a proposition to head the school system of the new city if at some time the offer were made to him. The time soon came, and the present admirable educational facilities of Gary are due more to William A. Wirt than to any one else.

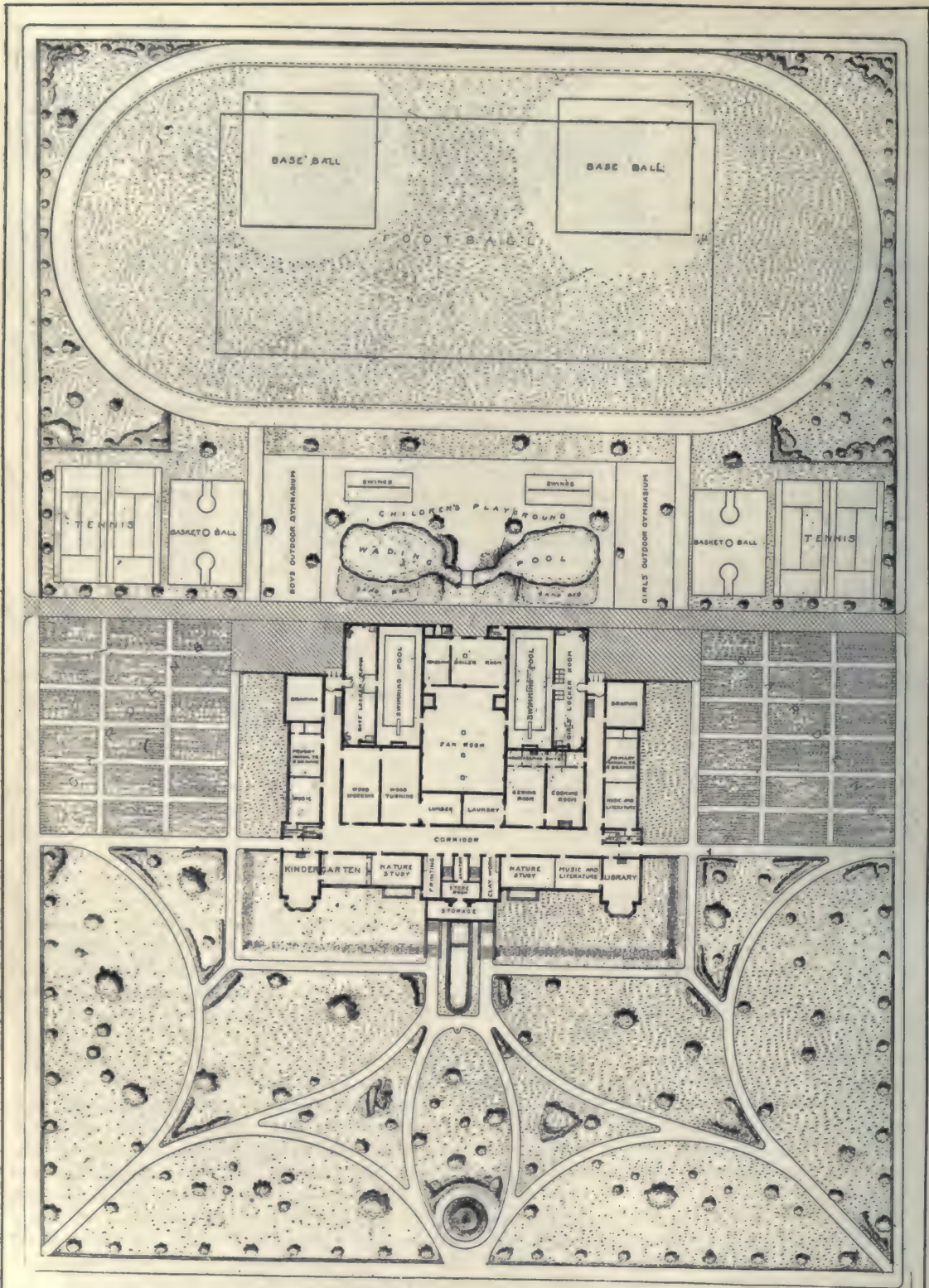
This is not the place to deal with educational theories, or the more technical points of school administration and curricula. But it is worth pointing out that the provision for manual training, nature study, playgrounds and leadership, gymnasium equipment, and industrial education of the new town is fully up to the standard set by the most progressive and resourceful cities. The arrangement of school space, study periods, and service of grade and special teachers is devised with rare skill, economy and balance. The space used for some of these modern lines of school work is of the sort which is entirely

<sup>1</sup>Houses of prostitution, on the other hand, number not over a dozen.

<sup>2</sup>See By Margaret F. Byington. Homestead, a volume in the Pittsburgh Survey, page 27.

<sup>3</sup>See THE SURVEY for March 6, 1909, p. 1091.





Gary's finest school—the Froebel—is to be built in the midst of the poor foreign population of the South Side. It will serve both as school and recreation center. Cost, \$275,000; equipment, \$25,000; capacity, 2,700 students. The ground in front of the building is to be a public park open at all times. At either side of the building will be children's school gardens. A six-acre playground will be in the rear. The locker rooms off the swimming pools will have a capacity for 1,000 men and 1,000 women in addition to the school boys and girls. The auditorium will seat 1,000 people.





GARY'S SCHOOLS—HER 'BEST CIVIC ACHIEVEMENT  
Emerson school shown above.

wasted in many buildings. The time and activity of teachers also is so ingeniously planned that no more teachers are required than in many places are employed to handle the same number of pupils merely in the conventional classes. The all-round community value of the future citizen is the goal. With well-timed gradations the play spirit is naturally fused into work impulses.

Can the public save expense by providing playgrounds, swimming pools, gymnasias, etc.? Professor Wirt says it can if only their utilization during the school day is well planned. To quote him: "The children that are in the swimming pool at each hour of the day, for instance, would have to have a school room provided for them if they did not have this swimming pool. Since the swimming pool occupies less valuable space, it costs less than a class room. It is cheaper, therefore, to the taxpayer to have a swimming pool in the school than not to have one. . . . The play ground, gymnasias and manual training rooms are used every school hour, and all of these cost less per capita than regular classrooms."

The history of the Gary schools illustrates where the Steel Corporation fell short in its efforts to anticipate and master the civic needs of the community. The Jefferson school erected by the company in launching the town cost \$90,000, and as structures go is doubtless well built. It was built under pressure, and the steel company architect was, of course, faced with an extensive and many sided problem, on all phases of which no one man could be a specialist. But just as the company brought in no leading expert in city planning, it failed to gauge the country's advances in school architecture and call in the best specialist to be had. We may have our own surmise, however, as to the course which would have been pursued if some particu-

lar process in the manufacture of steel had been in need of equipment. It is to the credit, therefore, of the civic intelligence of the town that when the Gary school board undertook the building of school houses it retained the architect of the St. Louis schools, generally recognized as one of the foremost men in this special line in the United States.

He built the Emerson school for the school board, at a cost of \$225,000 for building, site and playground. This school is declared to be equivalent to five plants of the Jefferson type. To serve a population of 100,000, which would include approximately 15,000 school children—and Gary is expected to grow to this extent before many years—eight buildings of the Emerson type would be required, costing for annual maintenance far less than forty buildings of the Jefferson type. The company now recognizes gladly that the schools which the city has built for itself form Gary's proudest civic achievement.

The Gary school administration is progressive in its efforts to make the buildings serve as neighborhood social centers. The auditorium of the Emerson school is frequently used for evening lectures and other gatherings. The swimming pool is open two nights in the week to women and four nights to men. A night school is also conducted.

Some effort is being put forth by the churches also to reach the foreigners of the south side. There is a Polish Catholic church just next to a whole group of shacks. The Presbyterians have maintained a mission in the midst of the foreigners of the south side, and have recently built a Neighborhood House in which a Slavic speaking head resident has been installed. In addition to the denomination mentioned, the Congregational, Baptist, Methodist, Christian, Lu-



theran, Episcopal and Greek churches are all represented, several having one or more good edifices.

### *Parks*

Two small parks were set aside by the company in the first subdivision, and thus far one has been improved. In the regions to the south, which are so rapidly building up in a helter skelter way, space should be set aside by the city, even if it can not immediately be improved. The need of this section will be partly met by the splendid play park of five acres to be provided in connection with the new Froebel school.

But the thing most urgent is shore front for the people. The eight consecutive miles owned by the company block all direct access to Lake Michigan. When THE SURVEY pointed this out in 1909, the situation was recognized as so serious that three Chicago dailies devoted editorials to it. The citizens of Gary arouse themselves periodically, and the rumors that the Steel Corporation is to extend its holdings eastward have still further crystallized public sentiment. Efforts were made by Gary to condemn a tract just east of the company's land, but as it was in the town of Miller, successful objection was made by that place. In the spring of 1911 a board of park commissioners was established by city ordinance, and there are prospects that a good sized tract may be bought on the lake shore at Millers.

Another project is to make a park along the bed of the Grand Calumet River, south of the city. The plan involves the reclaiming of a couple of thousand acres which are periodically flooded. The digging of the so-called "Burns Ditch" would divert the waters of the river into Lake Michigan several miles east of the city.

### *Politics*

Politics, which are said to be Indiana's most popular form of amusement, are certainly not lacking in excitement so far as Gary is concerned. If you were to believe everything that appears in some newspapers, you would think that the entire voting population of the steel city celebrates election day by getting arrested. Probably most of the occurrences are not peculiar to Gary. But it is just as true that "things happen" there in a bewilderingly sudden and kaleidoscopic way. The pioneer spirit probably finds its readiest expression in the political life.

Another thing productive of sudden shiftings is the easy naturalization possible under Indiana laws. The large number of foreign voters, beset here, as in Pittsburgh, by the old cry that a protective tariff means good times in the steel industry, have in national elections usually given the Republican Party a substantial margin. The story is told that a group of "hunkies" who did

not understand very much English came into a restaurant. The waiter asked for their orders. They all promptly repeated their leader's reply of "Taft." But in 1912 the Progressive Party triumphed by a vote of 1,815 for Roosevelt, as compared with 1,286 for Wilson, 1,083 for Taft, 320 for Debs, and 33 for Chapin.

While in municipal issues the Democrats have always been victorious, the county, on the other hand, is usually Republican. This situation gives to each side some local authority which may be exercised at election time. The Democratic city administration always controls the police force and swears in a lot of special officers. Similarly, the Republican sheriff appoints a large number of special deputies. Whenever some disturbance arises at a polling place, a wagonload of special policemen and another wagonload of deputy sheriffs arrive on the scene; this does not always mean that the disturbance immediately subsides.

The success of the Democratic candidate for mayor is perhaps due more to the personality of the man than to any party affiliation. For the issue has much of the time been Knotts *versus* anti-Knotts. At one time a school teacher, at another an Indian agent among the Sioux, later an insurance man, he had served as a police commissioner of Hammond and as president of the town board of Gary, when, in 1909, Knotts was elected at Gary's first city election for a four-year term as mayor. Despite bitter feeling and graft "exposures," during which the mayor has been arrested no less than fourteen times in two years, there are not many citizens who express a downright distrust in their chief executive. On the whole, most people give him credit for a very real desire to do the best thing for the interests of the city.

As Knotts himself put it, "We" (meaning the town board) "were just three bushwhackers and we had to learn how to manage public affairs as we went along." In forming an opinion of the administration's efficiency some of the handicaps under which it labors must be reckoned. The mayor has had a "combine" against him in councils to contend with. The extraordinary number of saloons may perhaps account for the fact, which is none the less significant, that for a considerable period six of the nine councilmen—one from each of six wards and three at large—were saloon keepers, some of them most disreputable.

The graft "exposure" which was widely heralded to the nation did not make good very far. A man from Louisville wanted a franchise for a heat supply company. He claims that he found it necessary to bribe the mayor, the city engineer and several aldermen. By means of a dictagraph he reported the guilty conversations with the latter. But the mayor was made a more



spectacular culprit by the "discovery" of \$5,000 in marked bills in his desk. He claims that they were put there by men who wanted to trap him, and it must be said that the charge has yet to be proven. One alderman was convicted, but never served his term, since he died pending the appeal of his case. The jury disagreed in the case of the city engineer. But the prosecution in general was upset by the declaration of the dictagraph stenographer that, at the direction of the Louisville man, he "fixed up" the report of the bribery conversation. And then the former city clerk, whose testimony had been damaging to the alderman later convicted, disappeared and sent a deposition that his testimony was perjured. The whole prosecution was then abandoned. Recently he turned up and announced that the deposition was forced from him at the point of a revolver and under threat that his previous prison record would be exposed. Most citizens who are not

bitterly partisan in Gary politics are inclined to give the mayor the benefit of the doubt in the situation, and to an outsider this seems a reasonable point of view.

But out of it all has come a better board of aldermen. The recent elections have changed its complexion so that the saloon keepers, instead of being six out of nine, are now only three.

Knotts' election came after a campaign in which both parties were divided by bitter factional strife. On the Democratic side this strife was stirred up by a former mayor of Joliet, Ill., who, it is alleged in some quarters, came to the new steel city for the express purpose of contesting the power of Knotts, and with the encouragement of various steel company officials. Fair-minded men point out that steel company men are to be found in both parties and all factions. To an outsider there does not appear to be much ground for believing that the company has any deep laid designs for controlling the politics of the city.

Knotts fairly reflects the general sentiment that the steel company has done much for the city created by its enterprise, but that the people themselves have also done much, and that the city has its own life to live and affairs to manage. That there could be any variance of opinion on this

score appears curious to the outsider. But there have been a considerable number of people, especially in the early days, who, although not identified with the steel company, took the point of view that the company had made the city possible, and therefore ought to have anything it asked for. The company itself disclaims any desire for favors at the hands of the community.

### *Public Utility Franchises*

The failure of a group of men connected with the steel company to secure the trolley franchise



POLLING PLACE ON A TURBULENT ELECTION DAY

must, however, be reckoned with. Their proposition was for exclusive rights for fifty years, covering all existing streets and alleys, including their subsequent extensions, with authorization to charge a flat five cent fare. The terms granted to a rival company, which is now operating, although of fifty years' duration, stipulate the following: only certain streets to be used; company to pave 26 feet of the width of such streets; at the expiration of five years tickets to be sold at the rate of eight for 25 cents, but six to be sold for 25 cents from the beginning (the company anticipated its contract by furnishing eight tickets for 25 cents for use during the four hours a day in which laboring men go to and return from work); interurban railroads coming from a greater distance than five miles to be furnished with power and the use of the company's tracks at a rate not to exceed two cents per passenger, an arbitration plan being provided in case this rate is thought to be exorbitant.

How there could be any difference of opinion among the citizens as to which franchise to choose is a mystery. That a fifty-year grant under any circumstances to any company was even considered by an up-to-date citizenship is extraordinary, in view of the public attention which





ROAST FIG,  
SHACKTOWN  
STYLE

has been directed to the struggles of the larger cities against such long term grants.

The Gary Heat, Light and Water Company, a subsidiary of the Steel Corporation, supplies gas, electricity and water under a twenty-five year franchise, under which the city can buy the plant at its then value. The gas rate was \$1.10 per thousand, with a discount of 10 per cent for payment within ten days, bringing it down to \$1. The company claims that it seeks only a reasonable return on its investment, and is primarily seeking to give good service to the town. On July 1, 1912, it voluntarily reduced the price of gas to \$1, with a discount of ten cents if bills are paid in ten days. It may be pointed out that a committee of the Chicago City Council employed an expert, whose report, after several months of investigation, was that gas in that city could be sold at seventy-seven cents per thousand and still return a dividend of 8 per cent on the value of the company's property. Of course conditions may not make this possible in Gary, but it would seem that the large quantities of gas manufactured at the steel mill ought eventually in some way to make still cheaper gas available for the town.

Electricity was furnished at the rate of eleven cents per watt hour, with 10 per cent discount for payment within ten days, though users of large quantities could secure it at a lower cost.

These rates were reduced 20 per cent on July 1, 1912. The charge for water was thirty cents per thousand gallons, reduced July 1, 1912, to twenty-five cents. This rate is varied according to quantity used and certain conditions. For instance, in the poorer houses, where there is but one faucet, a flat rate of \$8 a year obtains. The rate of thirty cents per thousand seems high when it is known that at Hammond, a few miles west, a municipal plant supplies it at seven cents. The quality, however, is generally acknowledged to be far superior at Gary, and the plant, involving a large investment, has a capacity to serve the future needs of a quarter of a million people. Public regulation of rates is not provided for in these franchises; and must come, if at all, through whatever procedure the general laws of Indiana permit.

#### *Civic Interest*

Perhaps the most significant recent development in Gary is the rise of municipal loyalty and co-operation. Its growth is more manifest to one who occasionally visits the place than to the inhabitants themselves. The enthusiasm with which citizens of all classes not only serve as committee members or directors of local organ-



NEIGHBORHOOD HOUSE

Built and maintained by Presbyterians. Head resident speaks Slavic.





SHACK HOUSING EIGHT FAMILIES AND MANY BOARDERS

izations, but devote time and energy to such activities, shows a marked contrast to the early spirit in which the scramble for individual advantage seemed uppermost. And it betokens much of civic promise for the future.

It may be that the very lack of tradition has made co-operation easy. How many cities could show on a Y. M. C. A. board of trustees a Jew, two Catholics, an Episcopalian and a Presbyterian, all working together harmoniously? And where else can you find a Y. M. C. A. secretary serving as manager of a financial campaign which raised in one week more than \$40,000 for a Catholic hospital building—the Mercy Hospital—which will equip the town with facilities for the care of the sick to compare in some degree with the splendid hospital which the company built at the steel mill? The \$18,000 for Neighborhood House, to be sure, was raised almost entirely outside of Gary, but the community is evidencing a vigorous interest and hope in what it may accomplish. A strong body of citizens has launched an associated charities. Newspapers and commercial organizations are increasingly turning attention to affairs of community betterment.

Gary stands out today as the greatest single manifestation of industrial power to be found in America. The Steel Corporation's triumphs in the economics of production are only less impressive than its complete command over the army of workers it employs. These together are exceeded in significance at Gary only by the unparalleled opportunity this vast industrial power possessed to determine the living conditions of a great multitude of human beings.

At Gary, as nowhere else, the opportunity was completely unhampered. The conditions and forces which had to be reckoned with elsewhere did not exist, had not grown up. The hills, which in other places have steadily thwarted expansion, were in Gary only sandy undulations. As if to impress nature herself that here at least she must be completely subservient, the very landscape was planed level and the watercourses shown their places. Nothing man-made blocked

the way. Even who the citizens-to-be of the future town were to be was to a large extent within the willing of this industrial power to select. The streets and houses for their habitation, their necessities of life, the conditions under which their children should grow up, and their livelihood might all be decided at the nod of the rulers of steel.

The people of this country are increasingly asking an accounting of the way such power is used. If public welfare asserts its right to keep railroads within bounds in fixing transportation rates, what shall be its attitude toward a power that can fix the whole round of work and home



RUSSIAN CHURCH AT GARY





HUNKIES' TAR PAPER DWELLING

and community conditions for large masses of men, women and children. The industrial executives who created Gary reiterate that their concern was the establishment of a steel mill and allied plants, that into city building they went only so far as necessity compelled. But "only so far" involved the very plan of the city, and many of the fundamentals which would determine its civic growth.

What has been the outcome? It is clear that industrial arrangement had the right of way. In so far as the city interests have not conflicted with industrial plans, or in so far as they were essential to those plans, they have received such attention as the largely self-contained civic enlightenment of steel makers suggested. If industry needed Lake Michigan frontage, that was sufficient reason to deprive the city of any whatsoever—especially if the impregnability of an industrial fortress was at stake. The men who are content only with the most scientific, thorough and largest success in shaping steel, thought their own civic rule o' thumb entirely competent to shape the molds for the flow of human life. Their very super-qualities as architects of industry set a standard which the observer craves for and fails to find in the upbuilding of the

town. A great industrial power let slip through its giant fingers a chance to work out a civic achievement the like of which the country has not known. The opportunity was exceptional enough to have attracted the thought and service of men whose civic purpose and ability would have commanded the respect and confidence of the nation.

Was paternalism to be avoided? Then a civic construction commission would have been the best and clearest disavowal. Paternalism consists not in the quan-

tity of things done, but in the spirit and way in which they are done. Gary, the community, could have been better planned, housing could have been more extensively provided, larger civic responsibilities, at less exacting costs of time, could have been shouldered by the industrial leaders through such a planning and construction commission, all with far less paternalism than has been shown in things actually done.

Yet citizenship, at the same time, could have shared civic responsibilities from the outset more largely than was permitted. The creativeness, the appreciation of human values, which the new townspeople have put into their schools, are an increment which all the steam shovels along the lake front could not have dumped into the melting pot of the growing city.

Nor could they have stirred its idealism as did a Gary newsboy who risked, and lost, his life that the skin from his crippled leg might aid the recovery of a burned girl. It is not enough to supply house paint by the barrel—the poorest little Hungarian school girl must have opportunity to express the best she can learn and aspire to. The tonnage methods of industry are not adequate for life.





# WOMEN IN THE BOOKBINDING TRADE

"It's a strain in bindery work not to make mistakes," a girl worker told Mary Van Kleeck, the author of *Women in the Bookbinding Trade*, just published for the Russell Sage Foundation. "A book is easily spoiled. I know a girl that put a picture of Longfellow in a copy of 'As You Like It.' Nobody knew it until she looked in another girl's book that had a picture of Shakespeare. 'Well,' she said, 'that doesn't look like the picture I pasted. He was a funny looking man, but not as funny as that.'"

The reader who has come to a full stop in the middle of a book or of a magazine article because the "signatures" are mixed, may be in no forgiving mood with the girl who doesn't know Longfellow's beard from Shakespeare's, but he may have some sympathy with the fatigue and monotony of factory work. Another girl put it tersely: "When you do one thing all day you lose the feeling in your fingers; you are likely to pick up two sheets at a time."

The book contains many such personal touches, clear glimpses into the lives of two hundred girls and women with whom Miss Van Kleeck and her associates came into personal contact and whose life stories, interpreted by a trained investigator and student, go to make this most interesting and readable of recent volumes on women in industry.

In the binderies the industrial revolution is not a matter of history, but of the day's work. There is incessant competition between outgoing hand processes and incoming machine processes. The skilled craftswoman doing artistic hand work is a diminishing factor. The whole tendency is for a girl to learn one machine or only

a part of it. A year later that machine may be obsolete and her hard-won skill unsalable.

And it is her experience to be out of work or cruelly overworked, according to the seasonal demand for books, magazines and pamphlets. The weeks preceding Christmas are a stampede in the bindery.

There is not space here to go into details of Miss Van Kleeck's study of the shifting in the trade, of the wages, the hours, the home conditions. Her care in working out her points and her vigorous attitude toward the problems she discusses are well illustrated in the chapter where Wages and Home Conditions are considered together—as they should be. Of a group of 199 workers, 107 lived in families of which the father was the head; 59 in families of which the mother was the head; 23 of which another relative was head; 3 were married women whose earnings were needed for the family support—only 6 were boarders. In only half the homes was the father a contributor to the income, and even if the father was the head of the family he was typically a low-paid man, not earning enough to support his household. The wages of the girls were needed in every one

of the families, meager as they were, for on the average bindery girls earn little more than \$300 a year. Small chance here for the worn explanation that low wages are relatively justified for girls living at home and working for pin money.

*Women in the Bookbinding Trade* is a compact volume of 290 pages, freely illustrated from photographs by Hine. It will be sent postpaid for \$1.50.



MARY VAN KLEECK  
Author of *Women in the Bookbinding Trade*

Following her college work at Smith and Columbia, Miss Van Kleeck held the fellowship awarded jointly by the College Settlements Association and the Smith College Alumnae. Her subjects were overtime work of girls in factories and child labor in the tenements. She was industrial secretary of the Alliance Employment Bureau for two years and since 1909 she has been secretary of the Russell Sage Foundation Committee on Women's Work, of which Prof. Henry R. Seager is chairman.

*Women in the Bookbinding Trade* is the first published result of the committee's work. It will be followed by four other volumes, two of which are nearly ready—*Makers of Artificial Flowers* and *Women and Girls in Public Evening Schools*.





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# THE SURVEY



Volume XXIX, No. 23

March 8, 1913

## *The Rag-picker's Song*

*From Charpentier's Opera Louise*

*Translated by Katharine Anthony*

---

*A father seeks his daughter  
She was all the child he had*

*But a girl  
In the city  
Is a needle  
In a field of wheat!*

*Why seek,  
And be insistent?  
The big town  
Is in need of our girls.*

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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

THE Webb-Kenyon bill to prohibit the shipment of liquor in interstate commerce into states whose laws forbid its sale has been passed over the President's veto by both the United States House of Representatives and the Senate.

THE last of the cases growing out of the Lawrence strike of a year ago have been *nolle prossed* by District Attorney Henry C. Atwill who prosecuted the murder charges against Ettor and Giovannitti. Among the cases which were discontinued were those charging William D. Haywood, William E. Trautman, William Yates, treasurer of the strike defense fund, and Joseph J. Ettor with a conspiracy to intimidate the workers in the various mills.

"THE war on vice is a fight to the finish," writes Graham Taylor, and in this issue of THE SURVEY important developments of the warfare are set forth: the Supreme Court's upholding of the White Slave Law; the range of prosecutions under that law; the exposures of police graft in New York; the report of the Portland Vice Commission; the work of the Pittsburgh Morals Commission; and the work of the Bureau of Hygiene. Pp. 799 and 809.

UNDER the caption Post Graduates of the Hired Man, R. R. Reeder, educator and orphanage superintendent, shows how the problem of the sexes is not only a municipal but a household problem. P. 816.

THE twelve-hour day of the dye houses is one of the little known phases of the Paterson silk mill strike. "Dyeing" is carried on continuously and the workers want the twenty-four hours split up into three shifts.

THE two months' strike in the garment trade in New York is over. In men's wear the organized employers have held their ground against bargaining with the workers. In women's wear, protocols have been signed between employers' organizations and the shirt waist makers, the kimono makers, and the white goods workers. Developments under the two regimes will be watched with interest. P. 804.

THE struggle between two opposing theories of Socialist tactics in America has passed its first stage. The count of the ballots shows that William D. Haywood has been recalled from the National Executive Committee of the Socialist Party by a two to one vote.

THE time and place for the presentation of Brieux's "Damaged Goods" have been changed to March 14 at the Fulton Theater, Rich and Harris, managers. Managers of the Waldorf-Astoria, Little Theater and Thirty-ninth Street Theater, some of whom had previously offered their houses, withdrew their offers, fearing that their licenses did not cover that sort of production or that the police would interfere.

# THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE  
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# THE COMMON WELFARE

## SUPREME COURT UPHOLDS THE "WHITE SLAVE" LAW

February 24, 1913, will be remembered for generations as the day on which the Supreme Court of the United States declared that

"it is misleading to say that men and women have a right. Their rights cannot fortify or sanction their wrongs."

The Mann or White Slave Law had been attacked on the ground that the federal government was usurping the police power of the states, and that it interfered with the "right" of individuals to travel freely from one state to another, regardless of their motive. The decision is held to mark the most advanced step yet taken by the United States Supreme Court in construing the powers of the federal government over interstate commerce.

Lawyers believe that it perhaps foreshadows the attitude of the Supreme Court on such measures, proposed or existing, as prohibition of the shipment of liquor into dry states and interstate commerce in articles manufactured under conditions of hours or of sanitation not up to standard and the work of prisoners or children. All these have been deemed in some quarters to be of doubtful constitutionality.

This opinion on the Mann Law challenges the "right" of a woman to work at night, of a man to sell his labor where and for what he will, regardless of conditions.

The immediate effect of the decision will be to strengthen the hands of the United States district attorneys, who have had success in securing convictions in white slave cases; and to free volunteer workers for their pressing task of attacking the social evil in city and state.

Justice McKenna wrote the opinion of the court, which is in part as follows:

"It is said that it is the right and privilege of a person to move between the states, and that such being the right another cannot be made guilty of the crime of inducing or assisting or aiding in the exercise of it, and 'that the motive or intention of the passenger either before beginning the journey or during or after completing it is not a matter of interstate commerce.'

"The contention confounds things important to be distinguished. It urges a right exercised in morality to sustain a right to be exercised in immorality. It is the same right which attacked the law of Congress which prohibits the carrying of obscene literature and articles designed

for indecent and immoral use from one state to another. It is the same right which was excluded as an element as affecting the constitutionality of the act for the suppression of lottery traffic through national and interstate commerce. It is the right given for beneficial exercise which is attempted to be perverted to justify baneful exercise, as in the instances stated. This constitutes the supreme fallacy of the plaintiffs' 'error.' It pervades and vitiates their contention.

"Plaintiffs admit that the states may control the immoralities of their citizens. Indeed, this is their chief insistence, and they especially condemn the act under review as a subterfuge and an attempt to interfere with the police power of the states to regulate the morals of their citizens and assert that it is in consequence an invasion of the reserve powers of the states.

"There is unquestionably a control in the states over the morals of their citizens and it may be admitted it extends to making prostitution a crime. It is control, however, which can be exercised only within the jurisdiction of the states, but there is a domain which states cannot reach and over which Congress alone has power, and if such power be exerted to control what the states cannot it is an argument for—not against—its legality. Its exertion does not encroach upon the jurisdiction of the states. The pure food and drugs act is a conspicuous example. In all instances where the right of Congress to legislate for such matters has been attacked the clash of the national legislation with the power of the state was urged and rejected.

"Of course it will be said that women are not articles of merchandise, but this does not affect the analogy of the cases; the substance of the congressional power is the same, only the matter of its exercise must be accommodated by the differences in its objects. It is misleading to say that men and women have a right. Their rights cannot fortify or sanction their wrongs and if they employ interstate transportation as a facility of their wrongs it may be forbidden them to the extent of the act of July 25, 1910.

"The principle established by the cases is a simple one when rid of all confusing and distracting considerations, that Congress has power over transportation 'among the several states,' that the power is complete in itself and that Congress as an incident to it may adopt not only means necessary but convenient to its exercise and the means may have the quality of police regulation."



## COMMERCIALIZED VICE A NATIONAL PROBLEM

The upholding of the Mann Law comes on the heels of the New York vice revelations. These, like those of Chicago, are exhibits of a problem which each city must attack by itself. But organized vice, by ramifying across the continent, has linked them up into a national problem, vulnerable under federal law. There is pretty general agreement that the present point of attack on commercialized vice should, so far as the cases permit, be brought under the Mann Act.

The federal attorneys have piled up a record since the law went into effect in July, 1910, of 337 convictions with sentences totaling 607 years and fines aggregating \$66,605.50. One hundred and six cases were pending at the last report. There have been only thirty-five acquittals. A Detroit attorney has pointed out that practically no cases have been lost there in federal courts (twenty-nine convictions) while practically none, for very similar offenses, have been won in the state court.

In his annual report to the President, Attorney-General Wickersham asked for an increased appropriation (from \$100,000 to \$200,000) for the special commissioner and local white slave officers who have been chiefly instrumental in winning these government suits. Many individuals and local sex hygiene and similar societies are in hearty accord with the plan, and look upon the Mann Act as the most effective law we have ever had in dealing with the trafficking in vice.

Nevertheless, there has been strong criticism of the enforcement of the law in several jurisdictions because of light sentences. The law was drawn on broad lines, making it a violation for any person to knowingly persuade, induce, coerce, or cause, or to aid or assist any woman or girl to go from one state to another for prostitution, debauchery or other immoral purpose, with or without her consent. The maximum penalty, if the victim was over eighteen, was made five years' imprisonment and \$5,000 fine; twice that amount if she were under eighteen.

In the face of such a possible penalty, a probation officer in Pittsburgh protested vigorously when a white slaver, convicted there, was given a sentence of one day and a fine of only \$200. In Minnesota the women's clubs made a state issue of a case in which a married man, deserting his family, took a girl from Wisconsin to Minnesota, and was sentenced by Judge McPherson to three months in the county jail and a fine of \$1,000. The women's clubs petitioned the judge of the United States Court of Appeals, who makes the assignments of the district judges, to assign Judge McPherson to another district, "lest another case of white slavery be placed upon the calendar subject to Judge McPherson's

judgment." This petition was refused, on the ground that the degree of punishment is expressly entrusted to the trial judge. It was stated also that the United States district attorney who prosecuted the case was satisfied with the sentence. The man had pleaded guilty to taking a girl under eighteen across state borders for cohabitation. Judge McPherson defended his sentence on the ground that there was no evidence to show that the girl was coerced. The club women countered vigorously with a statement to the effect that coercion was not the point; that by the man's own story, plus all human experience, the girl was surely entered on a life of prostitution; what they wanted was such punishment as would be the talk of every barroom and a specter to any man who contemplated doing it in the future.

## CLASH OF NEW CONSCIENCE WITH OUR COURT DECISIONS

In the difference of opinion between judge and prosecutor on the one hand and club women on the other in this case lies the key to the criticism of the courts. For a summary of it and a study of the light sentences imposed in all jurisdictions THE SURVEY is indebted to Frederick H. Whitin, secretary of the Committee of Fourteen in New York, who, with the cordial co-operation of Attorney-General Wickersham, secured a great sheaf of letters from federal district attorneys.

The federal judges and attorneys, it appears, pretty generally take into account the circumstances of the case. In clear cases, where white slavery is effected through coercion, imprisonment and heavy fines have been imposed. But they were satisfied with comparatively light sentences, for instance, in all of the following: The Pittsburgh case, where the woman was an acknowledged prostitute; a New York case where the woman brothel keeper convicted was believed to be not the real offender, but his agent; a Louisiana case in which the women involved were acknowledged Negro inmates of the New Orleans levee taken to a lumbering camp in an adjoining state; an Oregon case, the woman in which is described by the district attorney as "a well-seasoned and hardened prostitute who, about the time of the arrest, did a fancy job of carving the white slaver with a butcher knife"; a similar case in Illinois, where the woman was "a female veteran of the under world"; a California case, in which the attorney ventures the opinion that to make a crime of interstate transportation of prostitutes "places a premium upon the daughters of our own state to be dragged into such a life"; finally, in another far western case, an opinion from the bench that violations under this law might appropriately be divided into three classes: (1) those in which the de-



## LIBERA NOS

FRANK THONE

We have grown to be a city; there's a host of hopeless men  
Who toil that they may eat and sleep—to wake and toil again,  
And to their helpless children they'll bequeath their slavery  
From the bondage of the Pharaohs, set us free, Lord, set us free!

We have grown to be a city; we are stricken with the curse  
Of those that stint the laborer's loaf that they may swell their purse;  
They give him books and churches, but they deny him half his pay—  
From the greed of Tyre and Sidon, Lord, deliver us, we pray!

We have grown to be a city; 'mid the factory's racking sound  
A thousand children slowly die to make the wheels go round;  
They moan aloud for mercy, but their masters do not care—  
From the crime that branded Herod, spare us, Lord; hear thou our prayer!

We have grown to be a city; and our high priests brand with red  
The wretches who have sold their souls to buy a little bread,  
But to the ones who grind them down they have no word to say—  
From the fate Thou gavest Sodom, spare us, Lord, another day.

We have grown to be a city, but our fathers are not strong,  
And they bow before the mighty who find profit in the wrong,  
For wrong is ever mighty, and our fathers are afraid—  
Help us, then, Lord God Almighty, for we surely need Thy aid!

Amen.

fendant persuaded a woman or girl of previous good character to enter into a life of shame, (2) those who habitually associate with women of immoral character and live off their earnings, (3) those who, while earning their own livelihood by some legitimate occupation, yet associate with this class of women and occasionally are the means of transporting them from one state to another.

In all these cases the judges and district attorneys make allowances for the degree of *coercion* involved. They also have to reckon with points of law and procedure, such as insufficient evidence making pleas of guilty or *nole contendere* acceptable (this happened in the Pittsburgh case, where, additionally, the defendant had been in jail six months awaiting trial).

Summing up all the evidence, Mr. Whitin says:

"The difference of attitude, which constitutes the real difference between the officials charged with the act's enforcement and its friends, runs through all the correspondence from all the districts. It must be recognized that the judges now sitting on the federal bench are generally men of the older generation—the generation which grew up and accepted from its fathers, without protest by its mothers, the theory of sex necessity for men. They do not, therefore,

look upon the commercializer of prostitution, if he is not a white slaver in the stricter meaning of that term, with the abhorrence which is growing so rapidly in the younger generation which has thrown a challenge to the theory of sex necessity. It comes, therefore, to a question of education—education of the courts' critics to distinguish between the personal safeguards which our forefathers fought so hard to obtain and the overgrowth of legal technique which chokes our criminal courts; education of the judges that they may be abreast of the moral sentiment of the day; education of the public so that all may unite in concerted effort to suppress the crime of the ages, commercialized sexual vice."

ROCKEFELLER BUREAU  
OF SOCIAL HYGIENE

When Mary Goode got up her Irish dander and told the Curran investigating committee the story of her dealings with men who "protected" her as the keeper of a disorderly house, she ran the whole gamut of the New York vice situation which differs but slightly from the vice situation in any other city. And her testimony led to a prompt public demonstration of that "new conscience in regard to this twin of slavery, as old and outrageous as slavery itself and even more persistent," which Jane Addams has foreseen.



While Mrs. Goode's statement was still fresh in mind came the announcement from John D. Rockefeller, Jr., of the Bureau of Social Hygiene, designed to meet and overcome the very conditions she had disclosed. For some time this bureau has maintained the laboratory of social hygiene at Bedford Reformatory,<sup>1</sup> to study the lives and needs of the girl inmates in order to prescribe for their treatment and rehabilitation and to learn the conditions leading to their commitment. Now it announces a "thorough and comprehensive survey of the conditions of vice in New York city," by George J. Kneeland, who had charge of the investigation for the Chicago Vice Commission; and a similar study of conditions in Europe by Abraham Flexner, widely known for his reports on medical colleges, made to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Mr. Flexner has studied in particular the various European methods of dealing with the social evil, including state regulation and segregation. Mr. Kneeland will report not only on conditions but on the personal histories of 2,000 prostitutes and on a year's case records of hospitals and dispensaries "with a view to ascertaining the prevalence of venereal diseases and their ratio to all other diseases." Both reports should be epoch-making, for they are on a much greater scale than even the Chicago report. The study of European police systems now being made by Raymond V. Fosdick, formerly commissioner of accounts, is for the same bureau.

But this is only the beginning, for it is announced that the bureau is to

"go on, generation after generation, continuously making warfare against the forces of evil, which are never greatly alarmed at the organization of investigating or reform bodies, for they know that they are generally composed of busy people, who cannot turn aside from their own affairs for any great length of time to carry on their reforms, and that sooner or later their efforts will cease, and the patient denizens of the under world and their exploiters can then reappear."

Thus we are to have, for the first time, an organization to study not one or a few aspects of vice, but the whole, an organization possessed of ample means, and starting with a thorough survey of conditions. The present members are Katharine B. Davis, superintendent of the Women's Reformatory at Bedford; Paul M. Warburg, Starr J. Murphy and Mr. Rockefeller. It is the outgrowth of the latter's experience as foreman of the white slave grand jury in New York in 1910.

To many great interest will attach to an interview in the *New York Times* in which Mr. Rockefeller says:

"I say unhesitatingly that in the vast majority of cases she [the prostitute] is a victim. Prostitution as now conducted in this country and in Europe is very largely a man's business, the women are merely tools in the hands of the stronger sex. It is a business run for profit and the profit is large. It is my belief that less than 25 per cent of the prostitutes in this country would have fallen if they had had an equally good chance to lead a pure life. That they have been dragged into the mire in such large numbers is due to a variety of circumstances, among which are poverty, low wages, improper home conditions and lack of training, the natural desire for pretty things, etc. But while all these may be contributing causes, man is chiefly responsible."

This goes with the Chicago, Minneapolis, Portland and other reports and throws Lecky and "the scarlet woman" overboard, or leaves them for Mayor Gaynor who deprecates discussion of a white slave traffic, holds that all public discussion of the matter is mere aspersion on the fair name of New York and advocates "outward order and decency" as the sum of our ambition.

#### RELATIONS OF VICE TO POLICE GRAFT IN N. Y.

Mary Goode—to go back—is a woman of considerable education, the keeper of a quiet, rather small house of prostitution in an uptown flat building. Her statements of facts and figures cannot be accepted without corroboration, but they follow strikingly the Chicago report and the accepted statements of other investigators. In her testimony before the Curran committee she told:

—how the 35,000 prostitutes of New York are recruited from shop girls, earning four and five dollars a week, who have to go on the streets **at night**.

—how she had paid money every month to a beer bottler who in turn paid the police. This led to testimony by two Raines Law hotel keepers against a politician and a policeman who, to save himself from Sing Sing, told on his superiors.

—how the avarice of the graft collectors had reached a point where all the profits of her establishment went to them.

—how first, she had turned instinctively to a woman, known as a leader in the woman suffrage cause, who advised her to go to the authorities.

—how District Attorney Whitman's effective protection of his witnesses against Lieutenant Becker gave her courage to break with her "protectors" contrary to every instinct and practice of her class.

—how seventeen flats in her house, house after house in her street, street after street in the Upper West Side, were rented to tenants such as she, with the full knowledge of the police who collected graft from them and of the owners who collected exorbitant rents from them.

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY for May 18 and December 7, 1912.



—how all that she asked was to be given protection, for which she was ready to pay, so that she might run her place unmolested, with "outward order and decency," which was her understanding of what the people of New York want.

There, pretty completely, is the vice situation with two things lacking. First, the question of venereal disease, which all employing prostitutes avoid; second, organized vice. The second exception is important, for if Mary Goode had been a part of the "vice trust" she would not have been an independent keeper of a house but an agent of men organized not only to run houses but to see to protection payments in bulk, to furnish a steady stream of new girls as needed and to regulate this stream so that dull times in one part of town can be discounted by adding numbers in other parts where there is more demand.

These points came out through other witnesses and every week has had its new exposures reaching deeper and deeper, or higher and higher, as one regards it as a social or a police problem. Recently admissions were made by a police captain which knocked the biggest hole yet in the wall of secrecy and graft surrounding the tenderloin. The whole relation of the Police Department to vice is being thoroughly aired by the Curran committee of the Board of Aldermen which resulted from the exposures following the murder of Herman Rosenthal, the gambler. It has had the co-operation of the Bureau of Municipal Research and of many citizens and is securing day by day practical results by placing all its findings at the disposal of District Attorney Whitman.

Among other features of a very full newspaper discussion provoked by these revelations, has been a symposium in the *Evening Post* by more than one hundred social workers, clergymen and others. This turned on a pretty general agreement with the *Evening Post's* suggestion that a vice commission is needed in New York, and this, very likely, led to the full announcement of Mr. Rockefeller's plans which had been going forward quietly for some time. So far as his announcement shows, the new bureau is purely an investigating body with no plans which would duplicate the militant work of law enforcement carried on by the Committee of Fourteen. This committee has practically cleaned out the Raines Law hotels and is now turning to new measures. Last week it had introduced in the state legislature a bill based on the Iowa Injunction and Abatement Act which, by means of an injunction, prevents the continued use of the same premises for disorderly purposes. It will shortly introduce another bill designed to stop the movement of disorderly women into tenement houses.

## CITIZENS' COMMITTEE REPORT IN NEW YORK

Attacking the same problem, but from a different angle, that of police reform, is the report of the Citizens' Committee issued last week. The committee was appointed at a mass meeting held in Cooper Union last August after the murder of Rosenthal, the gambler, for which Police Lieutenant Becker was later convicted and sentenced to death.

The committee finds that "conditions of police administration in the first American city are bad, have always been so within the memory of living men and show no gratifying improvement." Its principle for improvement is to take away from the police all control of the vices, leaving to them their constabulary duties of preserving peace and order. Its method is to create a board of social welfare to deal with vice, to double the salary and greatly extend the term of the police commissioner, and to open the saloons on Sunday. The last is first in order among the recommendations.

The suggestion of a board of social welfare follows somewhat the recommendations of the Chicago Vice Commission and the Morals Commission of Pittsburgh. The recommendation is that the members of the board, to serve without pay, be appointed by the mayor and subject to removal by the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court on conviction of charges of malfeasance or nonfeasance in office or of unfitness. The term suggested is seven years. The board would deal with the social evil, gambling, excise and amusements. Its executive head would be an associate commissioner of the Police Department. His staff, drafted from the police force, would be given increased pay in return for signing waivers of interest in the police pension fund and of any right of reinstatement. The board would have power to dismiss officers at will, to hire men outside and to pay them from a substantial contingent fund. This is aimed at the present difficulties of securing detectives and of discharging unfaithful officers, who frequently secure reinstatement with back pay as a result of suits brought in court and backed by their protective associations.

The recommendations regarding the police commissioner are that his appointment continue in the hands of the mayor but that it be for a period of ten years unless he be removed by the Appellate Division following conviction of charges brought against him; that his salary be increased from \$7,500 to \$15,000 in order to secure a higher grade of trained man. The committee finds that the great difficulty of the police commissioner is his short term of office. There have been eight commissioners in the past eleven



years. They believe a second rate man appointed for ten years would do better than a first class man in office a short time.

The recommendation in regard to excise is "that Sunday saloon selling within restricted hours and with other proper limitations should be permitted by law in New York city." The argument is that saloons are now open all day Sunday, illegally, leading inevitably to graft; that "it is the firm opinion of this committee, as well as that of practically every student of city conditions with whom this committee has conferred, that the Sunday sale of liquor in New York cannot be suppressed;" that "the world's experience shows it is futile to attempt to enforce regulations which contravene the daily habits of a considerable part of the public;" that "instead of opening the saloons, we think our plan may tend to close them the larger part of the day, and especially during church hours."

It is understood that the bill embodying this recommendation proposes that the open hours on Sunday be from 1 to 11 p. m., and that it will not be pushed for passage. No evidence is submitted on the recommendation, which is advanced as embodying the unanimous opinion of the committee and of the students it consulted. The names of the students are not given. The committee recommends the repeal of the Raines law, which permits a saloon maintaining ten or more bedrooms and serving a meal (defined by the courts as a sandwich) to take out a hotel license and sell liquor on Sunday.

The report of the committee came out earlier than was expected as a result of the hearings before the state legislative committee investigating vice and graft. It brought out a prompt announcement from the Rockefeller Bureau of Social Hygiene that, as commonly surmised, the trip of former Commissioner of Accounts Fosdick to study European police systems is on behalf of the bureau. It urges delay in police changes until his report is ready, some time this year.

## EVOLUTION IN THE GARMENT TRADES

The New York garment strikes, which have come to a close at the end of two months, are not local affairs. With the revolutionary development in ready-to-wear clothing even the customer of the village store is concerned in these labor disputes. The farm hand who wants a college cut to his Sunday suit is at one end of a chain that reaches back to the machine operators who during the past month have been picketing the loft buildings of Manhattan; the housekeeping of the best families of a middle-sized city, whose week's washing is piled with white goods they have bought at the local department store, is bound up with that of the home workers of the tene-

ments whose low-paid labor has complicated and undercut the pay in the factories.

The strikes are of national significance in a larger sense. For, unless all signs fail, they are likely to prove the occasion of notable changes in the organic development of industry. In the men's wear trade, the strike hung on with no constructive outcome; but in women's wear, this winter's struggle has ushered in the extension of the protocol plan to three divisions of garment manufacture in New York—shirt waist, kimono, and white goods. Thousands of workers and hundreds of manufacturers are thus brought together in grievance and sanitary boards, slowly, stitch by stitch, to endeavor to put order and health and publicity and responsibility into the fabric of their common work.

The view of the employers who enter into these protocols has been expressed by Julius Henry Cohen, the attorney who has been a central figure in many of the negotiations. "We have reached a point where the garment manufacturers are doing what the professions have long done," he said in a recent speech before the Efficiency Society. "We hold ourselves responsible for the scalawags of our trade. It does not make any difference how good the standards are a man wants to set in his own plant, the competitor who knows no limits in his treatment of his help undermines them and brings the trade into public obloquy. We are going to set the whole level of the trade on a higher plane, and we are going to count on the workers to join with us in doing it; to work things out together."

## LIKE THE RAFFLE OF A RICKSHAW

The garment industry in New York is so enormous and scattered that the management of an individual shop does not feel the pressure of public opinion the way it would in a small community. In the absence of a strong union, or of the joint form of trade government provided by the protocols, there is no hindrance to the unscrupulous employer.

To illustrate, a practice resorted to in one of the men's tailor shops now on strike is reported on the card record of a recent investigation by the Committee on Women's Work of the Russell Sage Foundation. We all remember the East Indian contractor in Kipling's *Incarnation of Krishna Mulvaney*, who made his coolie laborers raffle for a rickshaw out of each week's earnings and then accepted the rickshaw back again—a weekly gift from the winner, who had no use for it.

The incident is paralleled in a men's tailor shop in New York employing 500 girls and men. From the weekly pay envelope of each employe earning \$6 or over ten cents is held back to raffle for a suit of men's clothing of the value of \$7.



Raffling is thus compulsory. If a girl gets the suit she has nothing to do but give it back, or if she is very enterprising, take it and try to find a purchaser. One girl reports that she has paid in three years to the weekly raffle \$15 in all, and got nothing for it. Like the roulette wheel, the "bank" never lost; whoever won the suit the employer stood to win a no small sum from his girl employes each week.

Of the same firm it is recorded, also, that in the labeling department one dollar is held back from the employes' pay envelope weekly to put into a compulsory savings fund on which the employer gathers interest until the employe has a total of \$50 to his or her credit. Then only can the victim of this compulsory thrift draw out his savings.

#### MEN'S WEAR ON THE OLD BASIS

In this trade, which led off the strikes of four branches of the garment industry, no common basis of settlement for the body of employers with the body of workers has been agreed upon, the New York Clothing Trade Association being firmly opposed to collective bargaining.

It is generally understood that the underlying opposition of the clothiers is to the preferential shop, which they regard as a subterfuge for the closed shop, and a disinclination to turn their business over to their employes, which is their description of the protocols in women's wear.

Perhaps 20,000 of the tailors on strike had made settlements with individual shops when on February 28, the union declared the strike off and the balance of the strikers went back to work in open shops where the union is not recognized. The calling off of the strike was due to the following propositions of settlement made to their employes through Marcus M. Marks, who had more than once offered his mediation, by the advisory committee of the Allied Clothing Manufacturers' Association, made up of representatives of the New York Clothing Trade Association, the Tailors to the Trade Association, the American Clothing Manufacturers' Association of New York, and the Associated Boys' Clothing Manufacturers of Greater New York.

The terms under which the strikers go back to work follow:

The workers are to return to work immediately.

The question of hours is to be submitted to a commission consisting of the following, Robert Fulton Cutting, Marcus M. Marks, Dr. J. L. Magnus, their recommendations to be accepted as final and binding.

The findings shall be on the basis of establishing a standard of working hours per week that will maintain the industry in New York on a

competitive basis with other markets for the present and for the future.

Upon the resumption of work there shall be a general increase in wages to week workers in tailor shops of \$1 a week over wages paid prior to the strike, and to piece workers the rate shall be advanced in the same proportion.

No reduction in price in dull season. The maintenance of sanitary conditions.

The abolition of sub-contracting in contractors' and inside shops.

Hours and conditions in contract shops to be identical with those of inside shops.

The wages of cutters to be as agreed upon between the firms and their employes.

There shall be no discrimination in the re-employment of the workers.

The United Manufacturers' and Merchants' Association and the United Clothing Contractors' Association, whose protocol plan was refused by the strikers four weeks ago, are not officially included in this proposition, though they expect to act in co-operation with the other employers' associations.

The *Daily Forwards*, the East Side Yiddish Socialist organ, which was strong in its opposition to the protocol, favored the present agreement. The latest reports are that a considerable body of the workers have refused to accept the terms, and rioting has occurred before the offices of the *Forwards*.

The fact that the two great branches of the garment trade go back to work on different bases will afford a remarkable opportunity for comparing the results in efficiency, health, earnings and good feeling in men's wear, where the organized employers will continue in control of work conditions, with women's wear, where strong organizations on both sides are jointly responsible.

#### CONTROL OVER SUBURBAN SHOPS

The most sanguine observers do not, of course, regard protocols as panaceas, but as constructive experiments full of promise. Each is adding some new element. The cloak, suit and skirt protocol of 1910 initiated the preferential shop and the joint sanitary board, in addition to a grievance scheme. The shirt waist protocol, the first to be signed this year, added to these a wage board, while the white goods protocol put in a provision for a minimum wage.

The shirt waist protocol called for a joint label to enlist the support of purchasers all over the country in the New York sanitary reforms; while the protocol of the West Side wrapper and kimono workers attempts to regulate conditions in the suburban and city contract shops to which work is sent out. Its provisions under this head read:



"Within a radius of twenty-five miles of the city of New York standard union conditions shall prevail inside the factories of the members of the association, as well as their outside contractors; and if a member of this association shall send work to a shop within said radius where standard union conditions do not prevail, then upon request of the union such member or members of the association shall refrain from sending work to such shop or shops until standard union conditions shall prevail.

"Outside the said radius the members of the association may send work to any shop or shops, regardless of whether standard union conditions prevail or not, but if at any time a strike is declared in such locality by the union and at least one-half of the employees of such shop or shops respond to said strike, then the member of this association sending work to such shop or shops shall on demand from the said union refrain from sending further work to said shop or shops until standard union conditions prevail. . . .

"No agreement made between the union and the contractor shall be more favorable to the contractor than the terms of this protocol. Every agreement made between the union and the contractor doing business for a member or members of the association shall be upon the same terms as contained in this protocol, except as to the preferential union shop.

"Should any dispute arise between the union and a contractor doing work for a member or members of the association there shall be no stoppage of work being performed for such member or members, but such matters in dispute, if the same cannot be adjusted between the union and the contractor, shall be immediately referred to the Board of Grievances of the association, and their determination shall be rendered within five days from the date of the filing of such dispute with the association, and such determination shall be final.

"All employees of contractors doing work for a member or members of the association shall be returned to work immediately, provided such contractor or contractors shall sign an agreement similar to the terms of this protocol, excepting the preferential union shop."

#### THE STRESS OF THE SEASONS

The white goods or underwear trade concluded a protocol week before last. By a coincidence it was in January, the month of "white sales" in the department stores, that the working people in this trade went out. This trade was the subject of an investigation made by the Women's Trade Union League last winter. It is a trade in which only one worker out of ten has employment the year round. One hundred and twenty-nine factories were visited, employing 8,042 out of the estimated 15,000 or 20,000 workers in the trade. All but some 300 to 400 of these were women, of an average age of nineteen in the shops employing Jewish immigrants, and of

twenty-three in the shops employing Americans. A little over half the workers were Jewish, and 90 per cent of the cheaper grade underwear was made by them; a little over a quarter were Americans, this nationality predominating where the finer work is done. The rest were principally Italians and Slavs.

Judging by the report, conditions are much the same as in the shirt waist trade, and workers pass readily from white goods to waist shop. The report gives the clearest statement in regard to seasons so far given for the garment trades. Figures for shops employing 7,123 workers show only about 1,500 employed during July and August. In September the number is between 5,000 and 6,000, rising from October through December to over 6,400. In January, "between seasons," the number sags to below 6,000, but reaches the upper levels again from February through March, going back to the January figures in May, and in June to between 3,000 and 4,000. Though in the busy winter season there is much overtime work, it is a significant fact that during this season also there is a margin of only partially employed workers, the busiest month showing only about 6,800 of the 7,123 workers on full time.

Less than 60 per cent of the shops reported on unemployment. These showed 20 per cent idle during from two to four of the slack months, the time varying with the different shops. During this season 71 per cent had part time, from two to four days a week, and in some shops also the rate of pay was cut. Only 9 per cent of the workers had full employment during the whole year.

The facts in regard to hours and wages were not given in the league's report, but a canvass of over 270 girls taken in one meeting hall during the strike gave interesting light on the wages and financial responsibilities of this group of young girls. The approximate average wage figures, which were reached by taking the girls' statements in regard to earnings in busy and slack seasons, show that one-third of the total number averaged \$5 or less, one-third between \$5.50 and \$7.00. Only thirteen girls averaged \$10 or over.

As for their responsibilities, if we may trust the record, few if any of these girls worked for pin money. One hundred and ten Jewish girls had emigrated before their families and were paying board to "boarding mistresses." Of the rest about a third paid all their money over to their families; and others have on their records definite entries in regard to responsibilities. More than one supports an old mother and father; others support their family with the help of a sister, and half a dozen of the older women have one or more children to support.



## THE WHITE GOODS WORKERS PROTOCOL

The White Goods Protocol was hung up for several days by a moot clause, covering recognition, which read originally:

"The manufacturers, approving the principle of collective bargaining, believe that those who share in the benefits of the union should share in its obligations, and hereby pledge themselves not to discriminate against a member of a union; and, furthermore, the manufacturers agree not to oppose or discriminate against any employees who desire to join the union."

The latter part was adjudged to give the employers too much discretion, and it has therefore been modified to read:

"We believe that the welfare of the industry requires fair competition and uniformity in conditions of labor, and to this end a strong association of the manufacturers and a strong union are necessary."

This is not the preferential shop, but it is at least the expression by the manufacturers of a belief in organization.

Grievance and arbitration boards are to be established, but no sanitary board, as it is claimed that this is an "uptown" industry and sanitary conditions are for the most part good. One clause pledges the manufacturers, somewhat indefinitely it is true, to maintain safe and sanitary conditions in their own places of employment, and in the "outside" (contractors') shops to which they send their work. In order to still further control the contractors, every manufacturer is to register the name of his contractors with the union. After the expiration of six months the manufacturers agree to give out no more work to be done in tenements.

A minimum week's wage of \$5 is established, and no child under sixteen is to be employed in the making of garments. For permanent wage adjustments a wage board is established, which will make its first report in April, 1913, setting standard piece prices, on a basis of hour's pay ranging from sixteen to twenty-two cents, further adjustments of piece prices to be made by shop piece committees.

Pending the decision of this board all workers receiving under twelve dollars are to be given, in the case of week workers an increase of one dollar, in the case of piece workers a 10 per cent increase, but no increase is to give a weekly wage of more than \$12.

Hours are to be fifty, with price and a half for overtime. Three legal holidays are recognized, and "the refraining from work on the first day of May—the international 'labor day'—is not to be regarded as a violation of this contract."

## AN ILLINOIS COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL LEGISLATION

For some weeks past a federation of social agencies interested in securing legislation has been quietly forming in Chicago. Several meetings have been held by representatives of these agencies and recently a board of directors was elected.<sup>1</sup>

This organization will serve essentially as a clearing house for bills intended to improve social conditions. Its aim is to secure the enactment and enforcement of laws and ordinances bearing on social welfare.

The committee will

1. Gather information as to what is needed, and
2. Find out what is done elsewhere and how this has worked, thus building up a sort of reference bureau on social legislation.
3. Submit proposed measures to experts in their respective fields and to advisory committees of lawyers.
4. Watch proposed legislation and notify those interested as to the proper time for submitting information or urging action.
5. Encourage the enforcement of social legislation.
6. Study the administration and effects of such legislation and make recommendations for further improvements.

James Mullenbach has been appointed executive officer of the Illinois Committee on Social Legislation, resigning his secretaryship of the National Conference of Immigration, Land and Labor Officials, to give his time entirely to this work. Both in Springfield and Chicago he will inquire into the origin, history and purport of proposed legislation and its relation to existing laws or pending bills, reporting to the committee and its constituent organizations which include the following societies:

Anti-Cruelty Society  
Associated Charities of Danville  
Associated Charities of Rock Island  
Associated Jewish Charities  
Bureau of Associated Civics and Charities of Freeport  
Bureau of Personal Service  
Central Association of Charities, Evanston  
Central Howard Association  
Chicago Federation of Churches of Christ  
Chicago Medical Society  
Chicago Playground Association  
Chicago Tuberculosis Institute  
Chicago Woman's Aid  
Chicago Woman's Club  
Citizens' League  
City Club of Chicago  
Committee on Institutional Visitation  
Conference of Jewish Women's Organizations  
Consumers' League  
Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund  
Federation of Settlements  
Illinois Association for Labor Legislation  
Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society  
Immigrants' Protective League  
Infant Welfare Society

<sup>1</sup>The Board of Directors consists of: Chairman, James H. Tufts, Illinois Association for Labor Legislation; Vice-Chairman, Mrs. Arthur Aldis, Visiting Nurse Association; Secretary, E. T. Iles, United Charities of Chicago; Treasurer, Charles L. Hutchinson, Corn Exchange Bank, Chicago; Executive Officer, James Mullenbach; Jane Addams, Gertrude Howe Britton, Rudolph Matz, Sherman C. Kingsley, Minnie F. Low, James Minick and W. R. Stirling.



Jewish Consumptives Relief Society  
 Juvenile Protective Association  
 Lake County Tuberculosis Institute  
 Legal Aid Society  
 Peoria Association for Prevention of Tuberculosis  
 School of Civics and Philanthropy  
 United Charities of Chicago  
 Visiting Nurses' Association  
 Woman's City Club

The committee will be active not only through legislative sessions, but will work the year round, watching state officials, the Chicago city council and the Cook County Board of Commissioners, and aiding or checking legislation in those bodies, according as need arises from time to time.

#### NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

Scientific study and research work were tied up with the practical work going on in charity and correction throughout New Jersey at the recent meeting of the State Conference of Charities and Correction.

A significant feature of the meeting was the participation of Princeton University. A few years ago Princeton took little part in social work in the state. The conference held in Princeton proved to be the turning point. At the Plainfield conference four Princeton professors took part and Princeton students attended to seek information along social service lines.

The Prison Labor Commission, appointed by Governor Wilson to inaugurate the "state use" system in New Jersey, took advantage of the conference to urge the gravity of the situation regarding prison labor by pointing out that only six months remained for providing means of setting prisoners to work when the contracts have expired. The commission wishes through the supplemental appropriation bill to get funds which will be immediately available for the purchase of unimproved land in southern New Jersey and a quarry in northern New Jersey where the men can be employed.

The proposed state wide program for the care of defectives was presented by Professor Johnstone of the state committee. His recommendations were that all mental defectives under school age should be cared for in their homes subject to visitation by social worker, health authority and visiting nurse. Children of school age, not sexually or otherwise dangerous, he suggested should be sent to special classes in connection with the public schools. Such classes are now in operation in Newark and Jersey City. He urged that state schools should be provided for defective children from rural districts where public school classes can not be organized. Admission to the New Jersey State Home for Feeble-minded Girls and Women, was recommended for dangerously defective girls above school age, while men who are capable of productive activity are to be placed in the custodial

Institution for the Unimprobable Feeble-minded which is now building at Skillman. For all those who may be trained to industries a farm colony it is expected will be undertaken on five hundred acres of uncleared land which has already been given by a public-spirited citizen.

The general topic of the conference was New Jersey's System of Humanics. Special sections were devoted to The Church and Social Service; Jails, Alms Houses and Inebriety; Mental Hygiene and Prostitution; Prisons and Reformatories; Feeble-mindedness, Eugenics and the Blind; and Prevention.

In the section on Jails, Alms Houses and Inebriety the chairman raised the question—why should there not be decent and adequate care for the respectable aged by the state and demanded the destruction of the traditional alms house. C. L. Stonaker, secretary of the New Jersey State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association, declared that the county jail should be at least restricted to the detention of prisoners awaiting trial. He asked, "Is it not possible in this day and generation to devise some other penalty than a cash fine or imprisonment in the old antiquated jail?" He urged an extension of the parole idea.

The program of the conference was carried out exactly as planned. Every speaker was present and at the final session there was a crowded auditorium. The conference had the largest attendance of any that has yet been held.

#### LEGAL AID IN THE SOUTH

The first free legal aid bureau south of the Mason and Dixon Line has been established in Birmingham, Ala. It is an outgrowth of the Lawyers' League, which was organized in June, 1912, to promote the general public welfare and to better the making and administration of laws. This is but one step in the program of the league, which, under the presidency of George Huddleston, has named a committee to fight the fee system, a committee on reform of civil and criminal procedure, and a committee on complaints and grievances.

The legal aid bureau was suggested by Isadore Shapiro. The Lawyers' League appointed a committee which secured the following to undertake the work of the bureau: Isadore Shapiro, director; Clement R. Wood, vice-director; Hugo Black, secretary and treasurer; Dupont Thompson and Ben Davis, counsel for the State Federation of Labor. Many of the cases which have thus far come to the attention of the bureau involve victims of loan sharks. Mr. Shapiro has therefore been led to suggest the creation of a municipal loan office. Many other cases handled by the bureau are those of deserted wives.



## BIG BUSINESS AND WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

PAUL KENNADAY

American Association for Labor Legislation

Big business and the American people are coming to close quarters in a new field. The fight is on in many states and soon will come in many more. The casualty insurance companies are trying with all the ingenuity of long experience to turn to their own profit the immense new business in sight with the passage of the workmen's compensation or insurance laws in state after state. We have been slow, heartlessly slow, as a people to write into our statutes the protection against the results of industrial injuries with which Europe has been familiar these many years. But now, as though making up for lost time and past neglect, we are all at it with a vengeance, turning heaven and earth to get the principle of workmen's compensation enacted into law, impatient of delay, regardless of mere constitutions, "godsakers" many of us, as Wells puts it, shouting for God's sake let us do *something*.

This something is "elective" compensation insurance. Seized upon with alacrity by reformers, fought at first at every step by the casualty insurance companies and employers, "elective" acts are now cherished like a prodigal son returned seeking forgiveness for rebellion, no more carrying disgrace and ruin in his wake.

"Elective" acts are drawn with the acknowledged purpose of subverting state constitutions. The New York Court of Appeals in the Ives case said that to compel an employer to give compensation without fault was taking property without due process of law. The thing to do, then, plainly, is to get around the constitution. The method is ingenious but effective. Write into a compensation or insurance act that employer or employee may "elect" whether they will come under it or no. If they refuse to elect, take away from employers their old stand-bys, those barbarous anachronisms of our present laws, the defenses of contributory negligence, fellow servant and assumption of risk which have done such noble service in leaving penniless injured workmen or their widows. Of course, employees by the law of the land enter into only free contracts, and so they too may elect to stay out even though their employer "elects" to come in. And in that case the employer has these three defenses which can still be used against the employee in case he ever sues for damages for injuries—and in case he retains his position one minute after he has exercised his "election."

From the casualty company's standpoint the peculiar advantage of this "club" feature, as it has been aptly termed, in these elective laws, is that if the law puts the scale of compensa-

tion high enough to be at all adequate for the makers, the cost of coming under the act will be so great, owing to the rates charged by the casualty companies, that most employers will stay out. But, staying out, they will still take liability insurance with these companies at lower rates, perhaps, yet at rates much in excess of present liability costs. For no employer can run the risk without insurance of damage suits with his old judge-made defenses taken from him. If, on the other hand, the law puts the scale of compensation so low that employers will elect to come under it, these casualty companies will reap a rich harvest in new business.

So we see the casualty companies aiding and abetting in the passage of "elective" laws. With equal determination they stop where they can, laws which give the employer no election, but compel him to insure. For there are states like Ohio and New York, where an amendment made or pending to the state constitution, gives the legislature power to pass such acts. And *compelled* to give compensation, the employer, if the legislature chooses, may be forced to give adequate compensation to his injured workers. And this again may, and probably will, lead the average employer to take state, mutual or self insurance in preference to the higher rates which private companies must charge to continue their profits and enormous salaries.

While this has been going on from Massachusetts to California, Big Business has been looking on, taking advantage of every false step, putting legislators and commissioners into false positions, proposing very quietly but very effectively, none the less, to let the American people once more deliver themselves over to private interests ever anxious to perform public duties.

Prospective annual profits in enormous amounts are at stake for the casualty insurance companies in this fight. Whatever the exact sum, it is certainly too large to let slip. And whatever we may think of state insurance, of its propriety or of its advisability at once, whether it is good or bad, the casualty companies can have but one opinion on the subject, that it is about as serious an injury to them as the loss of a man's head is to him.

And so the casualty insurance companies are to be found advising, wherever workmen's compensation is under discussion. At meetings of bar associations their attorneys have resolutions passed deprecating state insurance; at meetings of state commissioners they are free with their praise of that "New Jersey model" which has proved such a bonanza to the insuring interests; at legislative hearings they openly denounce as "Socialistic" and therefore to be cast out without more ado, state insurance, and like the trail of the serpent or the ways of a maid with a man their ways are often past finding out.



But the drift is setting against Big Business, here as elsewhere. The state of Washington led the way with a compulsory state insurance act, by driving out the casualty companies and leaving to them in the place of big profits but the small comfort of predicting the early collapse of a signal success in "state Socialism." The Ohio Senate and Assembly last week amended their former elective state insurance act, by giving employers two other options, self insurance and mutual insurance, but compelling them to insure in one of the three ways. This closes the rich Ohio field to liability insurance companies. In Oregon the House of Representatives has just passed a state insurance act and according to press despatches "casualty companies are resorting to every conceivable method to defeat the bill in the Senate, but it is confidently expected that the Senate will concur in the action of the house."

Compulsory acts are in force in Arizona and, as far as state employes are concerned, in Wisconsin, while Massachusetts is building up against the strenuous rivalry of private companies a strong state mutual insurance company.

In New York the fight is on in deadliest earnest, for not only is there open espousal of state insurance by the vigorous and determined state federation of labor but the situation is still more perilous for the casualty companies because looming up large is the specter of compulsory insurance—"state or otherwise." Last year the legislature passed a constitutional amendment to overcome the constitutional objections to a compulsory law, as explained in last week's SURVEY by Edward T. Devine. This year a Democratic Party which swept into power a governor and an overwhelming majority in Senate and Assembly pledged itself "to pass again this proposed amendment in the next session of the legislature," and the people are beyond any doubt in favor of such relief as this amendment will bring from "ambulance chasers," claims agents and judge-made defences raised against them in damage suits at law. No doubt Big Business would be glad to see the Democratic Party go back on solemn pledges to the people or to see the people led astray at the polls next November. But either of these contingencies in the present humor of legislators and their constituents is hardly within the range of practical politics.

Yet agreeable as it would be to some to have the impossible thus happen, no small measure of consolation is to be had by them in a bill last week recommended by the Senate committee on insurance. That committee is no more to be blamed than is the able commissioner of insurance, whose integrity and genuine desire to do justice to the overburdened workers of the state none can doubt. They have simply made ser-

ious mistakes in trying to solve, without taking sufficient thought, one of the most complex subjects with which a legislator is called to deal. Nevertheless, this composite bill has defects writ large upon every page. Not only does it provide for an Industrial Compensation Board drawing aggregate salaries of \$36,000 to do little more than oversee and approve agreements as to amounts to be paid in settlement of claims, but it leaves in the State Insurance Department (where the State Federation of Labor and many more do not want it), the fixing of rates and the whole administration of the state fund to which employers may contribute if they do not elect the other options offered of self insurance, mutual insurance or casualty company insurance.

That a bill put together as this one has been should have many serious defects in draughtsmanship was to be expected, but that it should be deliberately put forward with glowing encomiums as containing "the best features of compensation laws of other states" and of the five bills introduced in New York is a serious reflection upon the wisdom and deliberative methods of law makers. Constitutions are perhaps nothing among friends, but three constitutional objections to one bill is good measure—too much running over. Thus we see here an infant by implied waiver giving up a constitutional guarantee, we see that the employe unless he does an overt act, is held to have waived his constitutional right to trial by jury and finally we find a discrimination between those to whom the act does and does not apply, neither warranted by fact or defensible at law.

And while the legislature has done this, to escape one other constitutional defect in their former bill they have, in effect, turned the whole rich New York field over to the casualty companies. For now it is provided that the employer must "elect" his methods of insuring by an affirmative act, by filing his papers with the insurance department. And that plainly means that the average employer will do nothing at all until an agent of a casualty company comes to him and offers to attend to everything—in the meantime telling him what dismal failures have been, wherever tried, all state, mutual and self insurance "Socialistic" schemes.

Curiously enough, while men are deliberately and openly planning the utter rout of the casualty companies, no spokesman for those companies appears upon the field in New York. But why need they? A meaner bill to the workers of the state, the legislature could hardly consider if labor had no vote. A bill more profitable to Big Business could hardly have been devised had the big corporations and the casualty companies been requested themselves to write a law under which the people of the state would be compelled to continue tribute.



## EDITORIAL GRIST

### THE WAR ON VICE

GRAHAM TAYLOR

That the war on vice is a fight to the finish becomes constantly clearer. The campaigns waged against it are growing at once more extensive in area and more intensive locally. The variety and effectiveness of the attacks upon the strongholds of vice attest the versatility and the ability of the aggressors.

Latest and greatest of the war news from the front is that siege is being laid on the very citadel of vice by the Bureau of Social Hygiene in New York city. It proposes nothing less than the permanent and progressive investigation and disclosure of the sources from which vice springs and the social, moral, economic and political agencies which protect, perpetuate and promote it. To sap and mine ignorance, which is the last redoubt in which vice takes refuge, is the final stroke of strategy in this war without discharge.

Facing such an organization force and the Supreme Court's decision upholding the white slave law, the whole under world may well sound the alarm at the beginning of this turning of the light upon its darkness, of bringing knowledge to replace the ignorance on which it preys, and of enlisting the forces of public intelligence, medical science, civic patriotism and religion to act through education, legislation and police administration. If any force can overcome the persistence of the social evil and eradicate commercialized vice it is "the spirit which dominates the work of the bureau—not sensational, or sentimental, or hysterical, not a spirit of criticism of public officials, but essentially a spirit of constructive suggestion and of deep scientific, as well as humane, interest, in a great world problem."

In sorry contrast with this high-hearted, long-purposed, yet modest prospectus of a real scientific movement against vice, are the boastful, opinionated and unsupported conclusions which Samuel H. London, a Texas attorney, is reported to have alleged before the aldermanic committee of New York city. If his "seven years' investigation from Alaska to the Canal Zone," got no nearer the facts than he did in Chicago, his allegations in support of segregation are not to be taken seriously. For, every one in Chicago knows his assertion to be false that "in Chicago the police are not under civil service regulation." Upon this statement, absolutely contrary to fact, he bases his charge of "the unbelievable conditions of police graft." This he absurdly accounts for by asserting that "the police do not know how

long they will last in the department," and "in consequence they collect graft daily from every person whose calling makes him liable to police extortion."

The fact is that the Chicago Civil Service Commission, to whose trial board every police officer is amenable, has within the past two years dismissed from the force thirty-six superior officers for failing to suppress practices of disorderly resorts which were in violation of the orders attempting to regulate the segregated district. It is because of the segregation of vice, and not because of the lack of civil service, that the Chicago police have been demoralized, though never to the extent to which the New York city police apparently have, according to the facts officially brought out from the time of the Lexow Committee to the time the sentence of death was pronounced upon former Police-Lieutenant Becker.

Both in New York and Chicago the organized effort to secure the enactment and enforcement of law goes on apace. One evidence of this is the vigorous report of the reorganized Committee of Fourteen showing real progress in its efforts to prosecute offenders against existing law, to amend defective laws, to secure the co-operation of brewers, owners and surety companies in closing evil resorts, and in formulating a definite legislative program especially emphasizing penalties for the misuse of property.

In Chicago the morals committee which is federating the vice-fighting agencies and the reconstituted Committee of Fifty with assistance from the neighboring headquarters of the American Vigilance Association will prove more than a match for the vacillating city administration and the inactive states attorney. Neither the police nor their political superiors dare to reopen the red light districts, though avowedly desirous of so doing. Meanwhile the law-abiding, law-enforcing agencies and people have an immense advantage in preventing the reopening of these resorts and districts, in contravention of the law, the supremacy of which has so happily been re-established.

The most notable report of a vice commission recently issued is that of Portland, Ore. It includes a series of reports issued since the commission's appointment in 1911. One of the series deals with the places of public resort and accommodation affected by the social evil. It concludes with the famous "tin-plate ordinance," which requires that "on the front of every building used, either in whole or in part, as a hotel, apartment house, rooming, lodging, boarding, tenement house, or saloon, there shall be, at the principal street entrance, a conspicuous plate or sign bearing the name and address of the owner or owners of such buildings." This, of course, greatly facilitates the apprehension and



conviction of those responsible for violating the law against disorderly resorts.

This ordinance is reported to have had the effect of driving immoral people from the buildings they have occupied for years, because the owners were afraid to risk the publicity and responsibility of their presence and practices. Many of these buildings are now being remodeled and occupied by a better class of tenants.

Another report of the series deals with the legal and police aspect of the social evil which led to the enactment of the law for enjoining and abating houses of ill fame as nuisances. A bill was also recommended creating a morals court. Finding the division of responsibility a cause of inefficiency and corruption in the police department, the commission recommends the vesting of full authority over the department in one man, as the most effective way of handling the social evil problem. Study of the juvenile aspects of the social evil led to specific sources of vice and the beginnings of moral delinquency, and resulted in the recommendation that a child welfare commission be appointed, which should be "charged with the study of the general subject of juvenile life."

While realizing the desirability of requiring vice diseases to be reported and registered, the commission doubted whether public opinion would support the enforcement of such a law. It considered a vigorous campaign of education the most necessary step for the control of these diseases. It recommended, however, that all cases encountered in dispensaries, hospitals, juvenile and municipal courts, penal institutions, maternity hospitals, rescue homes, and all places of detention, should be officially reported. The commission also urged that the city contribute to the support of free dispensaries for the treatment of these diseases and that the Department of Health make tests for the diagnosis of these diseases without charge.

Wage scales were examined to determine the economic sources of the social evil and much interesting information was gathered. Human interest stories were revealed showing the need of a minimum wage for women workers, improved sanitation in shops and stores, shorter hours of labor, and industrial education.

The final report of the Portland Commission on segregation is in line with the conclusion reached by every other vice commission. To use the words of the commissioners "The history of every restricted district in the country has been the history of police and political corruption, of crime and bloodshed and scandal. Far from eliminating graft, such districts have proved the nursery of official blackmail, the central point from which the scheme of protection has reached out."

The commission records its emphatic opposi-

tion to segregation in Portland for the following reasons:

"Segregation does not segregate; deals only with a small percentage of the sexually immoral; promotes and justifies professional prostitution; does not reduce clandestine immorality; helps to establish a double standard of morality by stigmatizing the woman and ignoring the moral responsibility of the man; rests on the false presumption that sexual immorality is necessary; fosters the debauchery of the sex instinct; promotes the spread of disease; and affords official absolution for illegal and immoral conduct."

Perhaps the most significant assertion in the whole impressive report is this sentence: "When any considerable number of men question the necessity of an evil it marks the beginning of the end. It is here that this commission rests and finds justification of its labors."

State commissions for state-wide investigation of vice conditions and of the legal means of suppressing them have been initiated in Maryland and Illinois. In compliance with a recommendation of a recent grand jury sitting in Baltimore, Governor Goldsborough of Maryland, has appointed a vice commission of fifteen members, some of whom are women. There are also three to five associate members from the counties. The commissioners so far appointed include some medical specialists, two lawyers, two bankers, a merchant, a representative of the Bureau of Statistics, of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, of Jewish Charities, and J. W. Magruder of the Federated Charities. While there is no appropriation from public funds to meet the expenses of the commission, it is said the governor may aid its work by advances from his contingent fund.

The Senate of Illinois appointed a committee, consisting of the lieutenant-governor and four senators, to investigate vice conditions in every important city in the state. The resolution of the Senate creating the committee gives it broad powers to subpoena witnesses and compel testimony and the production of records and documents. It has power to punish those who refuse to testify with imprisonment for contempt. It is said that the committee contemplates new laws which will give to state prosecutors as complete power within the state as the Mann Act gives the federal authorities in dealing with the transportation of women for immoral purposes across state lines. If this is effectively done, it will apply within state lines, the strength of the strongest statute dealing with commercialized vice, which the Mann Act has proved to be. This is just where the law has proved weakest, or its administration most ineffective, in protecting the people of each state.

Another state-wide investigation is proposed in the first bill reported favorably to the Massa-



chusetts legislature by the Committee on the Social Welfare. Introduced by Representative Thomas J. Giblin, it provides for a commission of five to be appointed by the governor. This body is to investigate the white slave traffic and to report plans for preventing such existing evils as it finds. Authority is given to hold public hearings, administer oaths, require the attendance of witnesses and the producing of books and documents. No compensation is provided for the commission but necessary expenses are allowed. The commission is instructed to submit its report by January 10, 1914, together with such bills as it may believe are needed.

The Committee on Social Welfare of the legislature believed that the problem was limited to the large city but that the city, village, and country should come within the scope of the investigation. The friends of the measure are expecting its enactment and feel that if the attitude of the committee may be taken as any index of the work of the proposed commission, the investigation will be most thorough.

## BANNERS OF A NEW ARMY

ROBERT A. WOODS

South End House, Boston

For the sake of outlining the background for a substantial movement toward better things in the social morality of Boston, the following propositions were recently laid before two meetings which were held on the same day. One audience in the afternoon was composed of representative and responsible women; the other in the evening was a gathering of the men of the Boston City Club. These propositions are not set forth as having finality; I reserve the right to dissent from some of them under later information. They were submitted chiefly to indicate the various angles from which shafts of light are cutting into humanity's so long impenetrable abode of darkness.

There is a recently formed conviction which has swung reputable medical men aggressively against any form of prostitution. The possession of one particular truth is of unspeakable importance to each human being who has reached the age of responsible action. Every man with a sense of honor in the light of modern scientific knowledge is challenged by the fact that there is no assurance whatever of the cure of venereal disease; that years after it may seem to have disappeared it may pass to the pure wife and the innocent children. Every man who enters a house of prostitution is coquetting with a ghastly possibility which can wreck what is best in life. No form of segregated prostitution affords substantial protection against such disease. The false security which medical inspec-

tion suggests may even encourage the spread of the contagion.

Looked at as a business, the segregation of prostitution would give it the two cardinal resources of modern business, publicity and the power of combination. The persistent disintegration of its nests deprives it of both.

From a community point of view the proposal of segregation faces a stone wall when the proponent is asked, "In which place do you want the segregated district, where your wife and children would have to go through it, or where mine would have that fate?"

The reports of the Vice Commissions in Chicago, Minneapolis and other cities which are sustained by the highest medical authority, have finally disposed of the segregation project. It died in fact with the strongly supported medical conclusion as against the fixed ideas of many in the past—that no man is ever anything but the better for perfect continence.

The conclusion that prostitution is not necessary and that tolerance of it does not diminish its evil consequences, opened the way to a stock-taking of its effects. The words of scientists indicate that, as it is eliminated, half the misery of the world will go with it.

Sex education is sure to come throughout the community. Right methods can only be learned by experiment. Different methods must be tried. These will involve mistake and injury, but nothing compared with the overwhelming cumulative evils resulting from the present conspiracy of silence. As a suggestion of possible results, it is estimated that since such facts as are here stated have been put into the hands of the freshman classes in certain colleges a diminution of 25 per cent. in sexual immorality has taken place among these young men.

Some of our foremost medical experts hold that intense sexual passion is not strictly normal before the age of twenty-five, when complete development is reached and the human organism is fully prepared to reproduce its kind. It is believed that the recasting of tradition, the renewing of the moral atmosphere, and the reorganization of education from infancy up on the basis of revolutionary psychological discoveries, will reduce the intensity of that passion during the perilous years from fourteen to twenty-five. It is, of course, the habits of body and mind acquired during that crucial period which constituted almost the entire source of sexual immorality.

Much is to be hoped for from the attack upon the more immediate causes of prostitution. Poverty is not in itself a compelling cause in any considerable number of instances; but poverty keeps great numbers of young women near the brink where they may be carried over by the perfectly



natural desire for amusement and for a sharp reaction from monotonous work. The abolition of child labor and the establishment of a minimum wage for women will directly and indirectly prevent a great number of moral tragedies. Alcohol with both sexes is often a strongly conducive influence. Large-minded men who are close to the facts testify that the whole system of prostitution is so degrading and so repulsive that a great part of those who become part of it, both men and women, must first drug themselves or be drugged unawares in order to disarm their higher sensibilities.

Perhaps the most important recent testimony concerning the sources from which prostitution is recruited is that a substantial majority of prostitutes would properly be classed among the congenitally feeble-minded. This tends still more strongly to prove that the normal human being is relatively incapable of being drawn into this life. This fact also affords the promise of greatly reducing the ranks of prostitution. It is now possible before the adolescent period by scientific tests to identify beyond reasonable doubt all feeble-minded types; the progressive states of the country are moving rapidly in the direction of eliminating all such cases in their early years and placing them under permanent institutional care. It is estimated that in Massachusetts there are at present as many feeble-minded persons at large in the community as there are under institutional care. Every one of them is a source of moral danger.

The increase in the kinds and amount of self-supporting employment for women has lessened the number of candidates for the prostitution ranks. This tendency has without doubt increased the cost of securing and retaining recruits. The business organization thus made necessary in the shape of the so-called vice trust has in turn brought the whole matter to public attention in a new and distinctly disturbing way. This will still further make the enlisting of new victims difficult and expensive.

Fuller provision of efficiently managed rescue homes co-ordinated with the large program and leading out into opportunities of normal life will mean far greater difficulty and expense in retaining recruits after they are once secured; and the increased likelihood of cases of coercion being followed up will present a further substantial deterrent against the methods of the vice trust.

It must be remembered that it is part of the satanic program of the procurer that the victim will soon be caught in the toils of elemental impulse. The finer instincts of recoil become submerged in an undertow of actual, though subnormal, acceptance. Under such circumstances the mere offer of an alternative, as the facts

show, is almost meaningless. There must be on the side of rescue a competing coercive power, with a system which shall exhaust the resources of recuperation and of re-education.

Enlightened social science, besides developing every ingenious form for the prevention of degeneracy, is much concerned today to isolate from the community those victims of degeneracy who are an obvious danger to the community. The time must come when the black plague shall be a subject of registration by physicians just as the other plagues are today,—so that the continuous and pervading epidemic of venereal disease may be in a measure checked. A more immediate step would be to isolate in permanent detention colonies all confirmed cases of prostitution. Until recently, while this principle has been recognized, it has been felt that the difficulty of discovering and identifying such types would be very great; but it is now suggested that by the simple device of registering the finger prints of both women and men arrested for offences against chastity, and applying to them the principle of the cumulative sentence, such elimination is feasible.

A word about the Boston situation, which is perhaps suggestive of the problem of the city in which the first step has been taken toward the suppression of commercialized vice. The police commissioner has done commendable work in reducing to a minimum the number of organized houses of prostitution, and in suppressing solicitation on the streets. A large immoral business, however, still continues. Negotiations are conducted chiefly in three ways, all of which could be reached and practically eliminated by a determined purpose. There is the use of the telephone by houses of assignation. The telephone company could stop this if it were a matter of dividends to do so. There is the use of cabmen. This evil could be reached with comparative ease.

Both of these instrumentalities are, however, comparatively unimportant. The chief headquarters for the promotion of the prostitution traffic today are in some thirty or thirty-five licensed hotels, where all the preliminary negotiations are openly conducted. These hotels, which the most guileless person knows are not hotels in any real sense of the term, are given full authority by the Boston Licensing Board to continue a business which the members of that board and every knowing citizen understands to be nothing more nor less than that of an open prostitution market. Thus the city of Boston, through a board appointed and clothed with absolute power by the commonwealth of Massachusetts, is conducting a system for the public licensing of exchanges in which the contract and agreement stage of the prostitution business is, in the face of all observers, carried out nightly.



## PITTSBURGH CLERGY AND THE SOCIAL EVIL

RABBI RUDOLPH I. COFFEE

Member Morals Efficiency Commission

Dr. Howard H. Kelly of Baltimore is reported in the newspapers as saying that the solution of the social evil rests with the church. This is absolutely true. With the churches welded together regardless of theological differences to wipe out this traffic, with a united clergy refusing to marry persons who cannot bring a certificate of good health, with the church scorning relationship with any and every moral leper, and with the pulpit preaching the truths about prostitution and venereal disease as found in the Bible, such a wave of indignation would arise over this land as would sweep the men in this loathsome business from the society of decent people.

Pittsburgh clergymen have made a splendid start in this direction. On January 13, by unanimous vote, the Ministerial Union pledged support to the bill which the Morals Efficiency Commission is urging for adoption by the legislature requiring the possession of a doctor's certificate before a marriage license will be granted. These ministers put aside doctrinal differences and stood together as being unwilling to join couples in bonds of unholy wedlock. The husbands who contract tuberculosis from wives, the wives who are infected with venereal disease from husbands, the army of babies born yearly either blind or degenerate, are a disgrace to our day. The pulpit of Pittsburgh heartily supports our commission in demanding that these practices be stopped.

Last month, the clergy of this city rendered another and equally valuable service to our commission. In a previous article,<sup>1</sup> I told of the efforts of the under world to fight our body. They later prevailed upon a prostitute, Rose Drew, to sue two members of the commission for \$50,000 for injury to her reputation (?). The details of the story were furnished the press by her attorney, and certain papers gave them full publicity with glaring headlines. Not a word was stated concerning the true facts, or what the commission had done to save the woman. Then, the splendid social service committee of the Ministerial Union sent special letters with a correct statement of facts to over 450 clergymen in the city, requesting that the contents be read the following Sunday in church. This action completely nullified the newspaper publicity, and won warm friends for the commission, as many who had previously taken no interest in our work were made acquainted with our achievements.

In large measure, the success which has attended the work of the Morals Commission may be directly ascribed to the intelligent support of

the Pittsburgh churches. When newspapers have falsified the issue, as above, the pulpit has told the truth; when the press refuses to give space to the great educational work needed in this campaign, the church organizations have arranged for speakers from the commission, and no regard was given to religious affiliation. In fact, the social evil problem has done more to batter down theological fences than any other issue in this city. The church is awakening to the needs of the hour, and it can render a great service in this cause, if only it grasps the opportunity. The church must educate the people to the truth about this terrible black plague.

The public schools, to their shame be it said, are closed to us. In Pittsburgh, and no doubt elsewhere, the schools are still giving the child a general, perhaps a vocational, training. But what avails all this if we do not teach the child how to live? We give our boys and girls a text book on physiology with absolutely no word about the sexual organs, just as though they were non-existent. We practically graduate our children from school in total ignorance of the fundamental laws about hygiene, save what they learn from chance companions on the street. Since our educators will not have the children taught by competent persons that which is most essential for their well being, many ministers in Pittsburgh are providing instruction in sex hygiene in the Sunday School curriculum. I am not the only minister who insists that before a child is given a confirmation diploma from the congregation, the pupil must have received such information as a growing child should know concerning the care of the body.

A fine evidence of the growth of public opinion is found in the formation of a club of boys, one of whose pledges is to remain continent till marriage. The old dictum of Galen that continence is dangerous has been relegated to the realm of antiquity. They promise to associate only with girls who insist on the single standard. When our growing children have such thoughts, the disorderly house loses its charms. For here is the crux of the whole matter. What avails all our labor when a prostitute shows a roll of \$385 which represents her Christmas gifts from "friends." Many a working girl receives less for a whole year's labor. Education will certainly help keep our growing boys away from these houses of ill repute.

When a community is educated to certain needs, legislation is the next step. Many reformers to their sorrow reverse this process. Some people imagine that the social evil ceases the moment all houses are ordered closed. We know better now. Our commission avoided this error, and by gradual restriction of this evil, has been aiming at ultimate elimination. As a re-

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, November 9, 1912, p. 173.



sult, the city has fewer houses today than at any time in the last half century. We have stripped the houses of every allurements, that they might cease to be a paying proposition. Constructively, the commission has taken strong ground that the unfit should be prevented from propagating their kind.

We are agitating for the creation of night courts. We have received from the occupants of these houses a brief history answering questions as to their fall. The tabulation shows that a very large number enter this life through being seduced and then are afraid or unwilling to return home. We are constantly hearing that economic causes are at the back of this evil. They are, with the men. If people only realized the unholy zeal to make money from such channels, they would scarce believe it. Girls, once led astray, drift into houses of this kind because society refuses them fellowship. Usually these are the weaker girls, no doubt of poor heredity, and the need to deny parenthood to this class is most urgent.

Experience teaches that a special department can best handle the social evil problem. It must be apart from police control and separate from politics. A bill is now before the legislature to create a morals bureau of seven members, three of them women, to serve without pay. This bureau will have full power to handle the social evil and will elect a superintendent at \$4,000 yearly with police authority in his special field.

In connection with this bill we are urging a change in the system of police courts which will allow the introduction of the night court, much needed in Pittsburgh.

With legislation joined with education, the social evil will be overcome. The efficient church will and must help. Then, when the forces making for righteousness stand together against this shame, we shall see the gangsters of the city ruled by, instead of bossing, the better element.

## POST-GRADUATES OF THE HIRED MAN

R. R. REEDER

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Hastings-on-Hudson

In the *School Bulletin*,<sup>1</sup> Prof. C. R. Bardeen, dean of the medical school of the University of Wisconsin, writing on the subject of sex instruction, says:

"Curiosity, passion and idleness are the only features outside of medicine that call attention to sex glands. . . . Public talks to children will be pretty certain to arouse curiosity. They certainly will not subdue passion. In so far as curiosity concerning sex matters is spontaneous and natural it may best be turned in legitimate directions by quiet private talks with pure-minded friends. . . . So far as

<sup>1</sup>July, 1912.

passion is concerned it can be controlled only by the habit of self-control and the right kind of personal ambition, and these can best be cultivated in the young without reference to the physiology of sex."

This is just such a statement as you would expect to see from the pen of one whose point of view toward sex instruction is purely academic. On the day I read it one of the older boys of the orphanage who had just returned from a ten years' experience in both rural and urban life in Illinois, Kansas and California, called to see me. It was a pleasure to look into the ruddy face and clear blue eyes of a broad-shouldered, deep-chested, hundred-and-eighty-pound, husky, young man of twenty-four who had never been sick a day since leaving the home and who bore every evidence of living a clean, pure life. But as I inquired after this one and that one who had left the orphanage at about the same time he was discharged, the pictures he drew of their lives were not all bright.

"Only a few weeks ago," he said, "in Kansas City I ran across Will F—. He was down and out. Health broken, no money and no work most of the time. Women ruined him—he had been a victim of gonorrhoea for six years. I gave him a little lift for a couple of weeks, but he's too far gone. I persuaded him to write to his sister while he was with me. He had not heard from her for several years. Of course, he didn't tell her about his loose living. She answered at once and you should have seen him shed tears when he read the letter especially where she asked what church he attended. The poor devil hadn't seen the inside of a meetin' house in five years.

"But a funny thing happened while he was with me. I was walking with him one day and all of a sudden he said, 'Yonder is a fellow that looks like my brother; he's in the West somewhere, you know, and I believe that's him.' The young man he referred to looked like a sick hobo. He was a little lame, his clothes hung slouchily upon him. We went up to him and when Will asked if his name wasn't F—, he said, 'What business is it of your's what my name is?' But when Will gave him his own name and told him he looked like his brother Robert, Rob then recognized him and was glad to see him.

"But holy mackerel, it would have made you sick to look at him! He had been discharged a few days before from the hospital where he had been operated upon for venereal disease. One leg was shorter than the other, and poor Rob didn't look as if he'd ever be well again."

I remembered those boys well. They were both bright grammar school pupils, sound and well developed physically, with as promising a future as opens to most American boys. Both went on farms at fourteen years of age. At that age they were ignorant of sex knowledge except



such crude information as they may have picked up from other boys. Whatever they learned afterward in that field they gathered, as hitherto practically all farmer boys have, from vile sources, the lewd talk of the typical hired man. I know all about him. He was my teacher and he was on every farm of considerable size in Illinois in my boyhood days. But he's no worse than the young men of the village, or the city laborer with whom boys are in daily touch, except that his isolated life provides less of other attractions to take up his mind.

It is to such as these, the sewer gateway to sex instruction, that millions of the youth of our country are obliged to go to satisfy that "curiosity concerning sex matters" of which Dean Bardeen speaks. But these teachers don't wait upon the demands of curiosity from their boy pupils, they are ever on the initiative with sex instruction, anxious to impart all they know and more than they know upon this vital theme so close to youth as to involve the very life here and destiny hereafter. Their lewd talk is the expression of their own uncontrolled sex emotions, while at the same time it awakens like feelings in their innocent but eager pupils.

"In so far as curiosity concerning sex matters is spontaneous and natural it may best be turned in legitimate directions by quiet private talks with pure-minded friends."

What a strange view to take of such an important human interest! Can you mention an asset or concern of humanity that is fraught with greater possibilities for good on the one hand or evil on the other than sex physiology and the functioning of the sex organs? Is it reasonable or safe to leave instruction upon a subject so fundamental to social well-being and personal happiness to the accidental suggestions or demands of curiosity? Thousands of the youth of our country are taking the first steps toward moral ruin every day, like the two boys above mentioned, in almost absolute ignorance of consequences. Girls are as unprotected by the safeguards of proper instruction as boys. But they are more fortunate in their environment.

The greatest mistake we are all making is the assumption that if we, the teachers and parents, are not imparting sex instruction no instruction is being received, whereas the real condition is that the air is full of it. No boy can escape it. The home, the school and the Sunday school have not a monopoly of learning. They cover most fields of knowledge, but here is one which they have not dared to enter. It is closer to the child and more vital to every interest of society than three-fourths of the things we try to teach in these institutions. The child does not wait for this instruction as he does for other learning. It is thrust upon him and he welcomes it. He finds it in the street, in back alleys, be-

hind doors, in secret places, and in the dark. His teachers are the hired man, the teamster, the servant girl, the store clerk, the laborer, the loafer, the bar room habitué and the moving picture show. They have pre-empted and hitherto held this field of learning for the young. As evidence of this, just inspect the walls and partitions of the toilets of almost any public school in the country or associate for a few days with groups of boys or men anywhere. Our boys cannot escape the obscene signs and drawings or the vile songs and stories which are all about them.

The walls of the toilet room of the high school in which two of my boys graduated were decorated with vulgar markings. They were sandpapered and retouched from time to time by the janitor, only to be defiled again by the procession of new students.

No safeguards are thrown about the child as he receives this instruction from such sources. The low pleasure of lust with no emphasis upon the danger or responsibility of sexual indulgence is the phase presented to the youthful pupils. Is it any wonder that the two boys, whose sad story is briefly told above and thousands like them, are going to destruction every day? It would be a greater wonder if they did not do so. They had learned a great deal about the dynamo of human passion without acquiring any knowledge of how to protect themselves from its dangers.

The young, the ignorant and the uncultured, however, have not a monopoly of this sort of thing. Several years ago when a meeting of the superintendents' association of the National Education Association was held in Chicago, one of the courtesies of the local committee was an excursion on the lake. A young superintendent who has since climbed to the top of the educational ladder, now president of one of our large universities, and whose home training, religious training, virtuous heredity or some other blessed advantage over most of us, had protected him from or rendered him immune to the contagion of obscene song and story, told me on his return from the meeting how dumb-founded he was during this little excursion to hear from the lips of men holding prominent positions as superintendents, principals and professors, jokes, illustrations and stories full of obscene imagery and lewd suggestion. This was about twenty-five years ago. I believe a change for the better in this profession has been going on since that time, a real progress in refinement and culture, and that a similar criticism under like conditions could not be made today. But this improvement at the top has not reached very far down into the substrata of schools, and never will until we take hold of sex instruction in an intelligent and vigorous manner.

The mere fact that in order to teach sex knowl-



edge we must use a refined or scientific vocabulary elevates the subject and dignifies in the minds of the pupils the sex organs and their functions. The vulgar terms, obscene signs and smutty stories which boys habitually hear and associate with these organs, degrade their sacred functions and naturally lead the youth to regard the sex parts of our anatomy as vulgar and impure.

There is, as everyone knows, a complete unwritten vocabulary of terms for the sex organs and their functions. Thousands of youth all about us grow to manhood without learning or even hearing any other terms for these parts than those of this wretched out-cast vocabulary. Is it, therefore, any wonder that even the respectable family man, who loves his home and who has made the most sacred use of the sex organs in bringing sweet and happy children into the world, should still when alone with men companions lapse into the loose and low story and rhyme which represent the only sex instruction he ever learned in his youth? These early impressions, vile and catchy as they were, wore the brain grooves too deep to be effaced.

Only a few days ago, a young man under twenty, a member of a boat club near my home, returned from a rowing trip with several other men of the club. He expressed disgust at the prevalence of obscene suggestions, filthy jokes and incidents in their conversation on the trip. Several of them were married men. They were only giving expression to the thoughts, vile doggerel and imagery they had habitually associated with sex knowledge from childhood.

Most children learn while still very young that the subject of which we are speaking is tabooed in practically all places where instruction in other subjects is given. This gives it the added attraction of "forbidden fruit," and it is partaken of with all the more zest. Once bring it into the open, give it the same frank and refined treatment that we give other subjects and you will rob it of a large part, if not all, of this unwholesome, hidden, stolen-fruit element of attractiveness. Many a child instructed in this vulgar school of secrecy has been surprised to hear father or mother or teacher actually speak the name of a sex gland as they would any other organ of the body. Usually the only person who ever has the "immodest audacity" to do this is the doctor, and we accord to his profession license to do so. This veto upon the whole subject by decent society is what causes the child to seek his information under cover.

What defense can we offer for such a condition? I believe none whatever except tradition and the mistaken notion that the relation between knowledge and sin is more dangerous than that between ignorance and sin. We greatly fear that the child will "know too much," and therefore

meet his innocent questions with all sorts of lies and evasions.

I well remember the sudden advent of a little calf on our place when I was less than six years of age. I asked my mother where the mamma cow got it. In her answer she doubtless followed the example of her mother and told me the cow "found it in the woods." (We had a woodland pasture.) This greatly aroused my imagination, made me as restless and filled my mind with as many more questions as that of the small boy whose inquisitiveness annoyed a cripple. When asked about his misfortune he extracted from the child a promise to ask no more questions provided the one then pending were answered—namely, how the cripple lost his right foot. "Well, my boy, it was bit off," said he.

A friend of mine who was given a similar answer by her grandfather upon the appearance of a litter of pigs told me how she and her little companions tired themselves out hunting the farm over for some more pigs. Such is the satisfaction that many children receive from their innocent inquiries.

You who hesitate to impart sex instruction to children should bear in mind two things; first, that instruction from impure and forbidden sources is certain to reach at least nine-tenths of them without any effort or concern whatever on your part; and second, that nine-tenths of the danger involved lies on the side of either unwholesome instruction and the secret method by which it is imparted or of ignorance. While you hesitate boys and girls, young men and women, are going to perdition.

There is another aspect of sex instruction that is peculiar and which puts a compelling force into the demand for it early in the child's life, namely, the exuberant rush of passion which seizes the child in his adolescent period. Toward other fields of knowledge he is comparatively indifferent; toward this he is keenly alert and vehemently responsive. This is why instruction does not wait upon the natural teachers of the child—the parents, or those provided for him in the school or the church. He is too eager, he will take any instruction from any source whatever. The more obscene and suggestive the method the more it arouses his passions, and if he has received no previous instruction—as most boys and girls have not—he knows none of the dangers and feels little of the moral restraint necessary to safeguard his purity of character. Much of what he learns at this time could have been taught to him earlier, before he felt any other than an intellectual or academic relation to such knowledge. If this were done it would go far toward inhibiting this welling up of the sex passions at any or every suggestion, picture, or exhibit in nature of animal mating, which many a youth feels and suffers in silence.



## BOOKS

### THE NEW INDUSTRIAL DAY

By WILLIAM C. REDFIELD. The Century Co. 213 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.

This is an unusual and, in many ways, a remarkable book. Mr. Redfield is a large employer of labor; he is more than an employer, however! Besides being a highly successful manufacturer he is an extensive traveller, a close observer, and he has lately entered the political field and has served a term in Congress. Consequently, it is with a voice of some authority that he speaks of industrial affairs.

The book is a tract, a sermon, a rallying call, a prophecy—each of these and all together, with human conservation as its theme. If the book “shall help to add to the appreciation of man for man,” says the author in his foreword, “if it shall aid to take away the unnecessary burdens placed by man on man, if it shall in any degree lead to the happier and more productive working of man with man, its purpose will have been fully served.” So he proceeds to discuss efficiency in production, with especial reference to the employee. He lays it down almost as an axiom that the better labor conditions are, the greater the output and the larger the profits.

Two chapters are devoted to a consideration of costs, and these two chapters constitute also an argument against a protective tariff. The protective argument, he says, is based on the idea of equalizing costs of production at home with those abroad, and the inference usually drawn is that the difference is due to higher wages paid in this country. This, he declares, is obviously illogical because not only do costs in different plants in America vary, thus making it impossible for any single rate to be equally protective, but wages often have very little to do with high costs. To illustrate this, he cites the selling of American locomotives in Great Britain, Brazil and Japan, American shoes in Calcutta, and American steel products in all parts of the world.

He intimates, on the one hand, that American wage-earners are not such beneficiaries of the tariff as its advocates would have us believe; and on the other hand, he states that there are American firms paying as high wages as anyone, that make goods for the export trade alone, in competition with Europe's “pauper labor,” and who therefore get no benefit from the tariff.

There is so much that is quotable in Mr. Redfield's book that it is difficult to make a selection. Here are some striking sentences, however, culled here and there from pages of the book which tend to indicate its spirit:

“When a great state loses its sense of right values so far as to permit its children to be exploited to their injury in mills or mines in the production of wealth, or to refuse to protect its men and women from excessive hours of labor,

then that state has become disloyal to its best self.”

“The call of labor for a larger share in the products of industry is the normal response to the efforts of many masters in industry to get too great a share for themselves.”

“We may think well to crowd our machinery to its limit and scrap it in a few years because a new invention shall have then replaced it; but we must learn not to crowd men that way, for we cannot scrap men.”

“Given the scientific spirit in management, constant and careful study of operations and details of cost, modern buildings and equipment, proper arrangement of plant and proper material, ample power, space, and light, a high wage rate means inevitably low labor cost per unit of product and the minimum of labor cost.”

Mr. Redfield's optimistic conclusion is that a new industrial day is dawning in which there will be more justice and consideration in the relations between employer and employee, higher wages, shorter hours, greater profits, lower prices and far greater and more general contentment.

JOHN A. FITCH.

### SECOND INTERNATIONAL MORAL EDUCATION CONGRESS

Published by the American Committee, 2 West 64th St., New York City. 195 pp. Paper 67 cents postpaid.

This separate publication of the American contributions to The Hague Congress on Moral Education turns a whole battery of searchlights upon the perplexing questions as to what moral education comprehends and how its teachings can be brought to bear upon people of all ages, especially youth.

Before religious faiths became so heterogeneous and intermingled and before the democratic state began to assume the ascendancy in teaching, these were academic questions and were scarcely raised in America, except in doctrinaire or Utopian discussions. Morals were correlations of religious tenets. The dominant church taught both. As there was a single source, so there was a sole responsibility for moral education.

But now the very basis of morality is in question, and a basis for teaching it by the state must be sought outside of sectarian tenets in schools supported by taxing citizens of all sects or none. Now, the responsibility must be shared with the church by the family and the state. The very division of responsibility and diversity of bases in teaching morals increase and complicate both the theoretical and practical problems of moral education.

The variety of points of view, the diversity of suggestions, and the independence and lack of correlation in these twenty-three contributions, by our most eminent American specialists,



constitute the most significant statement of the complexity of this problem.

Its solution, however, can be hoped for only in this very way, by focusing intensive inquiries upon single factors, which, when better understood, may all contribute to some solution. Everyone interested in almost any view of the subject will find among these highly specialized and condensed statements of view, something to inspire and inform for further effort, and those wrestling with the whole subject, especially with the public aspects of it, will see more clearly what they have to reckon with, not only in the varied views held by these advanced thinkers, who are in substantial agreement, but also in the more irreconcilable ecclesiastical positions, which are conspicuous by their absence from this discussion.

GRAHAM TAYLOR.

#### THE ELEMENTS OF CHILD PROTECTION

By SIGMUND ENGEL. The Macmillan Company. 276 pp. Price \$3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.63.

The writer of this book is a Socialist and an evolutionist. In his own words, "The intimate interdependence of child-protection with Socialism and with Darwinism must on no account be overlooked. It was my own assurance of this two-fold interdependence which led me to undertake the study of the whole system of child-protection from the joint outlook of Socialism and Darwinism. . . . My aim has rather been to effect a lucid presentation of all the problems of child-protection than to attempt myself to supply the solution of all those problems."

The book is divided into two divisions, a General Part and a Special Part. In the General Part questions of birth rate, sex relations, child mortality, eugenics, education, remedial child-protection vs. prevention of the causes that make child-protection necessary, and the executive instruments of child protection are discussed.

The Special Part is subdivided into the three main departments of Civil Law and Individual Rights, Local Administrative Activity, and Criminal Law.

Under the first sub-division marriage and parental authority, heredity, illegitimate children and the powers and guardianship of minors are considered, in the second are all the problems of prenatal care, birth, infancy, child-labor, health and elementary education, while under the third the topics are criminality in youth, penal methods, prostitution and punishable offenses against children.

Although the author admits (pp. 52 and 54) that child-protection existed prior to the development of capitalism he asserts that "child-protection has received much more attention than in former times. This extensive development of child protection is one phase of that general development whose other phase is the development of capitalism. . . . Capitalism gives rise to numerous diseases in the social organism, and then endeavors to cure them, for the most part, by the methods of child protection."

It follows in the author's opinion that child protection at best is but a palliative and that "true child-protection, the child-protection of the future, will take the form of the destruction of capitalism."

Meanwhile, "the question presses, should we postpone our attempts to deal with the symptoms of the disease, to palliate the defects of the existing social order, until the day arrives when we shall be in a position to deal with these evils once and for all by radical measures? No! Even today we have to concern ourselves with child-protection. . . . Today child-protection is useful and even indispensable. It is true that a well-planned social order affords the best child-protection in the narrower sense of the term; but this does not make the latter form of child-protection superfluous."

These quotations must serve to illustrate both the author's social philosophy and his frank statement of it. Within the limits thus set for himself the writer discusses each topic in a judicial manner, presenting in some detail different and conflicting views and closing the discussion with a criticism of the weak points on each side, and a statement of the view that he thinks is demanded by evolution.

As an able statement of the great variety of problems involved in child-protection in civilized countries, and for its mild belief in the sure-coming of a better though deferred day, the book has its chief significance.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

#### HELPING SCHOOL CHILDREN

By ELSA DENISON. Harper and Brothers. 352 pp. Price \$1.40; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.52.

Nothing better expresses the community conscience than the growing number of organizations whose main purposes are co-operation with the public schools. Our schools have been almost the first object of volunteer civic co-operation; indeed they largely owe their existence, and particularly their best features, to private initiative and experimentation.

Miss Denison's book is a stimulating survey of volunteer effort in hundreds of American cities aiming to make the schools and education more serviceable to the children and to society. Her study illuminates the wide range of private enterprise in a democracy working through contact with the tax-supported schools and their problems. Service of this kind is of singular value, quite beyond its immediate objective, for in its exercise there is developed a civic resourcefulness which if applied to other public institutions much in need of just such co-operative interest would humanize and lift them to their best uses.

Helping School Children is much more than a catalogue of activities in behalf of schools, teachers, parents and children. It is an able interpretation of one of the most far-reaching forms of social service. The book is timely, immensely suggestive, and invaluable to those whose conception of neighborliness and duty has outgrown the narrow circle of the familiar.

MEYER BLOOMFIELD.



## SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND THE INDIVIDUAL CHILD

By W. H. HOLMES, Ph.D. Davis Press. 211 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.14.

School Organization and the Individual Child is a compilation, not an argument. It is an exposition of plans for adapting school organization to the needs of individual children. The first half of the book is devoted to grading, classification, and special schools for normal children; the second to special classes for sub-normal children.

The plan of the book is to describe in one place different methods which have been tried out here and abroad, for the treatment of a special problem. A clear, concise statement is given of each method, its advantages and disadvantages, together with running comment by the author. Opinions of educators and students are quoted at some length. Reference is made to the training of teachers for giving individual instruction, work in special classes, and correction of speech defects. Some space is devoted to promotion intervals, classification, departmental teaching, "manumetal" schools, and the Montessori methods. The second part of the book deals with a description of auxiliary schools for mental defectives here and abroad, plans of study, and various psychological intelligence tests.

The book offers no conclusion and makes no plea. It assembles a store of information, and leaves the reader to make what use of it he wishes. It is, as it was intended to be, a book for reference only. But as such it has grave defects. There is no table of contents, and therefore, no way of knowing what the book treats of without examining every chapter. The index is in two parts, both incomplete. Proper names are incorrectly given. Diagrams are unnecessarily confusing. Another fault, and one more difficult to remedy, is that the author, being himself thoroughly conversant with the subjects he treats, takes it for granted that the reader is also, and uses technical phrases and historical allusions without interpretation.

On the other hand, the book is supplied with careful footnotes and an excellent bibliography. The subject matter is briefly treated, and an immense fund of important material gathered into small space. It is to be regretted that a book showing such careful study, impartial presentation, and large store of valuable information should be rendered difficult of use by reason of mechanical defects in its construction.

MAY AYRES.

## SOME EXAMPLES OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

By FRANK M. LEAVITT. Ginn & Company. 330 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.

Of what moment is it to the people of this country that 85 per cent of the children who enter the public schools drop out between the ages of twelve and fifteen? That most of these have not completed the elementary course? That at least half of the total number have not been trained with any reference to the work which they subsequently take up? That they therefore begin life wastefully and go through it perpetually handicapped?

In a general way, these are the questions which are demanding more and more attention in educational reform. In the United States that reform bids fair to lack head and guidance for some time to come. Everywhere teachers, parents, social workers, law makers, employers and workers are searching for the light, experimenting in this direction and in that. Isolated and fitful though many of these experiments are, there is in them, of course, a wealth of suggestion and experience. To make education count toward life is the aim of them all.

The main purpose of Mr. Leavitt's book is to present briefly some of the more notable of these attempts. At the outset he excludes those phases of vocational education which have to do with professional, commercial and agricultural training, or training in domestic arts and sciences. Industrial education, he says, means much more than the introduction of shop work into the present curriculum. It means "a thorough revision of our school system with the purpose of furnishing for the working classes an education which bears somewhat the same relation to their prospective life work as does the college education to the future work of the professional and managerial classes."

In addition to examples of out-and-out industrial education, intended for boys and girls of fourteen or over, the book presents some of the attempts that have been made to save two wasted years *before* fourteen, as well as after. These lie in the direction of changed methods of instruction, different plans of grading and promotion and more purposeful selection of subject matter. The latter merges into prevocational instruction, to which the author devotes a separate chapter.

Although the adequate reorganization of existing public school systems in accordance with new ideals will require time, the author thinks it may be advantageous to formulate deliberate plans. He himself proposes one, which he calls a "plan for immediate reorganization" and which is intended to embrace all the children in a given community. Its chief feature is its provision for a change in the *goal* toward which a child may be aiming. Such a change is made possible at four points, namely, at the close of the sixth and eighth grades of the elementary school, and of the second and fourth grades of the present high-school period. The author would provide that at the various places of branching some subjects may be common to the curricula of both or of all courses furnished. His plan contemplates that all instruction, cultural and intensely vocational alike, should be under the control of the existing public school system.

So many are the experiments now being made in industrial education, and so confusing do they become to one who would try to extract the good from all, that it seems regrettable that Mr. Leavitt has not attempted to weigh values for us. The book is perhaps too much a *What's What* in the field of industrial education. It lacks, doubtless intentionally, on the side of interpretation and estimate.

W. D. L.



## THE MIDDLE CLASS—A PLAY

By J. ROSETT, M. D. Phoenix Publishers, Baltimore.  
124 pp. Price \$5.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$5.55.

George Bernard Shaw in *Widowers' Houses*, one of his prentice plays, held up to contempt the respectable man who extracts an income from squalid tenements; Ibsen in *An Enemy of Society* displayed the middle class, the little men of property, in snarling revolt against the reformer who threatened their dividends by exposing insanitary drainage in a health resort. Dr. Rosett combines the themes in a play, which, while lacking the brilliancy of Shaw and the technique of Ibsen, proves a convenient vehicle for caustic criticisms of American philanthropic society in 1913.

Dr. Bensel, an idealist, is appointed health commissioner by a reform mayor of easy morals and ready shifts, at the request of a quackish doctor, who, though presented as the devil of the piece, is so mildly satanic as to seem quite at home in his surroundings. Dr. Bensel's prosecution of the grocers for selling rotten food and of the owners of a particularly unsavory block of tenements soon brings him from the clouds. The secretary of the Charity Organization Society, pictured with sly unveracity as a well-nourished man of elegant ways, pleads with Dr. Bensel not to dry up the sources of charity by curtailing the income of the agents of the nasty property, who are generous contributors to the society. Dr. Anderson, the leading physician, turns out to be the owner of the threatened shacks and pleads for two months' delay to enable him to sell them to some innocent investor.

Most of the slums are owned by men whose wives and daughters are prominent in housing associations, associations for improvement of the condition of the poor, and so on. Business is threatened. Tax-payers cannot be philanthropists if the laws are enforced, for the surplus income from which their doles are made will be cut off. Clearly Dr. Bensel must go. So orders the boss, whose insolent way to the reform mayor would jar were not the mayor himself an incredible fool and hypocrite. But the mayor finds an easy way out, much easier on paper than in real life, by insinuating to Dr. Bensel's wife, with whom he has had an unexplained and irrelevant "affair," that her husband is too fond of a woman clerk in his office, and induces the wife to prevail on the husband to resign.

While the episodes are unconvincing and the character drawing is negligible, the play may stir charity workers and their patrons to some healthy self-examination. In a small town, where the large incomes are nearly all derived from allied industries, the connection between improper incomes and charitable gifts may be as close as the author pictures; but in metropolitan communities there are so many forms of social oppression, as well as of social uplift, that a man may be righteously indignant with the forms of oppression in which he does not happen to share, and unconscious that the customs he upholds and profits from are equally obnoxious to those whom he opposes and who, in their turn, are con-

tributing to the overthrow of his form of oppression. A lawyer for an anti-social monopoly may honestly support a housing committee, while the slum owner, with equal sincerity, denounces the transit monopoly. An employer of sweated girl labor may sincerely condemn stock gambling, while the chief contributor to the consumers' league, which blisters the employer for the starvation wages he pays, may himself be a miscreant who rigs the stock market and comes under the whip of the sweating employer. Possibly only the paid social workers maintain a purity of purpose that will stand analysis; though some cynics aver that there is no more charity or patriotism in working for a salary in the office of a charity organization society than in the office of the steel trust. "There is none good, no, not one."

JOHN MARTIN,

## PENAL PHILOSOPHY

By GABRIEL TARDE. Translated by Rapelje Howell.  
Vol. VI of the Modern Criminal Science Series.  
Little, Brown and Company, Boston. 581 pp. Price  
\$5.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$5.21.

The social workers of this country owe a debt to the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology for making possible the publication of the Criminal Science Series. Americans are in general loath to acquire foreign languages, even for reading and scientific purposes. The series embraces works of de Quiros, Lombroso, Saleilles, Gross and Tarde, already published, and promises works of Ferri, Bongier, Garofalo, and Aschaffenburg. Putting it bluntly, there will no longer be the excuse of those who may admire American empirical criminology to the exclusion of foreign important thought that translations are not available.

Tarde's *Penal Philosophy* is particularly sympathetic, as the German phrase has it, for American social workers interested in delinquency. He saw with remarkable clearness the social causes of crime, was impatient with the dogmatic propositions of Lombroso's criminal anthropology, saw in imitation a strong factor in producing crime, and gave to the principle of opposition a considerable weight. The criminal must be studied as primarily a social, and not as an organic, individual. His *Philosophie Penale* discusses at much length the problem of the freedom of the will, finding in man's freedom to act according to his own nature, or, in other words, his social responsibility, the answer as to his relation to the criminal act.

Naturally, the wealth of knowledge upon which Tarde bases his theses does not render his work the "last word" in criminology. The value of each volume of the Criminal Science Series for Americans lies not in the permanent defining of the predominant causes of crime nor in the most effective methods of combatting crime or of dealing with the offender; the value lies in giving to American students the horizon in criminology that for a generation has been broadening in European countries. Abroad, the problems of freedom of the will and determinism, penal law and prison science have been



and are being debated to an extent hardly imagined as yet by many of us who have most to do with delinquency.

ORLANDO F. LEWIS.

#### WHAT THE OTHER CHILDREN DO

By ELIZABETH GRIERSON. The Macmillan Co. 166 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

#### THE DIARY OF A FREE KINDERGARTEN

By LILEEN HARDY. Introduction by KATE D. WIGGIN. Houghton Mifflin Co. 175 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

Using romance to familiarize young people with history has long been a device of the story writer. Here is a book that adopts a similar method (except that there is no love plot) to acquaint them with conditions in the congested parts of a great city. Two children who start out to spend six weeks with their cousins in Perthshire stop on the way at their Aunt Marion's settlement in Belchester, a part of Edinburgh, Scotland. While there they learn that scarlet fever has broken out in the home of their cousins and so they become marooned in the heart of the slums. From their vantage ground in the settlement they make voyages of discovery into the unknown regions around, learning many things, from how coal tickets are distributed to the poor to the inside workings of a school for the crippled.

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Today there are ten free kindergartens in Great Britain, most of them depending on voluntary contributions and living largely from hand to mouth. It is their aim to provide early and thorough care for the "slum children" in the cities. The Diary of a Free Kindergarten is an intimate story of the day-to-day hardships and triumphs of one such kindergarten in a dreary corner of Edinburgh, written by the woman who founded the kindergarten and whose life became its life.

Kate Douglas Wiggin writes in the introduction:

"Here is a modest, unpretentious record of the daily life of one Kindergartner, who is doing her little best to make the world a better place in which to live. . . . I wish any word of mine might help to earn a little flood of golden sovereigns, and so this beautiful work be strengthened and developed. 'The hope of the world lies in the children.'"

W. D. L.

#### BOOKS RECEIVED IN FEBRUARY

WHAT THE OTHER CHILDREN DO. By Elizabeth Grierson. The Macmillan Co. 166 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

THE CLERGY AND SOCIAL SERVICE. W. Moore Ede, D.D. The Young Churchman Co. 149 pp. Price \$.90; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.96.

OLD HOMES OF NEW AMERICANS. By Francis E. Clark. Houghton Mifflin Co. 265 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

THE DIARY OF A FREE KINDERGARTEN. By Lileen Hardy. Introduction by Kate Douglas Wiggin. Houghton Mifflin Co. 175 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

THE FAMILY. By Charles Franklin Thwing and Carrie F. Thwing. Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co. 258 pp. Price \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.75.

SOCIALISM--SUMMED UP. By Morris Hillquit. The H. K. Fly Co. 110 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

THE MIDDLE CLASS. A play by J. Rosett, M.D. Phoenix Publishers. 124 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.56.

STARVING AMERICA. By Alfred W. McCann and F. M. Barton. 270 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

SOCIALISM AND DEMOCRACY IN EUROPE. By Samuel P. Orth, Ph.D. 352 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

THE GOVERNMENT OF AMERICAN CITIES. By William Bennett Munro, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co. 401 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.18.

SOCIAL RELIGION. By Scott Nearing, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co. 224 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

MARRIAGE AND THE SEX PROBLEM. By Dr. F. W. Foerster. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 225 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.44.

NEW YORK CHARITIES DIRECTORY. 1913 edition. Charity Organization Society of the City of New York. 865 pp. Price \$1.00 postpaid.

GENETICS--AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF HEREDITY. By Herbert E. Walter. 272 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

THE STOCK EXCHANGE FROM WITHIN. By William C. Van Antwerp. Doubleday, Page & Co. 459 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

BLINDNESS OF VIRTUE. By Cosmo Hamilton. Geo. H. Doran Co. 127 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

SOCIAL WELFARE IN NEW ZEALAND. By Hugh H. Lusk. Sturgis and Walton. 287 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

MODERN PROBLEMS. By Sir Oliver Lodge. George H. Doran Co. 348 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.13.

THE NEW FREEDOM. By Woodrow Wilson. Doubleday, Page & Co. 294 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

OPEN AIR CRUSADERS. By Sherman C. Kingsley. Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund. 128 pp. Price, by mail of THE SURVEY \$.60.

THE COTTON MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES. By Melvin T. Copeland, Ph.D., Harvard University. 405 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

NEW LIVES FOR OLD. By William Carleton. Small, Maynard & Co. 222 pp. Price \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.30.

HOW NEW YORK CITY ADMINISTERS ITS SCHOOLS. By Ernest C. Moore. World Book Co. 321 pp.

SOCIAL PROGRESS IN CONTEMPORARY EUROPE. By Frederick A. Ogg. The Macmillan Co. 384 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

HELPING SCHOOL CHILDREN. By Elsa Denison. Harper & Bros. 352 pp. Price \$1.40; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.52.

SOME EXAMPLES OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION. By Frank M. Leavitt. Ginn & Co. 330 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.

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MY LIFE. By August Bebel. University of Chicago Press. 343 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.14.

THE NECESSARY EVIL. By Charles Raun Kennedy. Harper & Bros. 110 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

THE THREE GIFTS OF LIFE. By Nellie M. Smith, A.M. Dodd, Mead & Co. 138 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.56.

WOMAN'S SHARE IN SOCIAL CULTURE. By Anna Garlin Spencer. Mitchell Kennerley. 342 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.09.

HYGIENE OF THE NURSERY. By Louis Starr, M.D., L.L.D. P. Blakiston's Sons & Co. 331 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

CHLORIDE OF LIME IN SANITATION. By Albert H. Hooker. John Wiley & Sons. 231 pp.

THE FINANCES OF VERMONT. By Frederick A. Wood, Ph.D. Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law. Longmans, Green and Co., Agts. 147 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.05.

TRAINING THE BOY. By William A. McKeever. The Macmillan Co. 368 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.



## TREND

## LEADERS IN THE MONTH'S MAGAZINES

**U. S. INSPECTED AND PASSED.** By Caroline Bartlett Crane. *Pearson's*. The first of a series by the instigator and chief witness in the Congressional hearings of last year on the need for an investigation of the federal meat inspection service. Mrs. Crane's article is designed to show simply and convincingly that our laws and law enforcement have through the treachery of officials of the Department of Agriculture become an asset to meat packers and a menace to meat eaters.

**THE JEWISH INVASION OF AMERICA.** By Burton K. Hendrick. *McClure's*. A study of what the Jewish immigration to the United States, the second greatest Jewish country in the world, has meant to the immigrants freed from the economic and political disabilities which beset them in Europe. A successful minority has almost absorbed the clothing and theatrical business and has succeeded notably in many other industries.

**HOW THE MOVIES WERE SAVED.** By Will Irwin. *Metropolitan*. The moving picture shows were going to destruction or leading young folks there; the only choice seemed to lie between suppression and voluntary censorship. They chose the latter, and in this article Mr. Irwin shows how the National Board of Censorship does its work.

**WRECKS—WHY THEY INCREASE.** By Albert W. Atwood. *American Magazine*.

**WHEN THE ENGINEER FORGETS.** By Charles Frederick Carter. *Technical World Magazine*.

**THE TROJANS OF THE WRECK TRAIN.** By Bailey Millard. *Railroad Revolution*. By Charles Edward Russell. The latter two are in *Pearson's*.

Four contributions to a subject which has been occupying the public attention through the recent probe of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad.

The first tells the actual statistical causes of wrecks, which may be summed up in defective rails and defective engineers, as well as the underlying reasons for the causes—overspeed and overstrain.

The second tells of the efforts to perfect the automatic train stop, which bids fair to offset the element of human weakness in the engineer. Mr. Millard tells of the quiet rushing men who come after the wreck is over to save lives and money. Mr. Russell marshals somewhat the same facts as Mr. Atwood to show that in his opinion no amount of regulation under a profit system of railroad running will solve the problem of railroad wrecks. His remedy is government ownership.

\* \* \*

**T**HAT "United States inspected and passed" on American meat sold outside the United States means much, but that "United States inspected and passed" on meat sold to us in the United States means something less than nothing, is the gist of the first of a series of four articles on our federal meat inspection by Caroline Bartlett Crane. These articles will appear in the March, April, May and June issues of *Pearson's Magazine*.

As long ago as 1903 Mrs. Crane induced the legislature of Michigan to pass a meat inspection bill which she had drafted. In the following year she was invited to address the International Congress of Butchers, meeting at the World's Fair at St. Louis, and it was only last year that she was the instigator and chief witness at the hearing before the Congressional Committee which was considering an investigation of the federal meat inspection service.

In the first of these articles, as a result of her sanitary surveys of American cities, she declares that we pay \$3,000,000 a year for a meat inspection service which enables the meat packers to sell to foreign trade and serve to us the leavings not accepted by the rest of the world. She charges that, contrary to the pub-

lished regulations, secret orders are issued by our government which require that diseased meat must not be certified for export, but allow it to be approved for home use. In support of her statement she quotes from an inspection service announcement of October 15, 1909: "Inspectors are directed in future not to certify for export edible organs such as livers which have been mutilated or from which portions have been removed."

Under this rule she asserts that though in England "United States inspected and passed" means the liver is whole, in America it means that a tumor or an abscess or a nest of flukes (worms by no means microscopic) may have been cut out.

In her next article, it is announced, Mrs. Crane will discuss what she calls secret orders "which are carefully kept a secret from the American people."

\* \* \*

## "AS YE DID IT NOT"

CHARLES L. GREAVES in the *Independent*

JESUS CHRIST is passing by,  
Throw thy cheerful casement high;  
Haste, oh haste! bid Him abide  
This day with thee, the Crucified!

"Nay, nay, it is not He,  
No lambent glory do I see,  
No angels fill the throbbing air,  
No being passes, kingly, fair;  
'Tis but a beggar in the throng,  
Who drags his shuffling feet along,  
All weakened, wrinkled, pale of face,  
He treads the street with weary pace."

Haste, oh haste! He comes again,  
Jesus walks the ways of men,  
Thy door throw open, open wide,  
And draw the heavenly Guest inside!

"Nay, nay, no star I see,  
I hear no holy minstrelsy,  
No ringing shout, no kingly cry;  
'Tis but a child is passing by,  
All soiled and touseled, of the street,  
With hatless head and shodless feet,  
Pushed, and jostled, giving place  
With timid tread and pitiful face."

Jesus Christ is passing by,  
He is coming, He is nigh,  
He is looking to your door,  
He may never pass you more!

"Nay, nay, ye do but jest,  
For I see no holy Guest,  
No hosannas do I hear,  
Proclaiming that the Lord is near:  
But I see a swarthy slave,  
Bending 'neath his burden grave,  
Numb and silent in his woe,  
Down the sultry roadway go."

Blind, blind! ye would not see,  
Jesus Christ came thrice to thee;  
Pray, that on some sad tomorrow  
He doth not despise thy sorrow,  
When thou tread'st the tearful way,  
That the Saviour trod today.

\* \* \*

**PIGS IS PIGS, BUT BABIES** is the title that M. G. Franklin gives to her description, in a recent issue of the *Technical World* of the babies' health contest at the last Iowa State Fair. Iowa has long been the first state in the Union in the quantity and quality of her carefully nurtured hogs. Since the state fair last August,



when Mary L. Watts forced the babies on the attention of the state its citizens have begun to ask themselves the question: "If a hog is worth saving, why not a baby?" Not only that, but Oregon, Missouri and Colorado have, since the Iowa fair, held baby contests, and the work of baby saving is under way in all four states.

\* \* \*

THE New Year saw the launching of a new Socialist weekly, the *New Review* (150 Nassau Street, New York), whose editor, Hermann Simpson, formerly editor of the *New York Call*, is one of the foremost students of Marx in America. The *New Review* responds to a distinct and recognized need for a Socialist periodical whose work shall be the education of party members, rather than agitation.

The word education is interpreted by Mr. Simpson in its broadest sense. In an editorial in the first issue, he says:

Socialist education cannot be confined to the study of certain books or theories or modes of action. Our movement has long ago passed the stage of utopian construction, esoteric sectarianism, or secret conspiracy. It has broken through the bounds of local and national isolation. It has now become synonymous with the world-wide struggles of the workers against the monopolists of the means of work and of life. It is as many-sided as are these struggles. Local and partial strikes, "general" strikes extending over entire localities or industries, participation in local and national elections, efforts for the introduction and extension of political democracy and economic reform, public demonstrations and strikes *en masse* for the attainment of political objects, unions and co-operatives and Basel congresses—all these forms of working class activity and struggle are now regarded by friend and foe as a part of the general Socialist movement, the ultimate aim of which is the complete overthrow of the existing social order.

A movement so comprehensive, so universal, so Protean is not to be educated or taught or trained in accordance with the rules of the schoolroom, workshop, or barracks. An educational organ of this movement must not presume to impose upon the movement its own superior theories, irrefutable principles, and infallible dogmas. All it can do, all it can hope to do, is to impart correct information, to subject the multifarious manifestations of the movement, and of society in general, to a searching and fearless analysis, and to develop in its readers a spirit of free inquiry and criticism.

But this does not imply that the *New Review* has no definite standpoint. . . . We have a coherent body of theory that has withstood triumphantly all the assaults of the intellectual champions of capitalism, one that has stood the test of the most searching criticism—the criticism of actual fact.

It will be one of the principal tasks of the *New Review* to make known the achievements of Marx and his successors to the Socialists of America, so that we may attain to that fundamental unity of thought without which unity of action is impossible.

\* \* \*

GOVERNMENT is not, according to Albert Bushnell Hart, fundamentally a matter of law, but of the spirit of the men who make or influence the making of the laws. Among these he names the reformer whose influence has been apparent on American law for two hundred years. In his presidential address before the American Political Science Association he thus characterizes the reformer:

Rarely he reaches office; usually he is a critic, often he is a crank. American government owes a great debt to these self-designated counsels of new client-principles. What would the world be without these one-sided men, who by their public addresses, their books, their organizations push on the unpopular cause, which in due time shall capture the citadel and install itself sovereign? Take, for example, our sister Society for Labor Legislation; how much it does to concentrate public interest and power on one of the greatest problems of civilization. The reformer brings to law making that breezy emotion, that appeal to sentiment, that incessant action, that faith in his fellow men, which is lost in the calmer decisions of the cabinet or the court-room. As Emerson puts it in his imperishable *Politics* "I have just been conversing with a man to whom no weight of adverse evidence will make it for a moment appear impossible, that thousands of human beings might exercise toward each other the grandest and simplest sentiments, as well as a knot of friends or a pair of lovers." Government needs that spirit, that brotherhood, that intense, narrow and immensely effective propaganda.

\* \* \*

SAYS Walter H. Page in his statement for 1913 of "What the *World's Work* is Trying to Do:"

The first quality required to make a helpful magazine is a balanced judgment, an intellectual inability to be drawn off into the advocacy of any fad or cure-all, or to allow one's personal tastes and particular enthusiasms to dominate the whole periodical—in a word, the refusal to become sensational. "Movements" are necessary and desirable in the free life of the United States; but the free life of the United States is a very complex thing, and no "movement" carries all salvation with it. Good judgment calls for the reporting of all sorts of good work but for very wary acceptance of all men's burning enthusiasms. Common sense is the most useful quality that you can get into an editorial office.



## JOTTINGS

### AMERICAN PAGEANTRY BOARD FORMED

The American Pageantry Board was organized recently in Boston after a two days' conference under the auspices of the drama committee of the Twentieth Century Club. William Chauncey Langdon of New York was chosen president; Lotta A. Clark of Boston, secretary; Howard H. Davenport of Somerville, Mass., treasurer. The distinctive thought of the conference was that in the pageant lies the hope of the discovery and development of the American note in music, art, and literature. The value of the pageant as a short cut to reach the people was emphasized. People from various parts of the country who are interested in pageants attended the conference.

### A SOCIAL WORKERS' WHO'S WHO FOR NEW YORK

Thirty-five hundred of the charitable, social and religious agencies of New York together with a limited number of those of the state and nation, are listed in the Twenty-Second annual Charities Directory, which has just been published by the Charity Organization Society of New York. It is a reference book for information regarding any department of philanthropic work.

The directory includes agencies for the relief of children, immigrants, the unemployed, the aged and infirm, the sick, tubercular, incurable blind, deaf and dumb, crippled, insane or feeble-minded, and inebriates. The volume is not in any sense an endorsement of the organizations included but every one listed has been required to submit enough data in regard to its work to permit its general efficiency to be assumed.

A name index of 8000 persons connected with the 3500 institutions, as officers, directors or secretaries, has been added this year. This list is a who's who of social workers in New York.

### ON TAG DAYS

Business men from the Board of Commerce of Detroit recently called upon Mayor Marx to protest against the large number of tag days which are held there each year. The committee took no ground regarding the scheme itself but objected to its utilization by an increasing number of societies.

This points out, according to Francis H. McLean, one of the difficulties connected with tag day schemes. So many think that they are easy to work up that organization after organization tries the plan. There are tag days which, it is generally conceded, are managed in such a way as to obviate the serious evils. But such as these are not numerous, say those who have seen many fail, and the example set almost inevitably leads, they declare, to the kind of situation which has arisen in Detroit. In Chicago tag days became so numerous that the mayor has refused to issue any more permits.

## THE Three Gifts of Life

A Girl's Responsibility for Race Progress

By

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Professor of Physical Education, Teachers' College,  
Columbia University

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The tour last year under the leadership of Dr. E. E. Pratt was so successful that it will be repeated this year.

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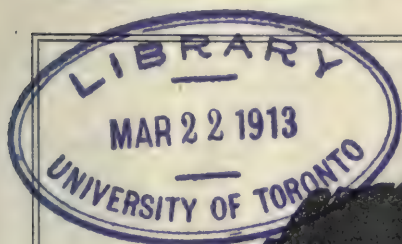
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# THE SURVEY



*Cesare in New York Sun*

HOPE SPRINGS ETERNAL



## THE PITH OF IT

LIKE Kipling's cat, the manner of the Princeton tiger has been other than gregarious. It has gone its way, waving a wild tail in a wild lone. In the years when Chicago, Cornell, Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, Johns Hopkins, Columbia—a score of universities and colleges—were contributing to the public impulse,—when Harvard was establishing a museum of social ethics, and the incursion of "Bill Bailey's classes" from Yale were an annual event on the East side, Princeton seemed self-engrossed and socially dormant. But Old Nassau's arrears were paid in heaped-up measure on March 4, when President Wilson gave to the nation that searching human document, his inaugural address. P. 840.

THE clash as to vocational education—between school teacher and trade trainer—is on in Illinois. P. 832.

COMPENSATION reports and legislation in Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Colorado, Connecticut, Oregon and other states. P. 828.

PUTTING the ultimate responsibility for public health up to the state in New York. P. 838.

ONE thing revealed by the Progressive campaign last fall was that the people of the United States are eager to learn about social insurance. The American Association for Labor Legislation has taken time by the forelock and appointed a national committee to sound the need and come forward with a constructive program. P. 827.

BOOKER T. WASHINGTON writes on the rural school. P. 837.

WHETHER Dr. Friedmann is or is not a faker, his proposal to combat tuberculosis through the employment of live bacilli is in the direction toward which scientists are beginning to turn their eyes. And his coming has laid bare the quivering hope of the unnumbered sick in a way more stark and tragic than a thousand tuberculosis exhibits. P. 834.

THE labor issue squarely met by President Taft when he vetoed the sundry civil bill. P. 835.

TEN charges are made against Joseph F. Scott, superintendent of the state prison department of New York, in the report of Governor Sulzer's Commission of Inquiry. One is that Colonel Scott permitted Frederick H. Mills to continue as prison sales agent after a special report to the governor that Mr. Mills was conducting a private business which divided his allegiance to his public duties. Superintendent Scott is quoted as saying that the charges are part of an attempt to force him out because he refused to name a Democrat as warden of Auburn Prison.

# THE SURVEY

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GRAHAM TAYLOR Associate Editors JANE ADDAMS  
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## THE COMMON WELFARE

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# THE COMMON WELFARE

## NEW COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL INSURANCE

Announcement is made by the American Association for Labor Legislation of the appointment of a Committee on Social Insurance.

What is contemplated is an inquiry more fundamental, thorough and scientific than has heretofore been made, not only of methods of insuring compensation risks, but of the whole field of social insurance—all as the basis for formulating a comprehensive plan adapted to the conditions of American political and industrial life.

It is said that the first task of social protection was to safeguard the citizen against violence; that the second task was to protect him against fraud; and that the third, on which we are about to enter so far as practicable, is to protect the citizen against misfortune. This last represents the field before the committee, which is the outgrowth of the earnest discussion of the subject at the annual meeting of the Association for Labor Legislation in Boston last December.

Prof. W. F. Willoughby of Princeton, president of the association, has appointed the following to begin the work: Edward T. Devine, chairman; Miles M. Dawson, actuary and member of the New York bar, who has taken an active part in the discussion of workmen's compensation and insurance; Carroll W. Doten, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, member of the state commission which investigated employers' liability in Massachusetts, leading up to the present mutual compensation law; Henry J. Harris, of the Library of Congress, formerly expert of the Bureau of Labor; Charles R. Henderson, University of Chicago, author of *Industrial Insurance in the United States*; Frederick L. Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance Company; I. M. Rubinow, actuary of the Ocean Accident and Guaranty Corporation, Ltd., former expert of the United States Bureau of Labor; Henry R. Seager, professor of political economy, Columbia University, author of *Social Insurance*; John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, secretary.

That the scale of compensation adopted by American compensation acts is highly unsatisfactory and does not meet the problem created by industrial accidents is the first pronouncement of the new committee. In pointing out the niggardliness of American compensation acts the committee holds that an adequate scale of compensation would require:

- (1) That the maximum rate of compensation for disability and for dependents in case of death should be fixed at not less than two-thirds of the wages;
- (2) That compensation for widows should last as long as widowhood lasts;
- (3) That compensation for orphans should last at least until the age of sixteen;
- (4) That for disability, whether total or serious though partial, the compensation should be for the entire period of disability.

The principle of compensation adopted by the committee as fundamental is that "the cost of industrial accidents should be distributed among, and be paid by, the consumers of a product." In order to secure this result it is further maintained that compensation acts should always take the form of an obligation upon the employer to insure such compensation to be paid to employees or their dependents in some manner which will absolutely secure the payment of such compensation.

Besides accident compensation, sickness insurance will receive much attention and the committee will emphasize the fact that social insurance is insurance for the masses, for those who would not otherwise be insured. In the words of a member of the committee, "we should inquire into the desirability of insurance against all emergencies of life of the working classes. When we classify the causes of poverty, we enumerate the various kinds of insurance."

The extension of the compensation principle to embrace occupational diseases is already provided for in the association's bill recently introduced in Congress by Senator Kern. It is understood that sub-committees have already begun the careful investigation of the operation of state insurance funds established in several states for the purpose of providing workmen's compensation.

The first definite action taken by the committee is to prepare for a national conference on social insurance to be held in Chicago in June. This will be the first attempt in the United States to provide for a thorough-going and comprehensive discussion of this subject in a representative gathering called especially for the purpose. It may be expected to have an important bearing on the development of public interest in advance of the International Congress on Social Insurance in Washington in 1915. It is anticipated that the members of the American committee of the International Congress will participate in the June conference.



## COMPENSATION BILLS PROPOSED BY PENNSYLVANIA COMMISSION

The latest state compensation commission heard from is that of Pennsylvania. The commission's report is devoted almost entirely to its seven proposed bills, the short preliminary statement being little more than an explanation of these bills. The commissioners had eighteen months to do their work and instead of spending this time in gathering accident statistics, they made use of data already collected by the state Department of Factory Inspection and studied the statistics and experience of other state commissions.

The proposed legislation shows that they made a full analysis of all the laws passed by the earlier commissions, for their proposals deal with some of the outstanding problems of compensation legislation. Among the proposed bills are an act requiring the reporting of industrial accidents, an act to provide for the incorporation and regulation of employers' mutual liability insurance associations, and an act providing that in case of the insolvency of an insured employer, the insurer shall make the payment direct to the injured employee. An act is also before the legislature creating a commission for further study.

In view of constitutional difficulties, a compensation bill of the so-called elective form is proposed. To pave the way, however, for more advanced legislation hereafter, the following amendment to the state constitution is proposed:

"The General Assembly may enact laws requiring the payment by employers, or employers and employees jointly, of reasonable compensation for injuries to employees arising in the course of their employment and for occupational diseases of employees, whether or not such injuries or diseases result in death, and regardless of fault of employer or employee, and fixing the basis of ascertainment of such compensation and the maximum and minimum limits thereof, and providing special or general remedies for the collection thereof; but in no other cases shall the General Assembly limit the amount to be recovered for injuries resulting in death, or for injuries to persons or property; and, in case of death from such injuries, the right of action shall survive, and the General Assembly shall prescribe for whose benefit such actions shall be prosecuted. No act shall prescribe any limitations of time within which suits may be brought against corporations for injuries to persons or property, or for other causes, different from those fixed by general laws regulating actions against natural persons, and such acts now existing are avoided."

The elective bill which covers all employments presumes acceptance of compensation in default of rejection. It is made more exact in the defini-

tion of terms used than other laws in order that the operation of the law may not be hindered by uncertainties.

The rate of compensation is not high, being 50 per cent of wages or wage loss, but the act contains the compensatory clause that cases of total permanent disability shall be provided for for life, the rate of compensation being lowered after three hundred weeks to 40 per cent of wages. The provision for medical or surgical care is, on the other hand, only \$25, a lower rate than is provided in any other bill, and obviously inadequate in cases of serious injury. Compensation is not to be paid for the first two weeks after injury. Non-resident aliens are, by the terms of the bill, to be provided for on the same scale as residents.

The commission, believing that since "a fertile cause of accidents recognized by every authority is . . . excessive hours of labor," suggestions for legislation regulating hours lay well within their scope, propose as their seventh bill an act reducing the maximum hours of women's labor in Pennsylvania from sixty to fifty-four. Most of these bills have been introduced into the state legislature.

The compensation committee of the National Association of Manufacturers, whose work for national insurance for industrial accidents is well known, has recently framed a compulsory and also an elective bill along the lines of the English system. The bills contain a compulsory insurance clause with choice of methods, among them mutuals of employers or of employers and their workmen, the latter with additional benefits in proportion to the workman's contribution. Heavy fines are the penalty for failure to insure, or to deposit security with the state insurance department.

The bill would cover all employments, except casual labor and domestic service where no machinery is used. Accidents which can be proved by the employer to be due to intoxication or the neglect of safeguards provided are excluded, the latter provision being designed to stimulate accident prevention by employers. A compensation commission appointed by the courts and approved by the supreme court would administer the act.

Fourteen days must elapse before the payment of accident benefits, but medical care must be supplied during the time. The amount of medical care is not, as in many of the state laws, limited to any fixed sum, but the expression "such charges as prevail in the same community for similar treatment of persons of like standard of living" some people will criticize in view of the low grade of medical science which the poor are able to employ for themselves.

The benefits are not large. For total incapac-



ity the amount would be 50 per cent of wages for a maximum of five hundred weeks; for partial incapacity 50 per cent of wage loss. The maximum death benefit is 50 per cent of wages for three hundred weeks if two or more total dependents survive, less for one total dependent or for partial dependents. To non-resident families of aliens no benefits would be paid.

The following clause, in conjunction with compulsory insurance is designed to provide for the injured person in the event of the employer's insolvency:

"No policy of insurance issued under this act shall contain any provision relieving the insurer from payment if the insured becomes insolvent or discharged in bankruptcy during the period that the policy is in operation, or the compensation, or any part of it, is due and unpaid. Every policy shall provide that the workman shall have a first lien upon any amount becoming due on account of such policy to the insured from the insurer, and that in case of the legal incapacity, inability or disability of the insured to receive the amount due and pay it over to the insured workman, or his dependents, said insurer shall pay the same directly to such workman, his agent, or to a trustee for him or his dependents to the extent of discharging any obligation of the insured to said workman or his dependents."

#### OTHER STATE REPORTS AND PROPOSED LAWS

The Massachusetts Commission, after its elective insurance act has been in operation six months, has published its full report, which contains the complete text of all state compensation laws passed up to this year.

The Colorado Commission, hampered by the fact that the money appropriated to it was not forthcoming, has issued only a small pamphlet report but has introduced a bill into the state legislature.

From the Connecticut Commission comes a report devoted to its compulsory compensation law recently introduced into the state legislature. It covers twenty general classes of hazardous trades. The commissioners reject the elective plan because they believe that the withdrawal of the defense of assumption of risk under so-called elective laws may make them unconstitutional. Even aside from the constitutionality question, they believe that such a law does in fact deprive the employer of the equal protection of the law. A compulsory law should, they believe, pass the constitutionality test. The verdict in the Washington case, has, they believe, put upon a firm basis the opinion already held by many lawyers of high standing that the "principle of the Ives Case [declaring unconstitutional the New York compulsory compensa-

tion law] was not sound and will not be followed in other jurisdictions."

The Oregon Commission has also printed a short report and its bill for an elective state insurance law has passed both houses of the state legislature. A law has passed both houses in West Virginia as has an amendment to the Ohio law, both of which will be outlined in *THE SURVEY* later. Laws or amendments to laws have also been introduced into the legislatures of Maine, Iowa, Montana, Nebraska, Missouri, California, Wisconsin and Minnesota.

Though the Missouri commission never issued a report an interesting local investigation into a hundred industrial accidents in Kansas City has, however, been published by the Factory Inspection Department of the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare, supplemented by the study of 220 fatal industrial accidents in St. Louis conducted by the School of Social Economy. The Kansas City investigation was made by W. I. Potter, city factory inspector, and the studies of the two cities are brought together in one publication to furnish an answer to these three questions:

Why does Missouri need a Workman's Compensation Law?

Why does Missouri need a thorough and comprehensive act providing for the health, safety and comfort of her workers?

Why does Missouri need an adequately supported state wide factory inspection system?

Fifty-four per cent of the Kansas City accidents were preventable, 24 per cent of them being due to the workers' own or fellow workers' negligence and 30 to employers' failure to provide safeguards. Of the eighty-five non-fatal accidents, sixty-one received no wage payment during illness, the average length of disability being nine and a half weeks. Of these, thirty were the sole support of seventy-three persons including thirty-six children under sixteen. Only nine had no dependents or semi-dependents. The fifteen who met with fatal accidents left thirty-six persons wholly dependent on them. Of the fatal accidents four received compensation in amounts ranging from \$125 to \$2,000, and eight had suits pending; about half were insured. Thirty-three of the eighty-five had received some compensation; twenty-three suits were pending.

The study of the St. Louis cases shows that financial aid, in the 104 cases where it could be traced, amounted to almost \$73,000; of this \$40,000 came through insurance and other forms of providence on the workmen's part, and less than \$33,000 from compensation through liability suits. Almost one-fifth of the number of injured persons were left without resources and 180 of the victims of fatal accidents were fifty years or under in age.



The following St. Louis cases are typical:

No. 82—This girl, nineteen years old, was killed because of a defective elevator. Her parents received no insurance or compensation. The young man to whom she was engaged went crazy as a result of the loss, while the shock also caused the mother's death.

No. 207—This man was a city inspector. While inspecting a bridge which was in the course of construction, he lost his balance and fell. The city for which he had worked seventeen years did nothing for his widow and child fifteen years old, but he had \$3,500 insurance.

#### "LOWER RENTS" AS A CITY SLOGAN

B-z-z-z-z-z-z went the bell every five minutes throughout the lower rents exhibit of the New York Congestion Committee. "Every time this bell rings," explained a placard, "land values increase \$1,000 in New York. Who gets it? Land speculators. Who makes it? You, when you pay your rent."

The device was only one of many used to portray the social evils of high rents, and the legislation which the Congestion Committee holds will ameliorate them. For the exhibit, avowedly a piece of propaganda in favor of a specific change in the tax laws, was more than a tract on rents. It showed, through printed signs, cartoons, maps, and plaster dummies of a consumptive, a laborer, a working girl, etc., the disease, congestion and poverty that exist in large sections of Manhattan, and called for a greater measure of public control over real estate than the present tenement-house laws afford. The attendance for the first two days was over 11,000. Incidentally, the exhibit was perhaps the sharpest attack on land speculation that has been made recently in New York.

To establish the fact of high rents, the findings of the recent investigation made by the English Board of Trade in twenty-eight large cities in the United States were displayed. The predominant rents in New York are more than half as high again as the rents in eleven of these cities and more than a quarter as high again as the rents in nineteen. The English board found that the lowest weekly rent for three rooms in New York is over a fifth more than the rent for the same number of rooms in Chicago, Cleveland or Philadelphia.

The placards set forth that the rent for a good three or four room apartment in most parts of New York near factories is at least \$180 a year. They compared the average earnings of eleven classes of workers with this figure to show that rent eats up 30 per cent of the average annual earnings of all workers in factories in New York; 32 per cent in the case of clock and watch makers; 41 per cent in the case of

hosiery and knit goods workers; and as high as 45 per cent in the case of box makers.

Such rents as these, it was contended, make it necessary for people on small incomes to crowd into few rooms and take lodgers; for scrubwomen and seamstresses to spend for shelter what they need for food; for young children to go to work instead of to school; for consumptives to go back to work before they are able, and for working people to strike for higher wages. A three room apartment, such as would rent in different sections of the city for from \$11 to \$16 per month, was reproduced in one corner of the hall. This was made to serve two purposes. The interior was darkened so as to show the conditions permitted by the tenement house law in rooms that are technically light—a plea for standards of daylight as well as cubic space and openings to the outer air. This apartment was equipped with new furniture, cooking utensils, stove, chinaware, etc., costing \$87.73, or about one-half of the annual rental of the apartment. In other words, such a family has to spend for rent each year twice over the total value of its household belongings.

One cartoon showed a stork bearing a child about to light on the roof of a shack. The father is leaning out of the window exclaiming, "How can I pay the rent?" A second figure, personifying land ownership, rubs his hands, saying, "That means \$800 a year more in land values for me." The drawing, at first sight, looks far fetched. The point of the words put in the landowner's mouth is, of course, that if you divide the increase in land values in New York in recent years by the increase in people, you get \$800. And the father's remark turns out to be a translation by the cartoonist of a passage contained in the 1908 report of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. This read:

"It is well known among social workers that the birth of a child is a serious menace to the prosperity of the ordinary day laborer's family, and that in the case of the unskilled poor in our great cities the birth of a second or third child even in prosperous times often brings disaster to the home."

Below this quotation the congestion committee asked: "Must we cut the babies out, or shall we get rents reduced so that the birth of a child is not a tragedy?"

How charitable relief by itself falls short of meeting the situation was the theme of other placards. Indeed, a sprightly unexpectedness was lent to panel after panel by the liberties taken with photographs and statements of philanthropic bodies. The outgivings of housing committees, tuberculosis dispensaries and relief societies were grist to the tax reformers' mill.



On one placard, for example, was pinned a genuine letter of appeal, which recited under the letter-head of a well-known organization that Mrs. D., who had four small children and no husband, was sick. Ten dollars a week, it was explained, was wanted for the woman until she could go to work, and five dollars thereafter until her oldest boy could help her. Four hundred dollars, it was declared in the letter, would be ample, and all of this, it was added, would be used for the rehabilitation of the family. The committee's caustic comment on this was as follows:

"If this \$400 is expended thus: \$10 a week for 10 weeks and \$5 for 60 weeks—the rental for the 70 weeks will be about \$140. Does this sum go for rehabilitation or for exorbitant rents?"

#### DO SWELLING LAND VALUES BELONG TO THE COMMUNITY?

There is general agreement as to the existence of high rents and the evils of congestion in New York, but when it came to analyzing causes and offering remedies, the committee was entering controversial ground. It contended:

"The chief reason for the high rents is the fact that buildings are taxed at the same rate as land values. This discourages the natural construction of buildings, and encourages the holding of land out of use for the speculative increase in the value, chiefly due to the presence and the industry of the city's population."

The committee's further way of putting this was to say that a tax on buildings is substantially a fine on buildings. For example, for replacing

an old dark room tenement, assessed for \$5,000, by a healthful tenement assessed for \$30,000, the fine is \$457. For constructing a factory assessed for \$50,000 the fine is \$915. For building a \$3,000 home the fine is \$54.90.

To demonstrate that large quantities of land actually are being held in an unimproved condition, the committee gave some interesting figures. In Manhattan, it declared, out of a total of 94,496 parcels of land 7,622 are being held without improvements. These 7,622 parcels have a valuation of \$169,793,000. In the Bronx, out of a total of 63,047 parcels, 32,016 are vacant. Their value is \$135,496,508. In Richmond, out of a total of 31,443 parcels, 17,531 are vacant. Their value is \$13,831,037. The 79,681 vacant parcels in Queens, out of a total of 126,065, are valued at \$142,722,081. In Brooklyn 49,144 parcels are vacant out of a total of 206,279, and their value is \$161,892,217.

To support its contention that swelling land values in the cities are created principally by the mere presence and labor of the people who make up the population, the committee quoted from the *New York World* for October 18, 1912. The *World* reported the recent sale of a piece of land on Wall Street at the rate of \$25,000,000 per acre; another parcel at the corner of Broadway and Sixth Avenue sold at the rate of \$16,000,000 an acre; and a third, at the corner of Broadway and 34th Street, at the rate of \$38,000,000 per acre.

From insisting that such values as these are largely socially created values, the placards passed on to the contention that in mere justice a greater percentage of those values ought to be







A JOY RIDE

A cartoon shown at the New York Lower Rents Exhibit

restored to their creators, the people of the city. It was pointed out that in 1912 the ground rental of land in Manhattan, at 6 per cent of its assessed value, would be \$187,663,148. The community secured from taxes on this land \$57,239,700, or less than one-third that sum.

How to get more of this value for the people was the main propaganda of the exhibit. The recommendation was that the tax rate on buildings be reduced and that on land increased. This is the aim of the Salant-Schaap bill now before the New York legislature. The specific proposal of this measure is that the tax rate on all buildings in New York city shall be gradually reduced to one-half the tax rate on land. This is to be brought about by five equal reductions in five consecutive years, beginning in 1914, provided the measure be approved by a majority of the votes cast on a referendum in a municipal election this fall. It is the contention of the committee that the Salant-Schaap bill will compel land owners in greater New York to pay \$20,000,000 a year more in taxes than the \$83,000,000 now derived from that source. Students of taxation are fairly agreed that it is much less easy to shift land taxes onto the tenant than it is to shift building taxes. Further, that the owners of buildings would pay smaller taxes, and could afford to charge less rent, owners of vacant land would throw it into the market rather than hold it speculatively, and the competition of new structures would at least keep the rents of existing buildings stationary and open many new buildings, and so relieve congestion. In bringing the figures down to terms familiar to the average tenant's pocketbook, the exhibitors went so far as to prophesy that if the Salant-Schaap bill goes through, the referendum carries, and the five-year reductions are made,

every tenant in New York will be saved at least a month's rent a year, nearly every owner of a small home will be saved from one-sixth to one-tenth of his taxes and most owners of factories will be saved an eighth to a tenth of their taxes.

As a final warning to those who had made the round of the four walls, the exhibitors evidently took a leaf out of Mr. Bryan's famous 16-to-1 speech. A monumental cross, nine feet high, bears this inscription:

"Sacred to the memory of New York's martyred men, women and children, unnumbered and unknown, who are taxed to death every year to save land owners from paying their share of taxes."

Here, then, as in the tariff agitation, a question of personal morals is thrust into the discussion of the fiscal system. By chance it was in this same building that, before the November elections, the Wilson Campaign Committee conducted its chamber of horrors; and by a coincidence Benjamin C. Marsh, the executive secretary of the Congestion Committee, was in charge of it. Not only the real estate interests, but various public bodies are opposed to halving the tax rates on buildings, either in principle or as a practical measure. The most frequent criticism made is that it is a thin veneer for the single tax; the most serious that it will not break up congestion or improve conditions for the small home owner or the wage-earning tenant. These critics have yet, however, to resort to an exhibit to put their opposition in terms that all who run may read. Meanwhile, Mr. Marsh's show, which goes from Manhattan to Brooklyn and the Bronx, is shrewdly calculated to catch the eye of those who walk and hang on straps, rather than those who run six-cylinder cars.

#### VOCATIONAL EDUCATION MEASURES IN ILLINOIS

Vocational education, long a matter of national importance, is rapidly becoming one of popular interest. Witness the intense discussion that has been going on for six months in Illinois, where parents, educators, bankers, merchants and manufacturers have carried on a fight by press, pamphlet and report that has attracted the attention of interested persons throughout the country. The first rumblings of the battle were heard three years ago. Since then investigation has been added to investigation and at least one trip has been made to Europe to bring back the lessons of foreign experience. It wasn't long before the public began to see that such recondite phrases as "part time plan," "continuation schools" and "dual control" really had to do with the vital question of how the citizenship of the future should be trained to meet the de-



mands that will be put upon it. The Chicago *Tribune* ran a series of articles by leading educators and social workers dealing with the various plans proposed, and the *Record-Herald* sent a man to Madison to study the workings of the Wisconsin experiment.

Almost from the first interest centered around the question whether the new education should be incorporated in the present public school system, under the same control as the elementary curriculum, or whether it should be granted separate schools and independent control. Three bills, representing three interested groups, were put into the field. These were taken into a series of conferences and in January one bill came out. This measure, known as the "conference bill" is now before the legislature. One other measure may be introduced. The two bills reflect the two points of view with regard to "control."

Up to the present time so little has actually been achieved in establishing vocational education that plans now adopted are likely to exert great influence on future development. Close attention is being paid, therefore, to the progress of events in Illinois. In 1909 and 1910 reports were made on some phase of vocational or industrial education or committees were appointed to study the question by the Chicago Association of Commerce, the Commercial Club, the City Club and the Illinois Bankers' Association. Perhaps nothing indicates more clearly the status of vocational education in Illinois at that time than the following quotation from the report of the Illinois Educational Commission, made early in 1911:

"The commission regards the whole question of industrial and vocational training as in such nebulous condition that it does not feel that any definite recommendation concerning it as it applies to the public schools of the state can be made without a painstaking and thorough investigation of the whole subject."

## TWO BILLS AND WHAT THEY MEAN

In the winter of 1911 and the spring of 1912 the matter of securing state legislation for vocational education was brought gradually to public attention. At a conference held under the auspices of the Illinois Bankers' Committee, to which the state teachers' association and others were invited, a committee was appointed to draft a bill. It was understood that this bill would ask for state aid for vocational education which should be given under the direction of the regular school authorities, and should foster impartially agriculture, commerce, and the domestic and industrial arts. The apparent purpose of the measure finally drawn was the promotion of manual training, agriculture and domes-

tic science, rather than the inauguration of specific vocational training.

Meanwhile the Commercial Club and the City Club had prepared bills embodying their views. The Bankers' Committee now enlarged its conference and invited representatives of several bodies, among them the commercial and city clubs, to consider the three bills together. A committee was appointed to draft a new measure. The chairman of the committee was the president of the University of Illinois and the commercial and city clubs were represented in its membership. After several committee meetings and two full conferences the bill known as the Conference Vocational Education Bill was adopted. This was in January of this year.

Notwithstanding that this measure was drafted by a committee in which the Commercial Club was represented, it is probable that that organization will insist on presenting its bill also to the legislature. In brief, the latter bill proposes a system of supplemental schools for children who have left the present system. These schools are to be supported by a special tax, one-half local and one-half state, and are to be administered by a separate state and a separate local board. The report which accompanied the bill recommends the German system of vocational education and urges it as the only adequate means of securing real vocational training. It says also on this point:

"It is plainly impossible to provide in the present system of elementary and secondary schools the instruction recommended. Separate schools are necessary whose equipment, corps of teachers, and board of administration must be in the closest possible relation to the occupations. In such schools the applications of general education to vocational work can be made only by men who know the vocations."

The "Conference Bill" provides state aid to any school district maintaining vocational or prevocational courses in agriculture, commerce, or in the domestic or industrial arts. Provocational courses may be maintained in connection with the regular program of studies in the elementary or high schools, and vocational courses may be so conducted or may be organized in separate schools or departments of schools. The bill further provides that, while the vocational work is to be administered by the regular school board, no state aid can be received without the approval of a local Committee on Vocational Education, appointed by the Board of Education. Among other duties this committee is charged with formulating and recommending to the Board of Education rules and regulations for the conduct of such schools or departments as, under the act, are entitled to state aid.

It will thus be seen that the former of these bills is specific, relatively narrow in scope, but



consistent throughout. The program which it proposes could, its enemies admit, be carried out effectively. Its advocates say that it is intended to leave the present school system *untouched*. Its opponents declare that this is no credit to it because the regular schools *need* the regenerating influence of specific vocational purpose and method.

The "Conference Bill" is more general and attempts an improvement in the present school organization. If effectively carried out it is believed that it would have a profound effect on public education. That it can thus be effectively administered, its opponents claim to be extremely doubtful, because of the inability and disinclination of school men in general to work out the many problems incident to the establishment of genuine vocational courses.

### THE AWAKENING OF THE PEOPLE

The discussion of the several measures has been marked occasionally by personalities which have prejudiced judgment and obscured the real issues, but there has also been thoughtful effort to present with fairness all sides of a complicated question. A strong popular interest has been aroused not only in vocational education but in the whole school system. Whether the "dual" or the "unit" party as they are called will develop the greater strength, few at this time feel qualified to predict. Few organizations have formally approved the dual system, though it has the support of many able and respected individuals. On the other hand, letters received by the state superintendent of public instruction, who has had a heavier correspondence on this matter than on any other single question, have almost invariably protested against the "dual" system. They have come from all parts of the state and have represented many different kinds of bodies. This is taken by many persons to indicate that the people of Illinois are inclined to repudiate the assertion that the school system cannot be developed so as to meet any and all demands which an evolving social and industrial order may make upon it for the good of the whole people.

The "Conference Bill" is in the hands of the Senate Committee on Education, not having been introduced into the House. It is felt generally that there is little chance of any legislation unless the two factions get together.

There seems little doubt about the attitude of the teachers. The Illinois State Teachers' Association in December, 1912, passed the following resolution:

"That vocational education should be so administered as to maintain the unity of the public school system."

### FRIEDMANN'S CURE FOR TUBERCULOSIS

While all eyes are turned toward Dr. Friedmann's widely heralded cure for tuberculosis, the disease recognizes no armistice and is steadily advancing. This is not the time for the forces arrayed against the white plague to mark time, declares the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. The Executive Committee of the association emphatically pointed out this danger when some Ohio legislators wanted to halt the public tuberculosis campaign in that state until they ascertained the value of Dr. Friedmann's treatment.

The plan of the same legislators to appropriate state money for an investigation of the treatment was characterized as a "sheer waste." "If there is any value in the treatment, it will be determined by the United States Public Health Service investigation," the committee declared in a telegram sent to the supporters of pending tuberculosis legislation in Ohio. The message also expressed the hope

"that the bills now before the Ohio legislature, providing for adequate supervision of tuberculosis by the state board of health and for extension of hospital provision, visiting nursing, and education, will be enacted into law, and that no ill-advised temporary excitement will obstruct the progress of the campaign in Ohio which is proceeding on sound lines and in the only way which promises success in the future."

This may be assumed to be a message which the association would send to all communities where a similar situation exists. The official organ of the association, *The Journal of the Outdoor Life*, denounces the "abuse of publicity" by a syndicate which has

"flooded the country, and particularly the west, with extravagant accounts of the 'cures' accomplished in Berlin and which the most casual investigation shows to be still open to question. . . . There is no worse cruelty than to rouse false hopes in the army of struggling sick, and that bitter disappointment awaits thousands of eager sufferers is the strong probability in the present instance."

In New York, meanwhile, the Board of Health has refused him permission to treat patients in the hospitals under its jurisdiction. The unofficial explanation given for the step was that Dr. Friedmann has not yet promised to furnish the details necessary to a bacteriologist. These details were furnished by Ehrlich, Behring and Koch. Dr. Lederle, commissioner of health, has stated, however, that the board will make certain tests of the sample of his vaccine which Dr. Friedmann has turned over to it. The Federal Public Health Service will do the same.



## LABOR AND THE SHERMAN LAW

Since the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Danbury hatters' case, organized labor has been in fear of the Sherman Law. In that case the court held that the boycott conducted by the hatters was an act in restraint of trade, and mulcted the union in triple damages. At the recent Rochester convention of the American Federation of Labor speakers asserted that the decision put the treasuries of all labor organizations in jeopardy and pointed to the fact that the United Mine Workers were being sued for \$750,000 under the Sherman Law. Several attempts have been made to get a bill through Congress exempting from the operation of that law labor unions and organizations of farmers. These have failed, however, and of late organized labor has been endeavoring to secure indirectly what it has failed to accomplish by specific legislation.

One of the last official acts of William H. Taft as President of the United States was the veto of the sundry civil appropriation bill, involving \$113,000,000. Of this sum \$300,000 was apportioned to the department of justice to use in prosecuting violations of the anti-trust law, but a rider had been attached providing that no part of this sum could be used in suits against organizations of working men or of farmers. The President vetoed the bill, criticising this particular feature of it as "class legislation."

Three years ago the matter came to the fore in exactly the same way. An amendment was attached to the sundry civil bill prohibiting the use of any part of the appropriation by the department of justice in the prosecution of organizations whose objects were to increase wages, shorten hours, or better the conditions of labor. It became known that the President was opposed to this measure. The Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen happened to be in annual convention at just this time, and under instructions from the convention President Carter sent a letter of protest to the President. Mr. Taft's reply states his objections to the rider. A part of his letter follows:

"I am entirely opposed to such class legislation. If it was proposed to amend the language of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law itself so as somewhat to narrow its scope, that would present a proper question for consideration, but so long as the present anti-trust law remains upon the statute books, an attempt to modify its enforcement so as to render immune any class of persons, rich or poor, employers or employes, is improper legislation, and in my judgment ought to be opposed by your brotherhood. The laboring man and the trade unionist, if I understand him, asks only equality before the law. Class legislation and unequal privilege, though

expressly in his favor, will in the end work no benefit to him or to society."

The New York *Evening Post*, commenting on this year's attempt to exempt labor unions from the operation of the Anti-Trust Law, declares that "if the thing is to be done, there is just one regular and honest way to do it, and that is by amending the Anti-Trust Act so as specially to exempt labor unions and farmers' organizations." This attempt to accomplish indirectly the same end, says the *Evening Post*, "has now been blocked by Mr. Taft, and the question will be among the troublesome ones put over to the new administration. It will, however, require only courage and straightforwardness on President Wilson's part to deal with it satisfactorily."

## RECONSTRUCTING A PROBATION SERVICE

Exceptional attention has been given to the examinations for the position of probation officer of the Juvenile Court of Chicago, the results of which have just been announced by Judge Pinckney.<sup>1</sup> The decisions of the state Supreme Court, which excluded probation officers from the application of the civil service law, left their appointment in the hands of the circuit judges. They delegated the duty to Judge Merritt W. Pinckney. To assist him in examining the applicants, he appointed an advisory committee consisting of Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen; Sherman C. Kingsley; Rev. Father Quille; Mrs. T. J. Meder, president of the Federation of Catholic Women's Charities; and Dr. Emil G. Hirsch of Sinai Temple.

Sixteen applicants entered the competition for the position of chief probation officer. At the head of the list stood Joel DuBois Hunter, who for six years resided at Chicago Commons. He was at once appointed to fill the office.

Over three quarters of a thousand people competed for appointments as probation officers. Only 149 of these passed the written examination, and but eighty the oral test. Of the sixteen appointments already announced for the thirty-eight vacancies, nearly all had been in some form of philanthropic work. In the order of their standing the list includes a truant officer; a probation officer; a visiting housekeeper; a Jewish Aid Society worker; a United Charities employee; a colored woman student at the School of Civics and Philanthropy, who came from Fisk University and has worked with the Juvenile Protective Association; an adult probation officer; an agent for the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society; and another probation officer from Springfield, Ill., who also graduated from the Chicago School of Civics.

<sup>1</sup>See Probation and Politics, THE SURVEY, March 30, 1912.



## INTERSTATE CONFERENCE TO FIX MILK STANDARDS

State Control of the Milk Industry and Bovine Tuberculosis were discussed at a conference recently held under the auspices of the New York Milk Committee at the New York Academy of Medicine. The conference was composed of delegates appointed by the governors of the New England and Middle States, representatives of the Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service, the Federal Bureau of Animal Industry, state anti-tuberculosis organizations, and officials of the health departments of several of the larger cities which receive interstate shipments of milk.

At the request of the committee each governor sent three delegates, representing respectively the state Health Board, the State Agricultural Department or Cattle Bureau, and the dairy interests of the state. The committee stated in its letter to the governors that several of the New England and Middle States are actively considering bills for the better control of dairy inspection; that the interests of the consuming public in this group of commonwealths are identical, and that a greater uniformity in the laws is needed.

The milk for Boston's morning cup of coffee comes from all of the New England states and from New York; New York city secures its supply from New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Vermont, Massachusetts and Connecticut, while Philadelphia draws upon Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New York and New Jersey. It was further urged by the committee that the imposing of restrictions in one state which are more severe than those of its neighbor causes the latter to become a dumping ground for bad milk.

This move to further a more complete control of the milk industry is an indirect outcome of the appointment in 1911 by the milk committee of a national commission on milk standards. The findings of this body were published by the national government in the Public Health Reports (May 10, 1912), and have been made the basis for a great deal of the milk reform agitation during the past year.

A day each was devoted by the conference to the consideration of state control of the milk industry and of bovine tuberculosis. This program was planned to provoke discussion of the committee's plan for uniform state legislation fixing milk standards. The delegates approved of most of the propositions presented by the committee and agreed that the resolutions adopted at the conference should be made the basis for future legislation. The more important resolutions in substance were as follows:

That the inspection of dairy farms should be under the supervision of the state authorities;

That the state control of the dairy inspection should be centralized in the Department of Agriculture or the department having jurisdiction over live stock;

That it should be the function of the State Department of Agriculture, or department having jurisdiction over live stock, to perform the following work: Veterinary inspection of dairy cattle, including physical examination and tuberculin tests, sanitary inspection of dairy barns and their surroundings, water supply, drainage systems, etc.;

That the following work should be performed by the State Department of Health: Medical inspection of dairy employes and milk handlers at creamery and shipping stations; sanitary inspection of human dwellings, water supply, drainage systems, milk houses, shipping stations, factories, etc., and laboratory tests of milk;

That the control of local milk supply by municipal and town boards of health should include such duties as the issuance and revocation of licenses of local distributors, classification and labeling of milk, inspection of all places where milk is handled and sold, and the making of laboratory tests to determine the efficiency of pasteurizing machines and methods;

That it is unnecessary and inadvisable to demand the destruction of cattle reacting to the tuberculin unless they show signs of generalized tuberculosis, and finally;

That the dairy products from such cattle as react but do not show signs of tuberculosis on physical examination should be subjected to such measures as will render their products safe for the food of man or animal.

## CENTRAL COUNCILS FOR LARGE CITIES

Chicago is the first city of over a million people to consider a central council of social agencies. The subject was discussed at the meeting of the Social Service Club on January 20. The speakers were Eugene T. Lies, general superintendent of the Chicago United Charities; W. C. Cross, secretary of the Missouri State Board of Charities; and Francis H. McLean, general secretary of the American Association for Organizing Charities.

It was granted by those present that the need of an organization to bring about a constructive unity in the social work of private agencies, was just as necessary in Chicago as in a smaller place. It was further urged by the speakers that the business men of the city because of the hap-hazard individualism which now permits anyone to undertake a new work even if inopportune might rush into some narrow scheme of financial federation calculated to handicap development under present conditions. It was agreed that if a central council should be developed, it would probably have to be on a group plan, a delegate from each group of societies serving on the central committee.



## NEW TYPE OF RURAL SCHOOL

BOOKER T. WASHINGTON

In many sections of the South, the parents of rural Negro children are ignorant ex-slave folk whose lives have been spent entirely on farms. They know nothing of intelligent cooking or proper housekeeping, nothing of the rules of health. Broken chairs, floors with holes in them, broken windows, leaky roofs, ragged and



unwashed bedding, soiled dishes and table linen—these are the home surroundings of many of these children from infancy.

In view of these conditions, it early became clear to us at Tuskegee that if we really wished to dovetail school work into the real life of the people as a factor in their uplift, something more than the abstract teaching of cube root and verb conjugation should be offered in the class room.

In Macon County, Alabama, a plan is being carried out which seems a good solution of this problem. It was decided that, to be of the greatest service to the child, to combat his environment, not only a special class room should be provided but everything surrounding the child should serve to instruct. As an experiment we constructed a building on the order of our southern cottages, containing rooms for a family and, in addition, a large assembly room. A family, in which both parents were teachers, were obtained to live in the building. It was made clear to them that every room in the house and every thing about the house should serve as an object lesson; that front yard, back yard, stable,

horse, cow, garden and the little farm adjoining should have their place in the day's schedule of teaching.

Dining room, kitchen, and bedroom are used daily in teaching these children the different phases of housekeeping, they actually doing the work. The girls of a certain grade take turns at the cooking. They come to the cottage in time to prepare the morning meal for the teachers and family. This is properly served in the dining room which has been set in order by another group of little girls—the aim being that all shall learn the best methods of service. The pupils set the bed-rooms in order and look after the small children of the teachers. All this is done under the vigilant eye of the mother teacher, who is thoroughly competent, having been trained at Tuskegee Institute, mastering trades as well as academic work. The girls in the

higher classes are taught cooking, but all the girls receive instruction in gardening, housecleaning and sewing.

The boys come directly under the eye of the man of the house. They care for the small farm, the stock, yards and garden and do in addition a certain amount of farm carpentry. These are all real lessons with practi-



### RIISING STAR SCHOOL

Top picture shows school before improvement; center, school after remodelling. Bottom view, a domestic science class.



cal demonstrations quite as thoroughly explained as the black board exercises in the class room. We call it the Model School, meaning not that it is a model to any other school, but that everything in it and about it is a model to the girls and boys who attend.

A double purpose is served in the Model School. It fits the child for life in the community in which he lives and it affords material to give life to the exercises in his text books. The boy not only constructs the fence, but he figures out its cost—cost of nails, lumber, time—a live exercise in arithmetic. In his grammar lesson he uses words suggested by his



fence and writes short compositions on his work.

The same is true of the girl in the work of cooking, bed-making and table-setting. The tasks are done and then used to demonstrate the lessons in books. This gives real interest to the classroom work as both teachers and children feel that they are writing, talking and figuring on actual things.

To keep up interest in the school we frequently invite the parents to be present. They are made to feel that the school is a center for their activities. They become interested themselves, because their children in learning useful things are doing work that the parents understand and appreciate. They go home with information about cotton, corn, winter greens; about the care of live stock and soil. They gain some idea about washing dishes, setting table and putting a room in order.

The effect of the idea embodied in this school has been highly gratifying. A new light has come into the community which shows in the faces of many of the hard-headed old black folk, who used to be none too enthusiastic about education. The change is only in process, of course, but there are fewer rags in the windows of the community, fewer tumble-down fences. This training has taken nothing from the "book learning" of these children's education. Their teaching is thorough. In the Model School they complete the sixth grade, being admitted by certificate to the corresponding class in Tuskegee Institute. Some, preferring to take a written test, have made the next higher class. With this double training of mind and hand the children of this community are brighter and happier and are doing much to add sweetness and contentment to rural life.

## SOCIAL HYMNS WANTED

In response to Dr. Patten's editorial on the poetic expression of the social movement, *THE SURVEY* has received the following. Verses are still coming in and more are desired. Dr. Patten plans some general treatment of the subject when sufficient material is in hand.

TITLE	CORRESPONDENT
A communication .....	Fritz Tauber.
Humanity .....	Sarah Martyn Wright.
America Triumphant .....	John Haynes Holmes.
A Hymn of Justice.....	
The City of the Light, by Dr. Felix Adler.....	Dr. Henry Neumann.
America the Beautiful, by Prof. Katharine Lee Bates of Wellesley.....	Kate E. Putnam. Marion Pelton Guild.
The American .....	George E. Day.
Praise Service .....	O. D. Ehlers.
O God, Save Thy People, by Ebenezer Elliott.....	Frederic Almy.
Motherhood .....	
Today's Prometheus Bound .....	Isabel Kimball Whiting.
Peace Gifts .....	

TITLE	CORRESPONDENT
The Children's City.....	Rev. Charles O. Greshaber.
Thy Kingdom Come.....	James E. Clarke.
O Brother Christ.....	Ross W. Sanderson.
To a Trained Social Worker.....	E. H. I.
Verses .....	Rhea A. Smith.
Marching Song of Brother- hood .....	Margaret Sewall.
Oh, Hark for the Hour is Coming, (author unknown).....	Allan Robinson.
A World of Loving Men.....	Christopher Ruess.
Progress .....	
The Children of the Snow.....	H. A. Brandt.
Ultima Thule .....	
Ode to Social Justice.....	S. P. Quigley.
Ode to the Nation.....	S. E. Howard, M.D.
This Our Hymn of Grateful Praise, by Follitt S. Pierpoint.....	Ross L. Finney.
Poem on Child Labor.....	Emma D. Phillips.
Pilgrims .....	Mary Antoinette Cannon.
The Breath of Life.....	Francis McKinnon Morton.
Ode to Social Justice.....	
A Plea for and to Humanity.....	S. P. Quigley.
Prayer for Social Justice.....	
Song: It Seems to Me.....	

## EDITORIAL GRIST

### A HEALTH PROGRAM FOR NEW YORK STATE

WILLIAM H. ALLEN

Director Bureau of Municipal Research, New York

The political millennium is not so far away as we have been taught. At least its "rosy-fingered dawn" is here with assurance of a day that shall fulfill the promises of its early messengers.

My proof? The report of Governor William Sulzer's "special commission to collect facts, receive suggestions and make recommendations as to changes in the public health laws and their administration" for New York state.

Important enough for its statements of fact and its recommendations, this report is bound to have nation-wide by-products in new kinds of social service by state health and school departments; new conservation activities by rural districts; new direction for volunteer social service; and new ways of fulfilling pledges, making friends and disarming enemies by governors and other public officers.

Here in this report we have the most notable single program as yet enunciated by Governor Sulzer. It was drafted by a special commission—not merely non-partisan but *other-partisan!* Had a chairman been sought to excel in non-partisanship, none better could have been found than Dr. H. M. Biggs, whose professional and personal associates never think of him as having even party knowledge. Had a Democratic governor sought a secretary and assistant secretary to excel in opposition to Tammanyism and to old style and new style Democratism, he could



hardly have found more ardent Bull Moosers than Homer Folks and John A. Kingsbury, known first, however, to New York state as enemies of disease and maladjusted industry and government. M. Adelaide Nutting as a representative of the nurses, Ansley Willcox and Doctors E. R. Baldwin, W. E. Milbank and John C. Otis complete the commission.

Appointed January 10, the commission reported in part on February 15. In the meantime it held ten public hearings, received suggestions and information from sixty persons, wrote 836 typewritten pages of testimony, communicated with 1,033 health officers in 1,435 towns and villages, analyzed replies from 652 health officers, addressed forty-eight municipal health authorities, and analyzed the replies from twenty-eight.

This is the governor's summary of the special commission's recommendations:

1. That the tenure and compensation of the state health commissioner be such as to secure and retain the most efficient man in the state for that service, and that he be required to devote substantially his entire time to his official duties.
2. That a public health council be established with power to adopt sanitary regulations
3. That the state commissioner of health exercise supervision over local health authorities and be specifically charged with the enforcement of the public health law
4. That the state, outside of New York city, be divided into at least twenty sanitary districts with an expert sanitary supervisor in each devoting full time to health work
5. That the duties of town and village health boards otherwise provided for be transferred to town boards and village boards of trustees
6. That health officers of towns and villages receive an annual minimum salary equivalent to at least fifteen cents per inhabitant of the village or town
7. That health officers of towns and villages be charged with the following duties: (1) Annual survey and a continuous supervision of their districts; (2) examination of all school children; (3) inspection of all school buildings and places of popular assemblage; (4) popular education as to public health; (5) securing full registration of communicable diseases and of births and deaths; (6) enforcement of public health laws and regulations
8. The enactment of a modern statute for birth registration and other vital statistics
9. Authority for each city, county, village and town to employ trained nurses, as infant welfare nurses, school nurses, tuberculosis nurses, and to visit the sick

10. That the tuberculosis law be amended so as to provide (1) for more complete reporting of cases; (2) for supervision of reported cases by trained nurses; (3) for compulsory removal and detention of dangerous cases
11. Additional state provision for incipient cases of pulmonary tuberculosis
12. That a bureau of child hygiene, and a bureau of public health nursing, be added to the state department of health
13. County hospitals for tuberculosis where not already established
14. Adequate laboratory facilities readily available for all health authorities
15. Establishment of contagious disease hospitals by local authorities, and their inspection by the state health department
16. Regulation of midwifery
17. Reports of health officers made presumptive evidence of facts stated
18. Extension of educational work of the state department of health
19. Encouragement of courses in sanitary science in educational institutions

Omit the name New York and these nineteen recommendations would with one or two exceptions fit almost any state. There is still time to have your governor propose them for your state. Similarly the findings upon which the recommendations are based accurately describe conditions in most states although it is only fair to many of our smaller states to confess that especially in its educational work the New York Health Department is not only behind the best but probably below the average.

May I confess to a slight disappointment because (1) the city of New York is specifically exempted from the supervision of the proposed State Department of Health; (2) because the commission has not recommended the transfer of the quarantine service from New York state to the United States government and the consequent release of almost as much money as it would require to carry out all the recommendations including treatment of tuberculosis; (3) because the physical examination of school children is placed with health officers rather than with school officers in the smaller communities; (4) because \$10,000 is suggested as necessary to "secure a physician or recognized authority in public health work"; (5) because the relation of the state health service to clean milk is not quite clear; (6) because the report seems to concede, what facts actually disprove, that without any reorganization and with its present powers New York's state health office could have accomplished vastly more by way of health promotion and education?



## THE NEW ADMINISTRATION

Both the President's inaugural address, voicing as it does the spirit of the new administration, and the personnel of his cabinet, the ten men who, above all others, he must count upon to translate that spirit into action, are of unusual concern to all those at work for social advance.

The inaugural address deals only in the broadest terms with the sphere of legislative effort, but there is no mistaking its vivid characterization of evils, its appeal to the sense of justice and right with which the nation started, and its plea for a mustering of the forces of humanity and of "all honest men, all patriotic, all forward-looking men."

Says the President:

"We have been proud of our industrial achievements, but we have not hitherto stopped thoughtfully enough to count the human cost, the cost of lives snuffed out, of energies overtaxed and broken, the fearful physical and spiritual cost to the men and women and children upon whom the dead weight and burden of it all has fallen pitilessly the years through. The groans and agony of it all had not yet reached our ears, the solemn, moving undertone of our life, coming up out of the mines and factories and out of every home where the struggle had its intimate and familiar seat."

The changed conditions of our national life, the effort to get our bearings anew, and to steer our course accordingly are pointed out:

"No one can mistake the purpose for which the nation now seeks to use the Democratic Party. It seeks to use it to interpret a change in its own plans and point of view. Some old things with which we had grown familiar, and which had begun to creep into the very habit of our thought and of our lives, have altered their aspect as we have latterly looked critically upon them, with fresh awakened eyes; have dropped their disguises and shown themselves alien and sinister. Some new things, as we look frankly upon them, willing to comprehend their real character, have come to assume the aspect of things long believed in and familiar, stuff of our own convictions. We have been refreshed by a new insight into our own life."

Service of the people through government is emphasized as the great new task which we are only beginning to set ourselves to work out:

"Nor have we studied and perfected the means by which government may be put at the service of humanity, in safeguarding the health of the nation, the health of its men and its women and its children, as well as their rights in the struggle for existence. This is no sentimental duty. The firm basis of government is justice, not pity. These are matters of justice. There can be no equality of opportunity, the first essential of

justice in the body politic, if men and women and children be not shielded in their lives, their very vitality, from the consequences of great industrial and social processes which they cannot alter, control, or singly cope with. Society must see to it that it does not itself crush or weaken or damage its own constituent parts."

The newer righteousness is proclaimed in these words:

"Justice, and only justice, shall always be our motto.

"And yet it will be no cool process of mere science. The nation has been deeply stirred, stirred by a solemn passion, stirred by the knowledge of wrong, of ideals lost, of government too often debauched and made an instrument of evil."

And a stirring call for support and service rings out in the last paragraph:

"This is not a day of triumph; it is a day of dedication. Here muster, not the forces of party, but the forces of humanity. Men's hearts wait upon us; men's lives hang in the balance; men's hopes call upon us to say what we will do. Who shall live up to the great trust? Who dares fail to try? I summon all honest men, all patriotic, all forward-looking men, to my side. God helping me, I will not fail them, if they will but counsel and sustain me!"

If the new administration is a gauge of the temper of the American people, the watch-words with which isolated men and women have been heartening each other in the slow task of social reconstruction, and interpreting of the "solemn, moving undertone" of the life about them, have become the shibboleths of an epoch of internal statesmanship.

The general feeling among social workers is that individually and as a body the new cabinet may be counted upon to be progressive in its attitude toward social measures,—Bryan, whose sympathy with the common needs and aspirations of the great mass of plain folk has never been clouded by his elevation to leadership, nor embittered by disagreement with his policies; McAdoo, who not only outwitted the engineers of New York by tunnelling the Hudson, but gave a new slogan for public service corporations—"The public be pleased"; Lane, who brings a record of independence and force on the Interstate Commerce Commission to the portfolio of the Interior Department, to which Walter L. Fisher has rendered such aggressively efficient service; McReynolds, who has been associated with Mr. Wickersham in an administration which has not only set a new standard of trust prosecution, but has shown social perspective in its attitude toward white slavery, the treatment of federal prisoners, etc.; Houston, who brings the training of a political economist to the Depart-



ment of Agriculture; Garrison, who is hailed by the peace advocates who did not want a militarist at the head of the War Department—and so on to the end of the list.

The one unexplained gap is the absence of Louis D. Brandeis of Boston, whose name had been on the anticipatory lists until just before the inauguration. If the size of a man is to be gauged by the enemies he makes, the antagonism at this juncture of the interests—professional, political, business—which Mr. Brandeis has fought in his campaigns as “attorney for the people,” was a rare tribute to the man. His absence is the question mark which social workers have put over the Wilson administration, until the broad terms of the inaugural address are translated into action.

Social workers are, of course, especially interested in the change whereby the former Department of Commerce and Labor has now become two departments, and in the men selected to head them. The new secretary of commerce, Mr. Redfield, is a manufacturer known not only as an indefatigable free trader but for his breadth of view, his cordial relations with employees and his optimistic vision in the field of labor conditions. Work in his plant has meant livelihood—not for a day or a decade, but for a lifetime—for scores of men; there have been few managers so outspoken and vigorous in asserting that low labor costs and progressive labor conditions go hand in hand.

The new Department of Labor, which is composed of four bureaus heretofore in other departments—the Bureau of Labor, Bureau of Immigration, Children's Bureau, and Bureau of Naturalization, has for its first secretary William B. Wilson, author of the bill creating the department. Particular interest attaches to the fact that he went to work as a miner at the age of nine and served as secretary of the United Mine Workers of America at the time when John Mitchell was president of the organization and thus served during the great anthracite strike of 1902. Mr. Wilson was chairman of the House Committee on Labor of the Congress just closed—a session in which with the new Democratic backing, more labor legislation was passed than for years preceding. Among these measures are the “phossy jaw” act, the extension of workmen's compensation, the creation of the Commission on Industrial Relations, and the eight-hour law for government contract work.

One of the first acts of the new President—undoubtedly with the cordial desire of the new secretary—has been the reappointment of Commissioner Charles P. Neill who will head the new Bureau of Labor Statistics and resume his arbitration work under the Erdman Act.

## TREND

### PEBBLES

DENNIS A. MCCARTHY in the *Journal of Education*.

When you read about the trouble in the mine and in the mill,

When you read about the lockout and the strike;  
When dishonor and dishonesty your morning papers fill  
In a way no decent citizen can like;

Then there comes a strong temptation to have doubts  
about the nation,

And to fear some dark disaster in the fogs;  
But take heart, my honest fellow, don't you show a  
streak of yellow,

For this country is not going to the dogs!

When you read of rotten politics in city and in state,  
When you read of juggling justice on the bench;  
When the price of food makes leaner every day the poor  
man's plate,

When the social muck is making quite a stench;  
Then a man may fairly wonder if there hasn't, crime or  
blunder,

Been a monkey-wrench dropped in among the cogs;  
But a state of abject terror is a most colossal error,  
For this country is not going to the dogs!

For this good old ship, America, has weathered many a  
gale,

She has sailed thru many a thicker fog before,  
And her crew have learned the habit of not knowing how  
to fail,

Howsoever the stormy seas around may roar;  
She is staunch and stout and roomy, and tho seas and  
skies be gloomy,

Let us leave all coward croaking to the frogs,  
Let us face in manly fashion all the panic and the pas-  
sion,

For this country is not going to the dogs!

\* \* \*

“TIM” CALDWELL Co-operator is a true story of collective ownership by F. P. Stockbridge in the *World's Work*. He tells of Lakefield, Minn., and the man who is responsible for its being the “most completely co-operative community in the United States.” Practically all its rural needs are community owned.

\* \* \*

A FARM hand had worked in the field from dawn until darkness, doing the chores by lantern light. “I'm going to quit,” he said to the farmer, at the end of the month. “You promised me a steady job.”

“Well, haven't you got one?” was the astonished reply.

“No,” said the man; “there are three or four hours every night that I don't have anything to do, and fool away my time sleeping.”—*Western Architect and Builder*.

\* \* \*

SPENCER J. GIBB, writing in *The Child* (London) reviews the special perils of the working boy. These are economic waste in the dead end uneducational trades; forced maturity, which suppresses the spirit of boyhood, and substitutes knowingsness for the acquirement of knowledge; and physical overstrain, which stunts the immature body. He notes among the forms of physical strain to which the working boy is subjected the excessive amount of walking which many of them have to do, and gives one case where an office boy's record, kept on a pedometer for a week, showed that he averaged twenty-eight miles a day in the performance of his work.



To save from moral, mental and physical overstrain Mr. Gibb recommends protective labor legislation, vocational training with part time work up to seventeen years, and the furnishing of opportunities for club and social life.

\* \* \*

ONE by-product of the Lawrence Strike and the legal proceedings at Salem; the San Diego vigilantes; the jailing of Mayor Lunn of Schenectady and other like happenings has been an outpouring of verse in the radical press, for which religious and secular history have been rifled for analogies. Many have been crude; some have been of the sort not easily to be tossed aside. Of such, is *The Outcast* by Reginald Wright Kauffman in the *International Socialist Review*:

#### THE OUTCAST

They would not hear him. How they smiled  
That he, who talked with courtesans,  
Who said: "Be led as by a child,"  
Who supped with low-browed publicans.  
Should dare to preach! A hare-brained boor,  
A rustic in a city stew!  
They could not listen—that was sure—  
They could not listen then; can you?

And when he turned to violence,  
Assaulting brokers—men of peace—  
The priests themselves, in self-defense,  
Surrendered him to the police—  
A sweat-stained working-man to them,  
They jeered him up the hill of death:  
This carpenter of Bethlehem,  
Jesus, this chap from Nazareth.

What has been shall be; so today  
In strict accordance with the law  
We hoot the jay and turn to slay:  
We send our Christs to Golgotha;  
Where rotting hovels bring the rents,  
Where there is darkness and disgrace,  
Where there are "model tenements,"  
We keep the rascals in their place.

And so, in children bleached by toll,  
In working-women starved to shame,  
In farm-hands fettered to the soil,  
In trades you scarcely dare to name,  
In shop and office, mine and mill,  
With bloody brow and riven side,  
With hands that wrought your safety still  
Writhes Labor, crowned and crucified.

\* \* \*

A WRITER in *Men's Wear* attacks the "ink-raker" who in his opinion, has, of late, sought to "increase his circulation" by an attack on the department stores. He believes that such writers do more harm than good to the saleswomen they seek to befriend by misrepresenting the conditions under which they work. Says he:

When a magazine finds a merchant who transgresses morally, I am for the magazine dealing with him faithfully and fearlessly; and publicity such as they give it may serve a wholesome end, and as a warning for bad men.

But when the magazines seek to raise questions of economic responsibility, and rest their charges on unsound foundations; when they explain in language all too plain for young women to read that it is impossible to be good, for lack of a living wage, then are they damaging the cause they assume to serve. The most selfish man, the most greedy, as well as the most just merchant in

this land, want efficient saleswomen, and efficient women are well paid, and I defy the magazine man to successfully contest that statement. I appeal to the magazine man who prints so much of this mischievous and insidious stuff, so damaging to the girl, to use better logic. Who will dare tell you and me what a green, undisciplined, untrained, stubborn girl is worth; and can any thinking person claim that the merchants of this country owe her a living wage? What will Mr. Magazine Man offer such a one for the work she, as a beginner, can perform in his office?

I tell you, Mr. Magazine Man, that you are opening the door of restraint; breaking down self control; giving the weak girl a plausible excuse for selecting what appears for the moment the line of least resistance; an easy way of escaping from the path of rectitude.

\* \* \*

#### QUESTION

ALFRED TENNYSON.

"A voice spake out of the skies  
To a just man and a wise—  
'The world and all within it  
Will only last a minute!'  
And a beggar began to cry,  
'Food, food, or I die!'  
Is it worth his while to eat,  
Or mine to give him meat,  
If the world and all within it  
Were nothing the next minute?"

#### ANSWER

WASHINGTON GLADDEN in *Collier's Weekly*.

If the world and all within it  
Could only last a minute,  
A voice from beyond the sky  
To the good and wise would cry:  
"Let the last minute shine  
With the light of a grace divine;  
Let the hungry see thee stand  
With a loaf in the helping hand;  
So the world and its works shall end  
With the benison of a friend."

\* \* \*

THE vital task of social science today is, in the opinion of Albion W. Small, to confirm or remove the suspicion that the capitalism of our day is destined to undermine our social system as the latifundia system did that of Rome. The task will not be finished, he said in a recent address as president of the American Sociological Society:

without the co-operation of all our social sciences from the historical, functional, moral, and instrumental standpoints. The indicated function of social science is to be the chief organ of social self-examination. The changed outlook of the social sciences since the eighteenth century discredits the social science which is content to let eighteenth century social interpretations stand unimpeached by twentieth century conditions. We are in danger of mistaking capitalism mitigated by patriarchalism for capitalism corrected in principle. In no period of history has it been possible for social scientists to perform more fundamentally constructive public service than present conditions throughout the world demand.



## COMMUNICATIONS

### WIDOWS' PENSIONS IN NEW YORK

TO THE EDITOR:

While the discussion on widows' pensions in *THE SURVEY* has been made as widespread in its scope as it is general in its interest, the Association of Neighborhood Workers believes that it would be well to say a word in regard to the New York state situation.

The association wishes to record itself as favoring a department of home assistance as defined in the Levy Bill No. 744. We also intend to inaugurate a movement for the appointment of a commission to study this question as a part of the greater problem of public insurance.

While opinions on the proper method of dealing with this subject vary, the principal parts are clear enough to warrant immediate action pending a more scientific solution that should result from a study of public insurance. The death of the wage-earner brings many a family to the line of dependency. Heretofore we have either forced the mother of such a family to seek work outside or bring it into the home, or we have relieved her of the burden of the support of her children by placing them in public institutions or in other private families.

All four methods are ineffectual and costly, and usually serve but to add to the misery and degeneracy of those from whom death took their natural protector. For years the private relief societies have striven to relieve the distress of worthy widows but despite their most valiant efforts such relief has admittedly been inadequate.

Thus we see that even in those exceptional cases in which a plan of family rehabilitation can be worked out and put into practice there is not sufficient money to make unnecessary the use of these other makeshifts. As a consequence society has almost forced the widow to earn sufficient for her children's training at the cost of the home, or to drive from that home the children she should train.

We wish to amend the Levy bill by striking out those sections that deal with the payment of public moneys to private societies. Undoubtedly the intention of this indirect method of distribution was to guarantee the proper standard of investigation and service, but while we realize the dangers of improper or inadequate inspection we feel that they are not as great as those attendant upon the subsidization of private societies by the public treasury. Surely the fact that the board of this newly created department is to be composed of persons nominated by the large relief societies will be adequate to secure full and effectual co-operation between the public and private agencies.

We do not think that this bill will ensure a return to the evils of the old time system of outdoor relief. We believe rather that it is a

great step in advance in the ever enlarging development of the social conscience as expressed in government. The state must spend every effort to keep the family together in all cases save where degeneracy or disease make special treatment necessary. We believe that the establishment by legislation of such a principle is timely and therefore intend to work for the passage of this bill with the suggested amendments.

However, we feel it is more important that a demand should result in the appointment of a competent commission to make a searching study of the situation and recommend a comprehensive plan of public insurance which will provide for all worthy citizens who become dependent upon us without the taint of private charity, or the taunt of public pauperism.

MARY K. SIMKHOVITCH,

[Chairman Committee on Widow's Pensions, Association of Neighborhood Workers.]

ALICE ROBBINS,

ANNA REED,

RICHARD NEUSTADT,

[Secretary Association of Neighborhood Workers.]  
New York.

### THE NEW YORK FIRE BILLS

TO THE EDITOR:

The article by H. F. J. Porter on the fire bills of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission in *THE SURVEY* for February 22 might mislead those who have not seen the bills. It is hard to comprehend how one who has read the bills understandingly could say: "Nor will the recommendations in the legislation proposed by the commission in the five bills above referred to affect this condition materially," i. e., the conditions which were responsible for the Asch building fire.

The provisions of the bills are summarized in part by Frances Perkins in the same issue of *THE SURVEY*. These bills afford just what Mr. Porter demands: "Measures . . . to cure these conditions and to prevent their future recurrence."

In actual fact they largely follow his own recommendations to the commission published in the preliminary report in 1912. Mr. Porter nowhere states in what respect they fall short so as to justify his sweeping assertion that "The commission has failed to fulfill the chief object of its creation"; except in so far as he charges by implication that the bills fail to meet what he regards as the necessary requirements of such legislation.

These he gives as follows: "A law should be drafted requiring architects and builders to design buildings so that they may be emptied within a reasonable time, say three minutes. Before being accepted by the proper authorities, the law should require these buildings to pass an emergency exit test and to provide for periodical exit tests to insure the maintenance of safe conditions."

The bills introduced by the commission do this very thing and go even further. They not only require buildings to be so constructed as to



be readily emptied, and prohibit the employment of more persons than can escape by the existing exits, but they require them to be so constructed and maintained as to guard against the occurrence of fire at all. Legislation which would confine itself to getting people out of a factory after a fire has started, as suggested by Mr. Porter, would rest on a basis both narrow and unsound. It is far more important to prevent fires from occurring.

The commission's bills do both: They seek to prevent the occurrence of fire and they provide for the escape of occupants of a building if one does occur.

The first object, the prevention of fire, they encompass by requiring (1) all future factory buildings over four stories in height to be of fire-proof construction; all over one story to have incombustible roofs and cornices and other structural requirements partly contained in the bills themselves and partly left by them to the industrial board; (2) factories to be kept free of all unnecessary inflammable material, to guard gas jets and other like maintenance requirements; (3) automatic sprinklers where manufacturing is carried on above the seventh floor so as to put out a fire in its incipency.

The second object, the escape of occupants in case of fire, is provided for by requiring (1) sufficient exits and of sufficient size and character to afford means of egress for all the occupants, the exit requirements being based on the number of occupants; (2) the safeguarding of exits by separating enclosures and other structural requirements stated more fully in Miss Perkins' article above referred to; (3) preserving free means of access to all exits, both from every employe's station to the exit and from the exit to the street; (4) fire alarm signal systems to apprise the occupants promptly of a fire; (5) periodical fire drills to familiarize employes with the location of exits and with the use of them. These provisions, if observed and enforced, will insure every factory building being readily emptied in case of fire.

Tests and investigations to determine whether these requirements are complied with are also provided for. It is made the duty of the commissioner of labor to enforce these provisions and he is given in the reorganized Department of Labor a force adequate for that purpose. He and his representatives are given power to inspect all factory buildings, to pass on all plans for construction and alteration and to see to it that the law is obeyed. The fire commissioner in New York city and the state fire marshal elsewhere is charged with the duty of enforcing the requirements as to automatic sprinklers and other fire extinguishing appliances and of supervising and regulating fire drills. It is made a misdemeanor to conduct a factory in any building not conforming to all the requirements of the law.

These provisions are merely the minimum requirements. It is impossible to write into a statute detailed regulations applicable to all kinds of factories or factory buildings under all con-

ditions; and, therefore, the Industrial Board is empowered to supplement these minimum requirements by such rules and regulations as it may from time to time deem necessary after public hearings.

This comprehensive plan would seem to meet all the exigencies of the situation. Wherein does it fall short? Mr. Porter does not say. Perhaps his real objection is that the bills accomplish too much rather than too little. Is it possible that he would be taken literally and that he would advocate a statute which should merely provide in substance: "All buildings shall be so designed that they may be emptied within a reasonable time, to be determined by emergency exit tests and periodical exit tests?" Would he prefer such an abstract declaration of principle to a set of statutes and rules and regulations which inform architects, builders and factory owners how they must design, construct and maintain their factories, so as to enable them to be readily emptied? If so, the proposition is hardly worth discussing. It would amount to preferring a declaration of principle to an enforceable statute, and a pious wish to a legislative command.

LAWRENCE ARNOLD TANZER.

[Legislative draftsman, N. Y. Factory Investigating Commission.]

New York.

## THE UNITED STATES ARMY

TO THE EDITOR:

I have been receiving your publication for the last year, through the courtesy of a friend. Your fairness in publishing Archibald Hopkins' letter<sup>1</sup> criticizing your selection in *The Trend* relative to the United States Army influences me to continue my subscription for another year.

When the majority of citizens in any country lose faith in the existing forms of government, change must take place, but few believe in the permanence of any condition without systematic regulation. In other words, the brains and brawn of any state will assert themselves in uniting to support a dictatorship in preference to anarchy. The industrial civilization demands the same basic fiber as the militant; honor, courage, fidelity and subordination to proper authority. The most dominant trait of all malcontents is insubordination. The suggestion that "who knows but this boy may be President" has led many boys to "look down and not up," preparing the way for an army of generals. If the boys constituting the "gangs" of our large cities, were subjected to army or navy discipline during the formative period of their lives, they might become useful and valued members of society. I contend that enlistment in either branch of our service, is an evidence of sound common sense and is an honor and dignity to every man wearing the uniform of "our United States."

SEYMOUR CUNNINGHAM.

LITCHFIELD, Conn.

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, January 11, 1913, p. 483.



## FARM COLONY FOR NEW YORK

TO THE EDITOR:

It was reported in *THE SURVEY* of November 23 that the Board of Inebriety had acquired a farm in Orange County, near Greycourt, to be used as a site for an industrial and farm colony for the care and treatment of inebriates. This announcement was premature and caused regret as at that time it was thought the site would have to be abandoned because of a defect which was discovered in the title to the premises.

I am now glad to state that on February 4 title to all the land of the farm was vested in the board, together with eight acres of land under water of Wickham Lake, and that an arrangement has been made to acquire an additional 130 acres of land under water of the lake as soon as the title to it has been perfected.

Architects have been selected and are now employed in the preparation of plans for the proposed buildings.

The board is deeply appreciative of the fact that no part of its functions can be exercised "until it shall have certified in writing to the mayor that the hospital and industrial colony is ready to receive inmates," and will do everything possible to bring this about without delay, in order that the city may obtain the advantages contemplated in the establishment of the Board of Inebriety.

CHAS. SAMSON.

[Executive Secretary, New York Board of Inebriety.]  
New York.

## THE SURVEY AND THE PULPIT

TO THE EDITOR:

Your issue for February 8 contains a communication from an Ohio clergyman which aroused my interest. This letter leads readers to infer that the use of Strong's Studies in Social Christianity and the reading of *THE SURVEY* brought on criticism which led to this clergyman's removal from his pastorate.

I fear that these statements will strengthen a wrong impression, so I hasten to correct the belief that ministers are not free to preach as they feel led of God. For almost nine years I have had the inestimable privilege of expounding living truths from Baptist pulpits. During most of this time I have read *THE SURVEY*. I have never kept quiet on any matter of public responsibility whenever I have felt it my duty to speak out fearlessly. I cannot now remember that any one, either officer or member of the church, has ever called in question, directly or indirectly, my freedom of speech.

I have had churches East and West, in town and city. They have contained farmers, workmen, and business men. The last church I ministered to was in Detroit. The members were mostly workmen who were employed in an automobile factory. There I was free to touch on subjects of industrial and sociological import.

In my present charge I found a situation strik-

ingly different. The membership of this church includes eight families whose wealth figures from \$100,000 to \$1,000,000. There are also working people who own their homes and scores of poorer men and women. The chairman of the board of trustees is the president of the First National Bank, while the head of the board of deacons is the janitor of a number of buildings including the church itself. I believe like situations can be found in many churches. From my pulpit I have declared that the administration of justice in our country is defective. I have preached in the presence of the wealthy that, in the last analysis, wealth belongs to the people and that it must be used for their good. No word of criticism has ever reached me, and no one has ever tried to influence me to drop any subject.

I myself am Hungarian born and came over in the steerage thirty years ago. I was bred in the home of a poor immigrant and I think I understand the burdens of the poor. It is a matter of tremendous satisfaction to me that so many of my members are active along almost every line of public service. One is president of the Parent Teachers' Association which has just persuaded the electorate to buy a piece of real estate for a children's playground and which has raised the money to stock it with apparatus, two are members of the probation board which has done excellent work in protecting young girls, a number are back of the Coffee Club which provides reading and rest rooms for men and women.

My only excuse for this letter is that I believe whole-heartedly in the church of Jesus Christ, and sometimes I cannot but wonder what would be the effect on all reform and social betterment movements if this most wonderful of all organizations should cease to be.

F. I. DREXLER.

[Pastor First Methodist Church,]  
Willows, Cal.

## INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

TO THE EDITOR:

*THE SURVEY* for February 8 contains a statement by Dr. Winthrop Talbot (p. 638) to the effect that the only course in this country on the subject of industrial hygiene is the one given in Teachers' College, under Prof. C. E. A. Winslow. As I am a physician who is training himself for public health work, and am especially interested in industrial hygiene, I should like to correct this. I know of at least one other such course, for I am myself studying this subject at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, under Prof. S. M. Gunn. The course here is a comprehensive, admirably presented series of lectures extending through one and one-half terms of the year, and covers both industrial diseases and industrial accidents. Lectures are given on the trade poisons, mining and railroad accidents, industrial insurance, occupational tuberculosis, ventilation of factories and machine guarding.

DONALD B. ARMSTRONG.

Boston.



## JOTTINGS

### ONE EFFECT OF POSTAL SAVINGS SYSTEM

International postal money order business decreased nearly \$12,000,000 during the past year. The decrease was due almost wholly, according to postal authorities, to the operation in this country of the postal savings system. In the two years preceding the establishment of the system, international money order business increased at the rate of \$12,000,000 a year. In the 13,000 postal banks the deposits now aggregate \$35,000,000. Postmaster-General Hitchcock believes that the total during this fiscal year will reach \$50,000,000.

### COMMISSIONER OF SOCIAL WELFARE SUGGESTED

A commissioner of social welfare whose duties would be to investigate social conditions in rural and urban communities, has been proposed in a bill introduced in the New York legislature by Assemblyman Bovey. The holder of this novel position would endeavor to bring about neighborhood co-operation in civic and social affairs calculated to "promote the well being of the community and the individual." The commissioner's salary is fixed at \$5,000 a year with \$3,000 for traveling expenses.

### SCHOOL CHILDREN FARMERS

A bulletin of the Federal Department of Education describes how twenty-two school children of Driver, Va., paid the expenses of a vacation trip to Washington out of the profits of their individual school farms.

"Further inquiry," says the bulletin, "showed that this is not the first time the children have learned that intelligent farming brings in a cash return. Each student makes regularly a profit of from \$25 to \$100 on the individual garden patch he cultivates. In addition, the children help in working a school farm, which after paying all expenses, including the wages of a man who serves both as a farm-hand and school janitor, shows a profit of about \$200. The director is confident that with a seventy-five-acre farm, which he hopes to have soon, his boys will be able to earn their own living entirely while attending school."

### LESSON IN CIVICS FOR THE EAST SIDE

A lesson in civics for the East Side—that is what some have called the series of municipal departmental exhibits which was recently opened in New York by the University Settlement. Profiting by the experience gained from the municipal budget shows of 1910 and 1911, the settlement is trying by a graphic exhibit to show the fledgling citizens of New York's Ghetto just what Father Knickerbocker does for their benefit.

The first of the series was conducted under the auspices of the Tenement House Department. Besides supplying material indicating some of the forms of dilapidated buildings that it has to guard against as well as the sanitary evils it is

fighting, special evening meetings were held for the benefit of various organizations which emphasized such subjects as the methods for preventing fire.

Among the groups which were addressed by John J. Murphy, tenement house commissioner, and representatives of the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society, were the clubs of the settlement, the janitors and landlords, clubs from neighboring settlements and recreation centers, residents, business men, social workers and the League of Settlement Mothers' Clubs.

A year ago the settlement undertook to exhibit a survey of the neighborhood from the standpoint of housing conditions. The results of this survey were tabulated and put on maps so as to add a local touch to the exhibit. The exhibit is to be followed later by a loan from the Park Department and another from the Bureau of Weights and Measures with the aim of making the workings of these departments and their accomplishments more real to the neighbors of the settlement.

### ADULT PROBATION IN CHICAGO

The first annual report of the Adult Probation Office of Cook County, Illinois, is brief, but optimistic. One thousand and seventy-four persons, 431 of them being from seventeen to twenty years of age, were put on probation between Oct. 1, 1911, and Sept. 30, 1912. Of these, 860 remained on probation at the later date.

Of 235 who had passed from probation, 171 were reported improved, 42 unimproved, 1 dead and 21 committed. The optimism centers more, however, on the fact that those who were on probation and known to be working earned during September, \$30,-905.50.

Besides these money earnings thirty-one men were running their own business, sixteen were working but earnings not known, and forty-three were housewives and girls working at home. At this rate and adding the cost of keeping the probationers in jail and subtracting the cost of the probation service, a net money gain of \$439,970.04 to society is claimed for the year.

A fact challenging inquiry is the variation of from 1 to 128 persons put on probation by different judges of the municipal court.

## Classified Advertisements

### WORKERS WANTED

**WANTED**—A Worker for the Day Nursery at the Jewish Sisterhood Neighborhood House, Newark, N. J. Address 21 Seventeenth Ave., Newark, N. J.

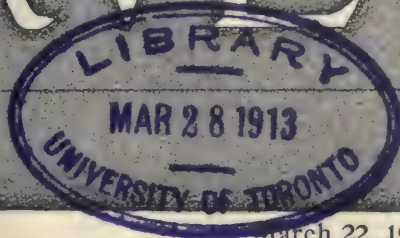
### SITUATIONS WANTED

**TRAINED** nurse, stenographer, typist, student of social conditions, desires work as secretary to philanthropist or organization. Address 1093, Survey.

**TRAINED** social worker—also graduate nurse—desires change. Would consider taking up welfare work of large business concern where knowledge of nursing is valuable. Address 1094 Survey.



# THE SURVEY



Volume XXIX, No. 24

March 22, 1913

## MID-MONTHLY DEPARTMENTS

EDUCATION

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

CIVICS

HEALTH

INDUSTRY

### *Recreation and the Nations*

*How England, France, Germany, Sweden and America direct  
the play time of the young*

### *Social Legislation of the 62d Congress*

*A review of Health, Labor, Education and  
Efficiency Measures at Washington*

### *Labor Conditions & Interstate Commerce*

*In the light of the decision on the Mann Act  
by the Supreme Court*

### *Ford Hall*

*Fourth Anniversary of what has been called the spiritual  
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The membership of the Survey Associates has passed the 500 mark as we go to press. That is pretty sturdy backing to this adventure of ours in co-operative journalism—the sort of backing that gives THE SURVEY its best chance of success.

Most of these members are co-operating subscribers at \$10 each. These pages are addressed this month to those whose means and interest warrant them in giving more, for it is to those of large means and constructive vision that we must look for a considerable share of our budget.

Our appeal this year was for a round \$20,000—a sum a trifle under the total contributions received the preceding fiscal year. But \$3,000 of that figure was an appropriation from the New York Charity Organization Society which could not be renewed to the new organization.

At the outset of the year, then, we figured that we could clear this \$20,000 on the new basis, if we

	1911-12	1912-13	
increased our co-operating subscriptions from	650	to 800	\$8,000
doubled our \$25. contributions	14	" 28	700
" " \$50. " "	6	" 12	600
" " \$100. " "	15	" 30	3,000
renewed all large contributions (over \$100)			8,350
			\$20,650

Five months have passed, and the showing is distinctly encouraging. We have secured

513	out of the 800	co-operating subscribers	\$10 each
14	" " "	28 contributors of	25 "
7	" " "	12 " "	50 "
14	" " "	30 " "	100 "

We have hopes of renewing all the small but interested group of contributors of over \$100. We are redoubling our efforts to enlist a full 800 readers as co-operating subscribers at \$10.

It is then on the response to our appeal for funds in amounts of from \$25 to \$100 that we must depend in rounding out this initial year. Can the Survey Associates complete it in a way commensurate with the opportunities before them? Since October 1 last, when THE SURVEY was launched as an independent venture, staff and council have been feeling their way. From 32 to 48 pages have been cut from the issues published each month as a measure of economy and safety. How much has been sacrificed in valuable material never published, in important chronicles which have come out belatedly, in constructive experience which could not be spread before social workers throughout the country, in quick staff investigations of matters which demanded investigation but which could not be attempted on our meager resources—only those who have been facing the problem from week to week at THE SURVEY headquarters know.

The "productive" months are fast slipping by. Now is the time when your contribution will count for the most.

# SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC.



# DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but memberships not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**—The Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction sent free to each member. **BUREAU OF INFORMATION** on any topic of philanthropy, penology and kindred subjects free to members. Alexander Johnson, Sec., Angola, Ind. Next meeting, Seattle, July 5, 1913.

**ORGANIZED CHARITY**—American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity. Francis H. McLean, gen'l sec'y., 105 East 22d St., New York City. To promote the extension and development of organized charity and of community co-operation in social programs in the United States.

**THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE**—The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service. For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave. (at 18th St.), New York.

**STUDIES IN SOCIAL CHRISTIANITY**—*Jany.*: Poverty. *Feb'y.*: Wealth. *March*: Socialism. See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York city. Price 50c. per year.

**EPISCOPAL SOCIAL SERVICE**—The Joint Commission on Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church. For literature and other information address the Field Secretary, Rev. F. M. Crouch, Church Missions House, 281 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

**UNITARIAN SOCIAL ADVANCE**—The American Unitarian Association through its Department of Social and Public Service. Reports and Bulletins free. Lecture Bureau. Social Service Committees. Rev. Elmer S. Forbes, Secretary of the Department, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

**METHODIST SOCIAL SERVICE**—Methodist Federation for Social Service; Literature; Bureau of Information, Speakers' Bureau; Reading and study courses; Invites all Methodists to extend its usefulness and use its facilities. Rev. Harry F. Ward, Sec'y., 2512 Park Place, Evanston, Ill.

**BAPTIST SOCIAL SERVICE**—Baptist Department of Social Service and Brotherhood. To study social questions, publish findings, suggest ways whereby Christian men may become socially effective, and co-operate with similar bodies. S. Z. Batten, Secretary, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

**CONGREGATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCY**—*The Congregational Brotherhood of America*, Henry A. Atkinson, Secretary, 19 S. La Salle Street, Chicago, Ills. Programs and information furnished. Study Course: Speakers' Bureau; Publications. Service available for Institutes, Conferences and Addresses. Correspondence and inquiries invited.

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**THE AMERICAN SEAMAN'S FRIEND SOCIETY**—Rev. J. B. Calvert, D.D., pres. George McPherson Hunter, Sec'y. The national seamen's society has stations in the United States and abroad, relieves shipwrecked and destitute seamen. Annual membership includes all literature, \$5.00 a year. C. C. Pinneo, Treas., 76 Wall Street.

**REMEDIAL LOANS**—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 31 Union Square, N. Y. Arthur H. Ham. Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

**SOCIAL BETTERMENT FOR NEGROES**—National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, 281 Fourth Avenue. E. R. A. Seligman, Chairman; G. E. Haynes, Director. Develops welfare agencies. Trains social workers. Aids travelers. Supports probation officers. Seeks industrial opportunities. Correspondence invited.

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**IMMIGRATION**—National Conference of Immigration; Land and Labor Officials, 22 East 30th Street, F. A. Kellor, Sec. Information affecting aliens *after admission*, especially in reference to labor, land, education, protection and distribution. No matters of admission or restriction dealt with.

**IMMIGRATION**—North American Civic League for Immigrants, New York-New Jersey Committee, 95 Madison Ave., N. Y. C. Protection, Education, Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants. Printed material furnished upon request. Grace E. J. Parker, General Secretary.

**IMMIGRANT GIRLS**—Council of Jewish Women (National) Department Immigrant Aid meets girls at docks; visits, advises, guides; has international system safeguarding. Work in Religion, Philanthropy, Education, Civics. Invites Membership. Address Sadie American, Exec. Sec., 448 Central Park West, New York.

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**PROBATION**—National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y. Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

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**PRISON LABOR**—National Committee on Prison Labor, 319 University Hall, Columbia University, N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stagg Whitin, Ph. D., Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. \$5 a year.

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## THE PITH OF IT

**T**HE New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor announces the establishment of a new department for preventive and constructive social work. It is to be financed by the income from a foundation of \$1,000,000 which will be known as the Milbank Memorial Gift. Mrs. Elizabeth Milbank Anderson, the donor, has also set aside \$150,000 to defray capital expenses in establishing this new service and for certain preliminary investigations.

**O**NE daughter's inheritance—not money but her father's interest in human kind. P. 852.

**M**ORE as to Henry Neil, pension agent. P. 849.

**W**HILE as a whole, the 62d Congress held a remarkable record in the matter of social legislation, the short, closing session was a disappointment. P. 847.

**I**N THE opinion of Adelbert Moot, former president of the New York State Bar Association, the action of the Supreme Court in upholding the Mann Act and in other decisions foreshadows a day when conditions of labor will be controlled under the Interstate Commerce Act. P. 882.

**T**HE Sunday school as a social force,—some interesting developments chronicled by Prof. Taylor. P. 873.

**A**S AN employer in the Canal Zone, the United States will hereafter meet industrial accident losses on a broader basis.

**T**O MAKE the crusade against tuberculosis successful, Dr. H. W. Carey of Troy, N. Y., pleads for legislation which will make it possible to compel consumptives who will not protect those about them to accept hospital care. P. 863.

**I**N PLAY CENTERS FOR THE POOR, Henry De Peyster, an official of the finance department of the French government, sets forth the common aim back of the widely divergent play movements of different countries. P. 855.

**I**N HARMONY with modern methods of public administration Assemblyman Levy of New York has introduced a group of bills to improve the method of preparing the annual budget, to effect economies in the state's supply purchases by establishing a board for the central control of supply contracts, and to secure more careful audit in the office and the field by the state comptroller. As one means of accomplishing this the bills provide for a State Department of Efficiency and Economy. P. 857.

**T**HREE states at least are considering whether cannery shall be permitted to exploit woman and child labor *ad libitum*. P. 887.

# THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE  
GRAHAM TAYLOR Associate Editors JANE ADDAMS  
PAUL U. KELLOGG  
Editor

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# THE COMMON WELFARE

## NATIONAL EFFORTS TO GET WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The failure of the Sutherland workmen's compensation bill for employes of interstate carriers to pass the House of Representatives at the last session of the Sixty-second Congress has brought discouragement to many persons who have been active in pushing this legislation. The measure has had many honest enemies and some dishonest ones. The most striking argument made for it was that of Representative D. J. Lewis of Maryland:

"In the coming year 90,000 men are to be injured on our railroads and 10,000 killed. That is as much to be expected as the orderly operation of the planets themselves. Under existing law less than one-third of these victims will receive some \$15,000,000, certainly not more than \$20,000,000, with their lawyers to pay. Under the bill that is presented to the House tonight all the victims will be compensated and that sum will be lifted to from \$48,000,000 to \$60,000,000 as a compensation to the victims of industry. We are confronted by a practical question. Are two-thirds of these victims to lose some \$40,000,000 next year because lawyers would like to adapt this measure to the old legal remedial forms of procedure rather than accept it as an adequate principle in itself?"

At the instance of the American Association for Labor Legislation, Representative W. B. Wilson introduced into the House, and Senator John W. Kern into the Senate, during the last week of the Sixty-second Congress a bill "to provide compensation for employes of the United States suffering injuries or occupational diseases in the course of employment." The bill will be reintroduced and pushed at the extra session of the Sixty-third Congress which will convene on April 7. It was drafted by experts after months of investigation and is designed to supplant the present law which went into effect on August 1, 1908. That act, which was the first of the kind in America, has been quite widely judged inadequate from the beginning. The maximum benefit allowed, even in case of total blindness or death, was only one year's wages. The Kern-Wilson bill is more liberal in its provisions and includes a unique feature—compensation for such occupational diseases as lead poisoning as well as for accidents.

In the meantime a system of workmen's compensation applicable to Canal Zone employes went into effect March 1. This system was established by Mr. Taft in accordance with a pro-

vision in the Panama Canal Act of August 24, 1912. His order was the result of a study of conditions peculiar to the Zone, and was drawn by officers of the government with the aid of Middleton Beaman of the Legislative Drafting Research Fund of New York. The evidence collected by the Federal Workmen's Compensation Commission, of which Senator Sutherland of Utah was chairman, was freely used.

The terms of the order, which is really the law of the Zone, abolishes the defenses of the old liability system and establishes automatic compensation regardless of fault except wilful negligence or intoxication.

Says Secretary of War Stimson:

"This measure for the first time brings the federal government abreast of the most advanced thought and experience of other countries in dealing justly with its employes at a time when they and their families are most in need of justice."

The rates of payment under the order are low. Death payments for a widow without child are 35 per cent of the monthly wages of the deceased for a period of six years, and between 20 and 30 per cent thereafter, the pension to be stopped at death or marriage. Ten per cent is added for each child up to a limit of 50 per cent. In the case of total disability the employe receives for the first six years 50 per cent of his monthly pay in monthly installments. Partial disability gives the employe a monthly compensation equal to 50 per cent of the difference between his monthly pay and his wage-earning capacity per month after the beginning of partial disability.

An interesting feature of the order is the fact that all employes, including those on salaries, come under its provisions. If the monthly pay of an employe is over \$200 that sum is considered to be his wage, and the compensation is adjusted on that basis. Provision is made for the commutation of periodical payment for beneficiaries who receive less than \$5 a month, who are not citizens of the United States, or who are non-residents of the United States. Such persons may receive a lump sum payment equal to two-thirds of all future payments of compensation. Section 28 of the order applies to attorney's fees, and declares that no claim for legal services in connection with any case arising under the order shall be enforceable unless approved by the governor of the Panama Canal.



## EIGHT-HOUR BILL FOR WOMEN WORKERS KILLED

In spite of the best efforts of its friends, the LaFollette-Peters eight-hour bill for women workers in the District of Columbia died in the last hours of the Sixty-Second Congress. It had succeeded in passing the Senate, though in amended form, but when it reached the House of Representatives it was referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia. From that committee the strongest force which the friends of the measure on the floor of the House could muster was unable to wrest it. Representative A. W. Lafferty of Oregon, in the midst of the confusing parliamentary wrangle over the status of the bill, thus clearly expressed the peculiar situation:

"Suppose every member upon this floor was desirous and anxious to pass this eight-hour bill, but the chairman of the committee over in the House Office Building was barricaded behind his doors, refusing to deliver the engrossed copy to the House, which in effect is what he is doing. Under the precedent which I have read it is in order for the speaker to entertain a motion to suspend the rules, to discharge the committee, and pass the bill. But under that precedent the speaker can not put the question upon the final passage until the engrossed copy is brought over."

Representative Lafferty thereupon attempted to get the House to order the bill out from the custody of the chairman of the House Committee on the District of Columbia, Representative Ben Johnson of Kentucky. Asked if he desired to explain his position, Mr. Johnson said: "No; I do not care anything about it." Whereupon Mr. Lafferty asked for immediate consideration of his order to discharge Mr. Johnson's committee. A page of the *Congressional Record* is filled with the motions for recesses and adjournments and other tactics employed to get rid of the eight-hour bill and to get at the appropriations. Representative Mann of Illinois, who aided in the obstructionist tactics, ironically summed up the situation in these words from the *Congressional Record*:

"What are the rules for, except to let us do what we want to do . . . ? [Laughter]. Necessity is the mother of invention. Force is the only power that controls. [Laughter]."

The eight-hour bill must now be reintroduced in both branches of Congress. Whether those in control of the policy of the committees will allow it to be taken up at the extra session, to be called for April 1, can not yet be ascertained. Congress, however, even at extra sessions called for special purposes, has usually proved itself responsive to public opinion and powerful pressure expressed through letters to the newspapers and to congressman and senators. The House

Committee on Labor and the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia have on hand a limited supply of printed copies of the hearings had on this bill.

## SOCIAL LEGISLATION OF 62ND CONGRESS

The social legislation passed at the session of Congress just ended was not especially extensive, and the failure of some important measures, including the compensation and eight-hour bills already referred to, is perhaps as conspicuous as the list of bills passed.

The hospital ship bill was killed in the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries. Little progress was made on the Booher bill giving states the power to prohibit the bringing of convict-made goods across their borders. The Seamen's bill passed the House but was so changed by the Senate Committee on Commerce that President Taft pocket-vetoed it. The immigration bill did not muster enough votes to triumph over its veto by President Taft. The Sutherland workmen's compensation bill for employes of interstate carriers failed to pass the House. The anti-injunction and contempt bills died in the Senate Committee. Mr. Taft vetoed the sundry civil appropriation bill because it contained a provision which in effect would have exempted labor unions and farmers' organizations from prosecution under the Sherman anti-trust act. Senator Kenyon's bill to establish, through federal control of interstate commerce, the eight-hour day for women in all the states got little beyond its introduction.

The Owen public health bill was not even seriously considered, and the jail inquiry was stricken from the House calendar.

Social legislation which received the endorsement both of Congress and the President, includes:

An amendment extending parole to life prisoners on good conduct.

A loan shark bill for the District of Columbia.

Amendment of the pure food act so as to require a statement on packages of the contents in terms of weight or measure. "Reasonable variations" from the statements are allowed.

Creation of the Department of Labor as a separate activity with an officer in the cabinet.

Amendment of the act creating the Bureau of Mines so as to secure greater efficiency and broader scope for the bureau.

Extension of the power of the commissioner general of immigration by the establishment of immigrant stations at interior points. Provision was made that aliens in transit from ports to these stations should be accompanied by inspectors.

Passage of the Webb bill to prevent shipment of liquor in interstate commerce into states whose laws forbid its sale. This legislation furnishes a precedent for future measures designed to make



use of the interstate police powers of the federal government.

Limitation of the hours of dredge-workers employed on public works to eight per day.

Passage of the interlocutory injunction bill. This makes it impossible hereafter to suspend the enforcement of a statute in a state or an order made by an administrative board or commission under the laws of the state.

Establishment of the "Alaska fund," created from liquor licenses, etc., in the territory. Ten per cent of this fund is for the relief of old persons, the sick and the indigent, and those who have met with accidents. The rest is to be used in the construction of roads, bridges, etc.

To summarize the progress made by this Congress, however, the measures passed at its earlier session, should be included:

Establishment of the Children's Bureau.

Establishment of the Commission on Industrial Relations.

The Phosphy Jaw Act, prohibiting the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches.

The eight-hour law and the eight-hour provisions in the postal, fortifications, and naval appropriation bills—not new legislation, but an extension of old.

The provision in the postal appropriation bill allowing federal employes to petition Congress and join what organization they please.

Extension of the Federal Workmen's Compensation Act to more classes of government employees.

Amendment to the postal appropriation bill, giving to publications of labor and fraternal organizations the same postal privileges as are given to other publications.

### THE HENRY NEIL LEAGUE FOR MOTHERS' PENSIONS

On page 891 of this issue appears a letter from Henry Neil of Chicago, which is apparently intended as a reply to the statement in THE SURVEY of February 1, entitled Henry Neil, Pension Agent. All who are sincerely interested—from whatever point of view—in the subject of mothers' pensions should be in possession of the facts concerning Mr. Neil's activities in this direction.

Mr. Neil states that he has not received any personal profit from the league. This was not charged against him. He offers no reply or reference to the charge actually made, namely that the league offers unknown membership collectors 50 cents on each dollar they collect.

Despite the fact that Judge Lindsey resigned as vice-president of the Mothers' Pension League in December, a letter which has filtered into THE SURVEY office shows that as late as January 20 Henry Neil was still quoting the Col-

POWER ELDER, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN      JUDGE BEN B. LINDSEY, Vice President      HENRY NEIL, Secretary

## Mothers' Pension League

FOR HOME AND HUMANITY

“Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me.”

Matthew 25:40



“Whoever shall give to one of these little ones a cup of cold water shall not lose his reward.”

Matthew 25:40

*This Certifies: That the Holder hereof has been enrolled as a Charter Member of the Mothers' Pension League.*

Henry Neil, Secretary      William B. Lindsey, President

**MEMBERSHIP CERTIFICATE IN MOTHERS' PENSION LEAGUE**  
A month after Judge Lindsey had resigned as vice-president Mr. Neil was still using his name on the league's letter head.



orado judge as endorsing the league, and still carrying his name on the letterhead.

The general scheme of giving 50 per cent to collectors for the Mothers' Pension League is set forth by Mr. Neil in the following paragraphs from this letter:

"We will pay \$5.00 a day to an efficient woman to do this work providing that at least ten new members to the league are secured each day that the organizer works and providing also that the membership fee of \$1 a year is collected in advance from each new member.

"You can send us a money order for the amount you collect less the amount of your pay for organizing.

"In but a short time the extent of this movement, we believe, will assume such proportions in your locality that you will require assistance in your work of organizing and our charter members will get the preference for positions of chief organizers. In this way if you are an efficient and steady worker you will have the management of a large field, with greater opportunities for the accomplishment of good and increased pay for yourself.

"The most efficient organizers will secure more than ten new members each day they work but we make a minimum day's work ten new members. If you have other duties or for any other reason cannot put in sufficient time each day to secure at least ten new members, then you can work part time and count as a day's work, the securing of ten new members and the collecting of the membership fee from each."

In view of Mr. Neil's reference to the financial methods which have been employed in the Mothers' Pension League, it is interesting to note that neither the National Probation League nor the Mothers' Pension League, of both of which organizations Mr. Neil is secretary, appears in the latest published list issued by the Subscriptions Investigation Committee of the Chicago Association of Commerce. This list covers the philanthropic organizations which the committee believes worthy of the support of all anxious to further systematized social work.

Mr. Neil's letter states that Mr. Carstens has repudiated the press summary of his report on mothers' pensions. In this Mr. Neil ignores Mr. Carstens' communication published in *THE SURVEY* a month prior to the receipt of Mr. Neil's letter. Mr. Carstens said:

"It is true that an advance press notice, condensing *THE SURVEY* article and not prepared by me, inadvertently substituted the word 'immorality' for 'low moral tone,' and was to that extent inaccurate. . . . The advance notice was a good general summary of my Chicago findings and of my general conclusions."

The league, Mr. Neil says, "distributes authentic information." His standard for "authentic" is discredited by his own letters. He says in his letter to *THE SURVEY*:

\*See *THE SURVEY*, January 25, 1913, p. 556.

"The Pennsylvania legislature had enacted a Mothers' Pension Law in 1907—and for the past six years the organized charity people had been using it to get the money out of the public treasury to pay for the keeping of children after taking them away from their own mothers. . . . When I showed these facts to the people of Philadelphia they demanded that their Pension Law be construed correctly and they then and there put into correct operation their Mothers' Pension Law."

Another letter from Mr. Neil, received recently by a resident of South Bend, Ind., was identical with the one received by *THE SURVEY*, except that it contained this additional clause:

"and pensions are now being paid to hundreds of mothers of dependent children in Pennsylvania."

The law Mr. Neil evidently referred to is a juvenile court law, and its first section reads as follows:

"Section 1. Be it enacted, etc., that whenever hereafter any indigent or dependent child shall be committed by any judge or other competent authority to the care and custody of any person or family, for the purpose of maintenance and education in the home of such person or family, such child shall be conveyed to such home by the county commissioners, sheriff, or other proper officer, at the expense of the proper county, and the cost of maintenance of such child shall also be paid by the proper county, but at a cost not exceeding what it would cost to maintain and educate such child in the house of refuge or other public institution of such county."

#### MR. NEIL'S DISTRIBUTION OF "AUTHENTIC INFORMATION"

The only basis of the Neil claim that the "organized charity people had been using it [the law] to get the money out of the public treasury" appears in the fact that about \$17,000 was paid in 1912 by the Philadelphia County Commissioners to the various children's agencies which receive children under the act from the Philadelphia Juvenile Court. The sum per capita amounted to about \$1.87 per week. This was less than the per capita amount spent by the receiving agencies on the children committed to them by the court. Consequently, each of the societies spent for the children committed to its care not only the entire amount of public money allowed, but some additional money from its own funds.

So far as diligent enquiry has been able to show, no pensions have been granted to mothers for the care of their own children under this law. Evidently at Mr. Neil's instigation, the *Philadelphia Evening Telegraph* brought a test case on January 13, 1913, to determine whether the law could be used as authority for a pension to a mother. After five weeks' consideration the



court refused the petition on February 17, seven days prior to the day that Mr. Neil's undated letter reached *THE SURVEY*.

A further statement with even less basis in fact has been circulating under Mr. Neil's signature in various papers recently. We quote it from the Norfolk (Va.) *Pilot* of March 2, 1913:

"In St. Louis, Mo., the organized charities, being in control, have just secured the passage of a law which allows 25 per cent of the taxpayers' money to the mothers of dependent children, and 75 per cent to the charities for overseeing the spending of it."

The law referred to, an ordinance of the city of St. Louis, contains no reference whatever to the proportion to be given to the mothers and the proportion to be used for supervision. Roger N. Baldwin, secretary of the Civic League of St. Louis, and formerly chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court of that city, has characterized the Neil statement as "entirely inaccurate."

Mr. Neil was recently accorded an interview by Jessie Wilson, one of President Wilson's daughters. A few days later reports of that interview, accompanied by a picture of Miss Wilson, began to appear in various middle Western papers, from one of which, the *Superior* (Wis.) *Telegraph*, of February 6, we quote the following:

"Mothers' pension has a new champion in Miss Jessie Wilson. . . . Miss Wilson is not only interesting herself actively in the effort to obtain mothers' pension laws in the various states, but expects to continue her efforts after she enters the White House. Along with this activity, she is studying juvenile court conditions, particularly in New York, where 23,000 children are brought every year. She is satisfied that a general adoption of mothers' pension would greatly lessen the number of 'delinquency' cases and make the work of the juvenile courts much easier."

When this newspaper item was shown to Miss Wilson, she authorized the following statement:

"I expressed, as I thought, merely interest and a strong wish to investigate the subject further. I have taken no active interest in the matter *at all*, and his [Mr. Neil's] statement to that effect, if he is responsible for this clipping, is entirely unwarranted."

#### WHO SHALL PRESCRIBE EDUCATIONAL DIET?

Whether the polyglot population of New York's public schools shall have courses of study prescribed for them by professional educators or by laymen is declared to be the principle at stake in a fight now going on over legislation pending at Albany. Black-eyed youngsters with the air of the Bay of Naples still in their hair, Jewish children still reading the Pentateuch in the

Cheder, Bohemian boys and girls whose parents teach them religion out of a book on biology, and native youths whose racy speech gives them at least one advantage over their foreign classmates are having settled for them who shall determine the contents of their education.

The measure in question, known as the McKee bill, proposes what is seemingly an insignificant amendment to the charter of New York city. Its purpose is to put into the hands of the Board of Education "the power to change the grades of all schools and of all classes and to adopt and modify courses of study for all schools under its supervision." Under the present arrangement the power to adopt and modify courses of study is lodged in the Board of Education "upon the written recommendation of the Board of Superintendents."

The difference is vital, say those who oppose the change, because the new wording removes the initiative in altering courses of study from professional educators to laymen who can not be expected to be experts. To those who contend that the new power conferred upon the board is not important it is answered that the phrase to "adopt and modify" means nothing less than to "remake." Modification, it is asserted, is a matter of degree. The decision as to what subjects shall be taught and how much of each shall be taught is declared to be an expert function, properly performed only by those familiar with the technique of constructing curricula and with what has been done in other places.

The Public Education Association, which is fighting the bill, quotes many educational authorities against it. Prof. Paul Hanus, of Harvard University, who directed the inquiry into New York's schools authorized by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, is opposed to it.

Friends of the measure, who include many teachers in the city, deny that the Board of Education would presume to "make" a course of study even if the bill were passed. They say that the most it would do would be to make needed changes. To this it is answered that the giving of the power is itself an evil and that subsequent boards may not be so scrupulous in leaving important matters of policy to the city superintendent and his associates.

But advocacy of the measure is put on broader grounds. It is the "experts," say the friends of the change, who have made the curriculum in the New York public schools what all admit it to be now—dull, inert, detached-from-life. They cite the Hanus reports themselves to substantiate this criticism. Let us then, they argue, give to this pabulum with which we are feeding hungry minds the many-sided touch of those who know life from divers angles. Only when it has had that can it meet the wants of growing



boys and girls of a score of nationalities and a thousand different aims and aspirations.

The reply to this contention is that the bill is piece-meal legislation. We can not secure a proper vitalization of the public schools, say its opponents, by giving both the initiative and the approval of changes in the course of study over to those who have neither experience nor continuity in office. The result would be both ill advised and changing policies. On the other hand, they point out, New York has just had a thorough inquiry by specialists into the needs of its school system. Let legislation, they urge, come after reflection and let it be linked up to a general scheme of reform, based on the recommendations of this investigation.

The measure has been reported by the cities committee' of the Assembly and indications on Monday were that final action would soon be taken.

## MY HERITAGE

A SURVEY ASSOCIATE

In writing to avail myself of the privilege of becoming a co-operating member of *THE SURVEY*, I used the expression "I was happy enough to inherit from my father an interest in good causes." The editor of *THE SURVEY* has asked me to enlarge a little on this, suggesting what such an inheritance has meant. However inadequate such an attempt may be, perhaps some influence may speak through me from my father's life and memory.

To begin with, may I tell something of what my father's ideas were? I might say that he died more than thirty years ago and that in some ways his views seem to me to have been in advance of his time. He was a successful business man, but he had no ambition to build up or leave a large fortune. He did not consider the inheritance of wealth a blessing. The idea of "Christian stewardship" was with him intensely real, and he faithfully lived out this ideal, giving away money *as he made it*. He used to say that most men with the ability to make a fortune, seemed unable to realize that it required quite as much brains to do good with money as to make it!

All through his life, in addition to activity in business and exceptional devotion to the interests of his family, he gave time and thought, freely and ardently, to many lines of philanthropy. His office was the resort of workers in many fields who availed themselves of his business advice and that of his brothers. My father was one of the founders and supporters of his own church, and a liberal contributor to other churches, was much interested in Sunday school work, in home and foreign missions, in all the best local enter-

prises, in educational institutions, in philanthropic work in the South, and in a really great variety of the causes best worth supporting. In addition to his gifts of money, he gave himself to personal work in various lines, and took a warm interest in many individuals whom he could help.

Now, how about the "inheritance?"

To speak in very personal terms, I will first say that I sincerely thank my father for leaving me an income large enough to live on comfortably, while I am free from the difficulties still comparable to those of a camel passing through the eye of a needle! Perhaps it is a happy thing to have the much-talked-of "simple life" brought within easy reach by a limited income. With the searchlights of today thrown on our consciences, and all our queries as to the just distribution of money, it is a happiness to know that what one's father earned honorably by work he shared freely, in his own day, for the needs of his generation, instead of "heaping up riches."

Then as to the interests we inherited. As I turn back the pages of memory, one of our first lessons in humanity seems to have come in the attitude we saw shown to those employed in our household. Justice, consideration and kindness for them were an unwritten law and we were unconsciously learning to think of all under our roof as fellow-beings—an important lesson, it seems to me. This was a "good cause" with which to begin at home.

Then, in our household, we inherited some acquaintance with "the best people." Among our many visitors, we had the privilege of meeting workers in varied fields of philanthropy. Happy the home that entertained, even briefly, Charles L. Brace and General Armstrong! One of my earliest memories is of a Mr. Van Meter who thrilled us children with the story of *The Little Wanderers' Home*, . . . A New York institution, I think. And what a benediction seemed to rest on our household at the times when it had as guest an elderly missionary from Syria whose beautiful face spoke truly of his consecrated life! And other missionaries made Hindoos and Hawaiians and even South Sea Islanders seem real people to be really helped. So our young imaginations were well stretched.

But not only the far off people were brought near. Some of the remotest in our own community, so to speak, were drawn into the circle of our thoughts. My father often went to the jail on Sunday afternoons to talk to prisoners. I am sure his merciful interest and racy speech must have done them good, and from what he let fall afterward, we learned, in part, to think of prisoners as *men*, not merely as evil-doers.

On other Sunday afternoons visits were made to the truant school, where thirty or forty lively boys



were spending the term for which they were committed. Not long ago I came across a letter from the devoted woman in charge, written after my father's death, telling how much his interest had helped her. He often took me with him, and to this day I can see the boys' eager attention and hear the Sermon on the Mount repeated by some of them in a rich brogue.

Father had a plan by which he paid the boys, I think at the rate of a penny a verse, for learning chapters in the Bible. If they earned \$5, as a number did—this being the goal aimed at—he deposited it to their credit in the Savings Banks and gave them their bank books. Their pride in these was great, and he felt that the idea of depositing savings later had been made definite and easy. Only the other day, a driver from a livery stable who had taken me out several times, said, "You didn't know, Miss ———, did you, that I was one of your father's boys?" and told me that he was one of the truants who attained to a bank-book and remembered father gratefully. So all along through life, I have run across footprints where my father passed and some of the good seed he scattered so freely has sprung up.

All my father's interests such as I have suggested not only enlarged our general outlook, but gave his children some idea of the noble army of workers for human welfare who fail not from generation to generation. The life of the world can never seem petty or dull to those with a realization of the great battle for right always being waged, however small one's own little corner may be. Then the memory of my father's own life must always be an inspiration. But not only in memory does the thought of him abide with his children. How can we reasonably believe that such a vital, sympathetic, far-reaching personality went out like an extinguished light?

"Somewhere, surely, afar,  
In the sounding labor-house vast  
Of being, is practiced that strength,  
Zealous, beneficent, firm."

THE SURVEY is not only a chronicle of work for humanity, but also an inspiration to service. Do its readers altogether realize that when men serve humanity they serve also their children? The desire for wealth, for social prestige, or any form of worldly fortune to bequeath, seems poor compared with a present sharing of wide and worthy interests and the legacy of a memory of life devoted to human service.



THE SHACK

It is near a village of perhaps 200 inhabitants

## FINGER PRINTS

### A TWO-FAMILY APARTMENT

A. H. ESTABROOK<sup>1</sup>

The mother is a feeble-minded woman now about forty-five, who does not know her own age. She cohabited for many years with an ignorant, inefficient, mildly intemperate veteran of the Civil War, much older than herself. The pair had four feeble-minded children, two of whom are now with the mother, the other two being elsewhere in the community reproducing their kind. A few years before the father's death, the woman was legally married to him in order to lay claim to the widow's pension. Eleven years ago the husband died. Since then, the widow, with her pension of \$36 quarterly, has been able to get along without work. In these eleven years, she has had four illegitimate children, three of whom died from neglect. Two years ago the family moved into the barn-like building shown in the illustration—not in a rugged mountainous district, but in a thickly settled farming section of New York state, within easy reach of all the elevating social influences of present-day civilization.

Her shack is divided into two parts. Imagine the visitor's surprise upon rapping at the door on the left to receive an animal-like grunt in reply. Examination proved this part of the house to be a pigpen, now inhabited by a sow and litter of pigs. The door on the right opens into a single room lighted by two windows. Here dwell the mother and her three children: a boy of fifteen, a girl thirteen, and the baby, a puny, underfed, syphilitic and neglected child of seven months. The walls of the room have

<sup>1</sup>Field Worker, Eugenics Record Office, American Breeder's Association.





AFTER THEIR KIND

been covered with wrapping paper, behind which rats can be heard scurrying about and are so bold as to appear in the presence of the family in the daytime. There is a single bed, a table, some chairs and a stove. The stove-pipe leads through a hole in the wall. The outer end of the pipe is fitted with an improvised check draft consisting of an old dish-pan hung over the end. (See the right of picture). Filth abounds everywhere, the two families rivals in this respect, the humans being slightly in the lead.

What is the meaning of this to the community? The woman is an illegitimate child of a feeble-minded mother, herself now the mother of feeble-minded children. What if the originator of this group had been placed in custodial care at the beginning of her reproductive period, and thus have prevented at once the transmission of this defective germ plasm to succeeding generations?

Read, if you will, in the archives of the state the record of the Jukes family and know that this is but a very human footnote to its long-drawn chronicle of poor heredity, of faulty environment when young, of the listlessness of society toward its more helpless members.

Know that the house of the two families is the home of descendants of these same Jukes, who in 1875 numbered 709 persons who could be counted, and probably 500 more of whom all trace had been lost.

## TEMPLES

KATHARINE ANTHONY

Small as the tenement home is for the ordinary daily uses of eating, sleeping, working, living, it becomes pitifully cramped when the use expands into a ceremony. Yet one day there comes to every tenement family an event which changes the dark little flat into a temple of sorrow or a temple of joy.

Such a change came to the Regan flat on a November day when Mrs. Regan's body lay in state in the little sitting-room. In the middle of the tiny box-like chamber the tall, gaunt form of the woman lay at rest in a great, polished casket.

The shutters were closed, though the room was already dark enough at midday to satisfy the requirements of ritual. Four white candles burned at the head and four others at the foot of the bier. The tallest one in each row was left unlighted, for they reached almost to the ceiling and there would have been actual danger of fire.

The young workingman and the two children who stood beside the bier had come in from the flat opposite, for death had literally crowded them out of their little home and neighbors had taken them in to sleep and eat. The casket stood there between the narrow walls as if it had already come to its last resting place. The room seemed indeed more like a mausoleum than a house of life and the home of children.

\* \* \*

The Klauser flat is a three-roomed counterpart of the Regan's. Every Christmas it becomes the scene of a festival. The tiny sitting-room is invaded by a tall balsam tree. The green tyrant stands on the only table the Klausers possess, reaches its head to the ceiling and stretches its branches from wall to wall, obscuring the only two outside windows the Klausers have.

Yet, for all its noble proportions, the tree cost but a quarter. Mrs. Klauser bought it on a falling market late at night on Christmas eve. She has her own way of playing the market, has Mrs. Klauser!

There the balsam tree stands from Christmas to New Year's. Nobody grudges it house room, though Mrs. Klauser's housekeeping is disorganized and Klauser and his pipe are crowded out of their usual corner. The family eat and sit where they can.

And the four little Klausers go to bed every night on a shakedown right under the glorious tinseled branches!



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## CIVICS

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### PLAY CENTERS FOR THE POOR

HENRY DePEYSTER

PARIS

Through the changes which have revolutionized the industrial world, the home life of the poor has suffered. In the morning the household disperses, the younger children being left without care when the parents and older children hurry off to factory or shop. Boys and girls whose childhood is passed under such conditions are not propped up by the family traditions which made the strength of past generations. As they have not been carefully brought up themselves, they will not be able to rear their own children well. It is therefore necessary to give to the children of the poor an illusory home.

So obvious is this truism that in every great manufacturing center charitable organizations have been founded to occupy the playtime of the poor. Of vacation schools none has a more homelike spirit than the *Jugendheim* of Charlottenburg, a suburb of Berlin. The children are gathered together in a few well-lighted rooms arranged as a living apartment. White curtains at the windows and flowers on the shelves produce a pleasant homelike atmosphere. In this quiet home the children learn their lessons, play indoors or in the garden, according to the weather, and are taught handiwork. They grow flowers and vegetables in a large kitchen garden; but, above all, they learn housekeeping. Both boys and girls are taught how to keep the home clean, to mend their clothing, to prepare meals, and to wash their linen. The *Jugendheim* is almost too perfect. Its success is due to careful motherly attention to a chosen few. Moreover, it is of comparatively recent origin. When it was started, ten or twelve years ago, the Swiss and Scandinavian recreational workshops had for many years completed the educational work of the public school.

A Swede has the honor of founding the first recreational workshops for the children of the poor. Anna H. Retzius, daughter of the great philanthropist, Lars Hierta, and wife of the prominent scholar, Gustav Retzius, has inherited a deep affection for the poor and a strong taste for rearing children. She is largely responsible for starting household teaching in Sweden; and afterward, in 1887, she founded the first workshop. This idea has been adopted in many other countries. Mrs. Retzius' experience convinced her that good manual training is the best if not the only way to prevent idleness and to reorganize family life on sound principles. Though no longer young, she has remained the shrewd, young-minded and indefatigable apostle of this fruitful idea. Success has rewarded her efforts. Workshops have been founded all over Sweden, some of which are attended by 500 children every day. So far as known, not a boy in any of the eighty workshops has ever been found guilty of delinquency.

The condition of French, English and American boys is much worse than that of the Swedish. It seems almost chimerical to attempt to wrench from the street all the boys of a large city. In a remarkable address Mrs. Humphrey Ward reckons that charitable organizations ought to offer a daily shelter outside of school hours to at least 760,000 London children.

Such a number is at first disheartening, as it seems hopeless to check the evil. With a clear view of the situation, Mrs. Humphrey Ward has appealed to the London County Council for financial help, as she feels certain that private organizations can not save more than a few chil-

Anna H. Retzius has published several leaflets on the Swedish workshop in French, German and English.

The Playtime of the Poor. By Mrs. Humphrey Ward, London, 1906.



BOY SCOUTS OF ROUEN

They are escorting Kelt Hardle and several hundred British Brotherhood men.





PLAYGROUND OF THE MAISON VERTE

This is the *école de garde* of the McAll Mission, Paris.

dren. Private organizations are, in fact, almost powerless without the help of the state. The largest of the associations in Great Britain entirely supported by private contributions is probably the English Children's Happy Evenings Association. It cares for 14,000 children; but what are 14,000 out of 760,000?

The only way to prevent juvenile delinquency is to organize vacation schools outside of school buildings and without the co-operation of school-masters, but with the financial help of the education boards. Care must be taken to avoid anything that may remind the children of their school hours. A play center does not win a strong grip on a child's mind unless it feels that the center holds in its life the place of love and help the children of bygone times found in their own homes.

But what kind of method is to be adopted? Is manual training to have the first rank almost to the exclusion of other work? Mrs. Retzius strongly believes in its merit, and the handwork shops founded in Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, Russia and Poland are wonderful successes. Their success is partly responsible for the vote of the International Congress of Education assembled at Brussels in 1909 to recommend to education boards the introduction of manual training in every public school.

Somewhat different is Mrs. Humphrey Ward's point of view. She believes that the first task is to make brighter the lives of children who need it. Mrs. Retzius founded workshops; Mrs. Ward organizes play centers. Singing, dancing, playing, and dressing dolls are the main occupations of the children who go to the centers started after Mrs. Ward's design in England, in Italy, and in America.

Owing to different circumstances, the question has been looked at in quite another way in France and in Germany. Children leave school much later in the afternoon. When they come home they have lessons to learn. It was equally impossible to organize workshops after the

Swedish plan or play centers in the true sense of these words. Small private organizations, most of them with a slight inclination to religious proselytism, have founded homely shelters where the children gather after school and work quietly, superintended usually by young girls of the upper classes.

These shelters are no less successful than the Swedish workshops or the English play centers, but, after all, they are not so wholly different. The main point is to give the child a shelter, to make it familiar with moral principles, and to take the place of its family removed by the hard pinch of poverty.

Play is the purpose aimed at by Mrs. Humphrey Ward; but children quickly get tired of mere play and drill, dancing and singing. Dressing dolls and making toys are common features in English play cen-

ters. Even better, easy handwork, joinery or cookery are useful tasks which are most popular with the children.

Manual training has a much larger share in the plan in Sweden. When they leave school at the age of thirteen or fourteen the children who have joined Mrs. Retzius' workshops know how to prepare meals, to cut out and sew dresses or shirts, to repair shoes, to weave mats and rugs, to make brushes, toys and knickknacks of many kinds. All the boys have learned joinery and carpentry. They can furnish their homes with chairs, stools, tables, cupboards, trunks, or shelves, made with their own hands. But at the same time play has never been neglected. In Sweden the manual training teachers go through the teachers' training-school of Naeaes, where they learn old national Swedish dances and games. There is not as sharp opposition in the idea of the Swedish workshops and the English play centers as might appear; there is only a difference in the share of play and work assigned to each element.

France has learned a good deal from the English and from the Swedes. By degrees the French have improved their refuges. Play has been organized. Attention has been given to manual training. But the question is far from being solved. In every country the want of helpers makes it necessary either to welcome few children or to leave them almost undirected. The most perfect of the refuges for children is the *Jugendheim* of Charlottenburg, but it offers a shelter to only a bare handful of boys and girls. The most important society is the Playground and Recreation Association of America. It has helped to found play centers which welcome more children than all the other bodies together. But though the American associations have an income several times larger than that of all the other associations of the world combined, it seems, at least to an outsider, that their shelters are often merely playgrounds, and that too many children are under the supervision of



very few teachers or helpers.

This may, however, be quite a false impression and involves, of course, no criticism of the admirable movement for playgrounds. The Playground Association of America, however, is a power organization, and the playgrounds themselves are too extensive to give the children the illusion of a home. On this score they are inferior to the *Jugendheim*.

A recreation school is almost useless if a child can not find a shelter within it whenever his parents are not at home. It is quite a charming idea to ask young ladies of the upper classes to come once a week or once a fortnight to teach poor children. But what good does it afford to the children who remain undirected and unprotected every other afternoon in the week? The English play centers of the Children's Happy Evenings Association and the French patronages or *écoles du jendi* are of no moral effect. The money wasted entertaining 20,000 or 25,000 children once a week could be better used to give a permanent shelter to a much smaller number.

Organizers of recreation schools must bear in mind that the children of the poor are in every way undirected. In bygone times the father used to teach his sons how to furnish the home; the mother used to show her daughters how to keep it clean and how to prepare the meals. This breaking up of poor families has largely contributed to the progress of vice. Intoxication is the deadly and unavoidable entertainment of men who are unable to busy themselves at home and find a bad dinner when they come home tired from work.

The result a play center must aim at is not the training of clever handicraftsmen; it is to make



A HOLIDAY GATHERING OF PUPILS.

Thursday in the French Public Schools is a half holiday.

poor people able to furnish their homes better and to make much of their clothing. It must seek to breed in their hearts a strong taste for family life. It must put the poor women in a position to earn decent wages at home, where they can watch over their children. From these aims proceeds the method to be adopted in play centers. To prove thoroughly effective vacation schools must be continued all the year, and especially during the holiday months, when the children are left undirected the entire day.

A great effort ought to be made all over the world for the expansion of vacation schools, as there is no other way of preventing juvenile delinquency. Prevention is more effective than punishment and more consistent with Christian principles. It is a task grand enough to join together all those who take an interest in the condition of the poor.

## GOVERNOR SULZER'S FINANCIAL PROGRAM

PAUL C. WILSON

NEW YORK BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH

Governor Sulzer deserves the commendation of the citizens of all states as well as of New York for having recognized, almost immediately upon assuming office, the necessity for reorganizing the financial methods of the state. To learn where improvements were possible he appointed a committee of inquiry to study the effect of the methods now employed by the legislature and the various departments in appropriating and disbursing state funds.

As a result of this committee's inquiry, Assemblyman Levy has introduced a group of interesting bills. The object of these measures is to remedy improper administrative conditions by securing adequate control of the state's finances, which have long been in confusion, to prevent waste and extravagance. These bills aim first to improve the method of preparing the annual

budget; second, to effect economies in the state contracts and supply purchases by establishing a board for the central control of supply contracts; third, to secure more careful audit in the office and field by the state comptroller.

These results are to be effected by the following proposed innovations:

1. Establishing a new State Department of Efficiency and Economy to make general and specific recommendations to the governor concerning any branch of the state service.
2. Establishing a State Board of Estimate of nine members to consider the budget estimates, in order that it may make proper recommendations to the legislature.
3. Establishing a State Board of Contract and Supply of seven members, with exclu-



sive authority to let contracts for furnishings, materials and supplies.

4. Requiring (a) the comptroller's approval for all state contracts in excess of \$1,000; (b) immediate notice to the comptroller when any liability is incurred, and (c) that he shall receive a duplicate invoice for every supply simultaneously with its delivery to the state office.

5. Permitting the comptroller to appoint counsel and other necessary employees and to issue subpoenas for persons and records in order to prove claims presented.

It is certainly in harmony with modern methods of public administration that the governor of New York state should be provided with an agency to furnish him general and specific information concerning the government under his charge as provided for in Assembly Bill No. 1152. In the office of commissioners of accounts the mayor of New York city has had at his disposal service of this character for more than thirty years. The establishment of the new state department follows the example set by ex-President Taft, who established the President's Commission on Economy and Efficiency.

Many features of this bill are excellent, such as the power granted the commissioner to prescribe the forms upon which detailed information shall be furnished him and the power to issue subpoenas for persons and records in any examination being conducted by him. Certain important features, however, are somewhat hazy, and the effectiveness of the legislation would probably be increased if definite provisions were made for:

1. Publicity of all the commissioner's recommendations and reports.
2. Public access to reports, records, etc.
3. Removal of the commissioner upon charges or at the will of the governor.
4. Definite qualifications for the higher grades of employes of this department.
5. Independent examination and investigation by the commissioner; and
6. The submission of all budget estimates and supplemental requests for funds in quadruplicate to the governor, the senate, the assembly, and the commissioner of efficiency and economy.

The proposed State Board of Estimate provided for in Assembly Bill No. 1149 consists of nine members, five of whom, including the lieutenant-governor, are drawn from the legislature. The principal working member of this committee would be the new commissioner of efficiency and economy. This board is practically a conference committee, since it is granted no power by the legislature except to investigate and to make recommendations to the legislature relative to the budget estimates. The Board of Estimate has no power by which it can make its recommendations effective. All of the duties imposed on this new board could probably be discharged more effectively by the commissioner of efficiency and economy if he were required to present the result of his budget investigations and

examinations to the governor, the Senate and the Assembly, without having first to submit his report for preliminary approval to the State Board of Estimate.

The chief question to be considered with respect to the bill presented for a central purchasing agency for the state is whether the control of purchase should be given to a board of seven members rather than to one official to be appointed by the governor. As in the case of the State Board of Estimate, the members of the proposed supply board have other important duties, requiring the major portion of their attention. Practically the only working member is the new commissioner of efficiency and economy. Moreover, all will be members of the proposed State Board of Estimate. Thus the same individuals who in large degree determine the amount of money available for purchase of furnishings, etc., will make contracts for those purchases. A single head of a department of this character would, if properly controlled through reports and audits by the Department of Efficiency and Economy, prove more efficient than a board of ex-officio members.

The bills affecting the duties of the state comptroller should be amended to give that official power to conduct a field as well as an office audit of all state revenues and expenditures.

The bill for the establishment of the new Department of Efficiency and Economy, if clarified and strengthened by amendment, should be adopted by the New York Legislature.

It is suggested that action upon the bills establishing the new Board of Estimate and the new Board of Contract and Supply might well await definite recommendations for legislation on these two subjects to be prepared by the new commissioner of efficiency and economy after he has had time to make a comprehensive examination and study of the present conditions.

## MAKING CITIZENS IN LOS ANGELES

DANA W. BARTLETT

Member California Immigration Commission

The Board of Education of Los Angeles has undertaken the education in citizenship of the resident aliens. A large number of elementary schools are open for evening instruction to adults, where the pupils are taught not only to read but also to learn the fundamentals of citizenship. These schools are largely attended by men and women of many races.

One school is set aside for those who are preparing to take out their second papers. The instruction is based on a schedule prepared by the local naturalization officer and by the special teachers. Those who finish this three months' course pass an almost perfect examination before the court. Following the granting of the second papers to the members of the class the judge instructs them to go to the high school auditorium, for a public recognition service.

The last recognition service was held in the auditorium of the Los Angeles high school. The new citizens sat on the stage as guests of honor. The high school orchestra furnished vocal music in several languages; Mr. Jones, the federal



naturalization officer addressed the audience, composed largely of foreigners; Judge Wills, the presiding judge, gave a speech; the editor of a German paper spoke for the naturalized citizens; Mayor Alexander, himself once an immigrant, welcomed the men to their new duties; and the writer gave the right hand of citizenship, making the occasion seem almost like an initiation service.

The director of the high school social center has organized the men into a new citizens' club, for further study and discussion. This recognition service will be repeated each month, as the succeeding classes pass through the court. Two other suggestions have been made. One is a correspondence school, to be conducted in the interest of those who cannot finish the entire three months in the citizenship school. The other is that those who graduate from the school shall receive a certificate which may be offered to the court in lieu of a public examination.

Because of the great increase in immigration after the opening of the Panama Canal, Los Angeles feels the special need of training foreigners to become leaders among the many alien residents of the Pacific Coast.

### NEWSBOYS' REPUBLIC

B. E. KUECHLE

Wisconsin Industrial Commission

The Milwaukee Newsboys' Republic recently celebrated the inauguration of its first officials. The event was attended by many prominent men, including Governor McGovern, who delivered the main address of the evening.

The republic grew out of the difficulty of enforcing the Milwaukee Street Trades Law without the co-operation of the boys themselves. Its objects are stated in the preamble of the constitution:

"We, the newsboys of the city of Milwaukee, in order to become familiar with the daily duties of American citizenship, to familiarize ourselves more closely with the machinery of government in a representative democracy, to promote the welfare of our fellow citizens and to enforce the Street Trades Law, to learn the methods employed by our government officials in the performance of their work and arouse among our colleagues patriotic motives in the performance of their every-day duties, and to train ourselves in parliamentary practice, do bind ourselves, ordain and establish this constitution for the newsboys of Milwaukee."

Early last October Supervisor Powell of the Milwaukee Street Trades Department began to interest leaders among newsboys in the plan for a republic. The work was done entirely by the boys, most of them under sixteen years of age, advised by Mr. Powell and other social workers. The constitution, representing hours of labor and study, was adopted by a mass meeting of the newsboys.

The young legislators provided for all phases of government. The legislative department consists of a senate and a house of representatives. The city is divided into six states, among which

congressmen are apportioned in proportion to the number of citizens. Each state has four senators. Congressmen are elected from among the boys at annual elections, while senators are appointed by the president, with the approval of the house, from among men interested in the republic.

The executive department consists of a president and a vice-president, elected by direct vote of the boys. A cabinet is appointed by the president, consisting of secretaries of state, the treasury, athletics, health and welfare, and the interior, and an attorney general.

The judicial department is vested in a supreme court, one inferior federal court, and such other inferior courts as Congress may establish. The supreme court is to consist of men acting for the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, which has supervision over the administration of the Street Trades Law. Mr. Powell is to act as chief justice. The inferior court is to consist of two men appointed by the Industrial Commission, and three boys elected annually by their comrades.

Immediately after the adoption of the constitution two parties, the Peoples Party and the Independent Party, were formed. Conventions were held at which candidates were nominated and platforms adopted. After an active campaign, with several large meetings by each party, the first election resulted in the victory of the Independent Party candidates.

### DULUTH SETS GOOD HOUSING STANDARDS

The national awakening to the importance of wholesome housing for the people of our cities has begun to show in constructive legislation. In half a dozen of our cities official commissions and citizen's committees are drafting laws or ordinances designed to set a standard which will assure that their homes in the future will at least be well lighted and well ventilated, provided with water and with sanitary toilet facilities and reasonably well safe guarded against the fire hazard. Among these half dozen Duluth has been the first to actually enact its proposals into law, following the example of Columbus which a short time ago celebrated the close of the first year of successful enforcement of its housing code.

The Duluth code, like that of Columbus, followed an investigation of local housing conditions which showed that Duluth, like every other city which has let things go, houses some of its people in dark interior rooms and dark, damp basements; that it has room overcrowding and lot overcrowding; and that its toilet facilities were in many instances not conducive either to decency or to health.

The first result of these discoveries was the appointment by the Common Council, on the recommendation of the mayor, of a housing committee. This committee at once set about the task of drafting an ordinance, based, like the Columbus code, upon the model law. A draft of this ordinance was submitted to the National Housing Association for comment, it was made the subject of several public hearings in Duluth and finally passed by a vote of 9 to 6.



At the hearings a considerable amount of opposition developed, some of it due to the fear of the speculators that their profits would be curtailed; some to an honest misunderstanding of the scope of the ordinance and its effect upon real estate investments. The hearings convinced most of the second class of objectors that the proposed legislation would not interfere with legitimate building and that proper regulation in other cities had encouraged rather than discouraged the erection of houses.

Hereafter in Duluth both tenement houses and single family dwellings must have enough open space on their lots to light and ventilate every room, rooms must be large enough for habitation and must have windows opening to the outer air, the height of wooden tenement houses will be limited and other safeguards provided against fire. Every new tenement house must have within each apartment a proper sink with running water and a water closet located either in a bathroom or in a separate compartment. Every dwelling house, when water main and sewer are accessible, must also have running water and a water closet within the house.

For existing houses the regulations, of course, are not so strict as for new buildings; but for them also the standards have been raised in the interests of decency and health. So Duluth takes its place among the cities of America that are intelligently safeguarding the people's homes.

#### JOTTINGS

##### MUNICIPAL RESEARCH REACHES OSSINING

Ossining, N. Y., is ambitious to become a model town both in municipal procedure and in public welfare work. As a step toward realizing this goal the village has engaged a non-resident, D. O. Decker, to perform the duties of village clerk. Application was made to the New York Bureau of Municipal Research for a man who could install a new system of accounting, establish a classified budget and cost records. The village officials plan to hold public budget hearings, and later on a budget exhibit. The work is being done in co-operation with the Westchester County Research Bureau, and will involve health reforms as well as changes in accounting and office methods.

##### NEW JERSEY HOUSING CONFERENCE

During the second National Housing Conference, which was held in Philadelphia last December, the New Jersey delegates decided to arrange for a state housing conference in March. W. L. Kinkead of Paterson was elected chairman and instructed to appoint a committee of nine to arrange for this meeting.

Through the courtesy of Col. Franklin Murphy, Jr., the committee held its first meeting on January 28 at the Essex Club, Newark. It was decided to hold the conference in the Newark City Hall on March 28. Three sessions will be held, at 10:00 A. M., at 2:30 P. M. and at 7:45 P. M. Lawrence Veiller has agreed to preside at the evening meeting, at which it is expected a state housing association will be organized.

The need of a housing association in New

Jersey was forcefully urged two years ago by Mr. Veiller before the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction. Mr. Veiller said: "First of all, you are to see that there is an organized public sentiment behind the work that has been done in the past and that is now being done. If you want to improve housing conditions in New Jersey, if you want to stop manufacturing poverty, vice, crime and disease, you have got to do something yourselves. The people of New Jersey have got to show that they care about it, and when they do show that and show it in an organized way, you will get results and get them quickly."

##### CIVIC LEAGUE VICTORY IN CONNECTICUT

Agitation by the local Civic League for an improved water supply for New Canaan, Conn., recently won, through the Public Utilities Commission, a victory which may lead to important results throughout the state. The league, aided by an engineer and a sanitary expert, after a three-day hearing at Hartford, secured an order directing the private water company to install a filtration plant and equipment to purge the water of all odor and color.

The lawyer for the water company in his brief declared that if the request of the petitioners was granted the previous railroad work of the commission would be small in comparison with what was ahead in adjudicating similar appeals relating to water supply in other towns. "The commission," said one of the petitioners after the verdict had been handed down, "has rendered this decision, so let us hope that good days are ahead for Connecticut in regard to water supply, and that it may lead to an efficient system of state inspection."

##### HOUSTON ADOPTS SOMERS TAX SYSTEM

Houston has adopted the Somers system of taxes which has already been introduced in Cleveland and Columbus, O., and Springfield and East St. Louis, Ill. In this system the citizens take part in the appraisement of their lands and buildings. Maps are made of the various sections of the city and men familiar with city values make a tentative value of a front foot of a middle lot on the block. Then various citizens and municipal organizations consider this value and give their estimate. After the value of this middle lot is agreed upon by the Board of Appraisers all other lots are assessed in proportion to their accessibility to those advantages which create land values. Buildings are measured as to size and considered as to quality of building material. The assessment is proportioned to the price per square foot of floor space.

In Houston land values are assessed at seventy cents on the dollar and improvements at twenty-five cents. Personal property for the most part is exempt. The inequalities of the previous taxes may be judged, says the *American City*, by the fact that the new assessment "raises the total from \$64,000,000 in 1910 to \$94,000,000 in 1912 and yet more than 3,000 property owners paid less taxes at the \$1.50 tax rate in 1912 than they did at the \$1.70 tax rate of 1910."



## HEALTH

**A** NEW habit-forming drug has suddenly come to public notice, and the increasing number of cases of its use has startled physicians as well as laymen. Heroin, which is a comparatively new opium derivative, has been popular with physicians as a mild and supposedly harmless sedative, and is often prescribed for coughs. It seems that doctors who would not think of giving any other opium derivative without great care have been using it incautiously. Indeed, in some instances, they have even prescribed it for morphine habitués as a harmless substitute for a harmful drug.

A short while ago the Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago discovered several youthful cases of heroin addiction, as serious and as hard to control as if the drug had been morphine. They found also that heroin could easily be bought by boys. Not only does the law framed to cover the habit-forming drugs fail to mention heroin, but druggists who are fairly conscientious and who would not think of selling morphine illicitly feel no scruple about heroin. The various cough remedies that contain this drug are usually claimed to be quite harmless, and of course the ordinary citizen has no knowledge to offset such a statement. Medical journals are beginning to warn their readers that heroin is a dangerous habit-forming drug, and recommend that cities which are framing laws to control the sale of such drugs include all possible derivatives of opium.

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**MUCH** as we have heard of late concerning epidemic poliomyelitis, our knowledge is still fragmentary. The medical world and the public are waiting for the results of the experimental research which is still being carried on under Dr. Flexner at the Rockefeller Institute. In his last report Dr. Flexner tells of attempts to prove how this disease is transmitted in cases where there has been no direct exposure. He describes one instance in which it was possible to prove that the virus was present in the sweepings from the sick room. But clinical observations have tended to show that healthy persons may act as carriers of the infection and it was this point that Flexner set himself to examine. It is a difficult task to prove the presence of this virus, for, as has already been explained in *THE SURVEY*, it is invisible. The only demonstration is to implant it in a susceptible animal, when it may cause the symptoms characteristic of acute infantile paralysis. Flexner has just succeeded in proving by this method that the virus was present on the mucous membrane of the nose and throat of the parents of a child who was suffering from acute epidemic poliomyelitis. This

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, November 23, 1912, p. 241.

means that healthy persons who come in contact with the disease may act as carriers of the infection without showing any warning symptoms themselves.

\* \* \*

**T**HERE have been 30,000 to 50,000 cases of pellagra in the United States within the last six years, with a death-rate of about 39 per cent. These figures constitute only a rough estimate of the number of cases, owing to the incomplete machinery for securing vital statistics in this country.

Lavinder of the United States Public Health Service has gathered figures on the prevalence and distribution of pellagra in the United States. Figures have been secured from state authorities, from public institutions and from private sources. A map shows that pellagra has been reported from every state in the Union except New Hampshire in the east, and the group of western and northwestern states comprising Minnesota, Montana, the two Dakotas, Utah, Wyoming, Idaho and Nevada. The greatest prevalence is found in the group usually spoken of as the southern states. In only one state is the disease reportable by law. Pellagra cannot be compared in prevalence with such a disease as typhoid fever, for example, yet the large number of cases and the high mortality-rate together with its wide and apparently increasing distribution make it a disease of grave national importance.

The cause of pellagra is still an unsolved problem, on which students here and in Europe are eagerly working. When the disease was first discovered in this country, we took it for granted that the conclusions of the Italian scientists would apply here. The Italians have had opportunity to study pellagra a long time. They have diagnosed it to be a disease of the abjectly poor, chiefly the peasants, and have supposed that it was caused by the lack of some needed substance in the diet, as would be the case with an almost exclusive corn-meal diet, or to some poison in the food, as from a diet of partly spoiled corn.

\* \* \*

**BUT** when American physicians began to study the cases over here they found that many of them would not fit the Italian theory at all. Several differences were found between Italian and American pellagra, for it is not in this country a disease of the extremely poor, but is one to which women are peculiarly liable. In some places there are more than three times as many women afflicted with it as men. As in Italy, it is more rural than urban, but small cities and towns are not free from it.

These facts have made American observers to a great extent give up the corn-meal theory and



look further for the cause. The preponderance of women victims leads Beall to insist that the cause must be sought for "in and about the house," and various insects have been suggested as conveyors of the infection. Sambon believes that certain species of the black fly or sand fly carry it, but this theory has not been confirmed. More lately Jennings and King have suggested that it is the biting stable fly—*Stomoxys Calcitrans*—the same insect which has also been accused of transmitting epidemic poliomyelitis. Their arguments are based on what may be called purely circumstantial evidence, ruling out the insects which would attack men and women equally, and emphasizing the fact that in the communities where pellagra is found the women do the milking and are near the stables more than the men. The next step, of course, is to prove or disprove the insect-borne hypothesis by animal experiments. As it is now, public health officials and superintendents of insane asylums where the disease is prevalent are utterly at a loss to know how to keep the infection from spreading.

\* \* \*

OUR knowledge of the causes of infectious diseases has advanced not uniformly, but by leaps and bounds as new methods have been developed and new incentives have arisen. With the evolution of bacteriology, following the work of Pasteur and Koch, there was a rapid expansion in our knowledge of infections. The discovery that Texas fever was transmitted by the tick started extensive studies on the relation of insects to the transmission of disease. The demonstration that certain diseases are due to germs too small to be seen through the microscope rapidly led to a study of many obscure diseases and cleared away much of the confusion regarding them.

In addition, greater experience in interpreting results; the training and development of men for research; the foundation and endowment of large institutions for research, such as the Rockefeller Institute, the Memorial Institute and the Hygienic Laboratory of the United States Public Health Service, and the adoption of new methods by research workers, have made possible the recent increase in our knowledge of this class of diseases.

The use of the monkey for experimental purposes, instead of the small animals usually employed, has contributed more than any other factor to the important recent additions to our knowledge of the acute infections, says the *Journal of the American Medical Association*. Recent work has shown that the monkey is susceptible to a number of diseases which affect man but which are transmissible with difficulty, if at all, to the small laboratory animals, such as rabbits, rats and guinea-pigs. Without the monkey as an experimental animal our knowledge of typhus fever, poliomyelitis, measles, cerebro-spinal meningitis and scarlet fever would not have made its recent great advances.

But the application of this knowledge to the control and eradication of the diseases has not

kept pace with its acquisition. With a few notable exceptions, such as the control of yellow fever through mosquito eradication and of bubonic plague by rat campaigns, health authorities have been slow to apply the great mass of information now available to them by reason of the researches of the last few years. What at present is more needed perhaps than research is a more general application of the results already at hand.

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AN analysis of the legislation relating to two rather newly recognized dangers, the common drinking-cup and the roller towel, is given in a recent Public Health Bulletin (No. 57) of the United States Public Health Service. It seems that the public drinking-cup was looked upon as a serious danger in times of epidemic centuries ago.

Statements in the available literature make it appear that as early as 1564 during an epidemic in Strassburg individual communion cups were used at the suggestion of a professor of theology to prevent the propagation of disease through this medium. A similar statement is made by Martin for the city of Chiavenna, Italy. The records of the Protestant church at Bopfingen, Wurtemberg, show in the inventory of 1703 "one small gold-plated cup for the sick, one tin cup for infected persons." Similar tin cups were carried on the inventories as late as 1832. The danger of contracting various infections, especially syphilis, was emphasized during the eighteenth century by Metzgar Hufeland and other writers.

The question as to actual danger from the common drinking-cup centered at first, in this country at least, around the communion cup, but presently came to include all vessels used for public drinking. As to what we actually know about this danger it may be briefly stated that bacteriological examinations have shown the presence of diphtheria bacilli and pus-forming bacteria in the dregs of wine in communion cups, and on the edge of drinking-cups used in railways, schools and offices. It is probable that tubercle bacilli are also present, but they are far more difficult to demonstrate. The same is true of the infectious agent of syphilis.

Kansas was the first state to pass a regulation against the common drinking-cup in 1909. Then Michigan and Mississippi followed. Massachusetts passed the first law to abolish the common drinking-cup in 1910, and at present there are twenty-six states and one territory which have either a law or a regulation for this purpose. In addition many large cities have passed ordinances of their own.

The evidence against the common roller towel seems to be not as conclusive as that against drinking-cups, and apparently this source of infection has not caught the attention either of the public, or of scientists as much as has the former. Nine states only have taken action against the public roller towel and in some of these the restriction applies only to schools or to railroads.



# RESTRAINT FOR CERTAIN CONSUMPTIVES

H. W. CAREY, M. D.

To those who have followed the development of the tuberculosis crusade in New York state the great progress made in the last five years under the guidance of the State Charities Aid Association and the State Department of Health must be evident. Credit is due both these organizations for educating the people of the state as to the best ways of combating the spread of the disease, for building county hospitals and sanatoria, and establishing dispensaries for the care of consumptives.

The slogan of the anti-tuberculosis societies, "No Uncared-for Tuberculosis in 1915," seems in a fair way to be realized in so far as it relates to the opportunity afforded to consumptives for treatment and supervision either at home or in hospitals. At the present rate of increase in the number of county hospitals there will soon be sufficient accommodation for all who should have hospital care.

The care of consumptives in hospitals affords the public the most effective protection and, except in few instances, offers the sufferer the best chance of recovery. But only a small percentage of the afflicted will consent to enter hospitals, and most cases must, therefore, be supervised at home.

The supervision of consumptives at home, however successful it may be in effecting the cure of the afflicted individual, assures but slight protection from infection for well people. Supervision must be intermittent at best and from a public health standpoint cannot be considered successful.

Many consumptives, moreover, will neither submit to hospital treatment nor observe at home the precautions necessary for the protection of those about them. At present no authority can be exercised over cases of this sort. They can not be forced to enter hospitals and if they do seek admission they can leave whenever they wish. Consumptives under home supervision are entirely without control.

Something more is needed than merely to create opportunities for consumptives to receive treatment. Some restraint should be exercised over them if the public is to be protected against the disease. The following figures, taken from the records of the Lakeview Sanatorium in Troy support this contention. There were 304 patients with tuberculosis of the lungs admitted up to October 1, 1912; 152 (just half) of these were discharged, only twenty-six of them on the advice or with the consent of the physician. Of the remainder 119 left against advice and seven were dismissed for conduct prejudicial to the discipline of the institution. The twenty-six patients leaving with consent can be classified as follows: Incipient, with no tubercle bacilli in the sputum sixteen; moderately advanced four; advanced six. In other words 136 out of the 152 patients discharged were in open, infectious

stages of the disease capable of transmitting it to others.

The length of time these patients remained in the sanatorium is given in the following table:

Months	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12 or over	Total
Incipient	10	1	3	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	18
Moderately Advanced	17	8	0	2	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	2	32
Advanced	57	10	13	5	4	5	0	3	3	1	0	1	102
Total	84	19	16	7	5	7	2	3	4	1	0	4	152

It will be seen that the duration of treatment for more than half of these patients (eighty-four) was one month or less. It was less than six months for 131. The time for almost all was far too short to effect much lasting benefit to the patients while the protection afforded the families of the patients and the public in general was of such short duration as to be almost negligible.

In the patients discharged against advice it was found that the chief predisposing factor in seventy-three cases was alcohol. The greater number of these will probably resume their former habits of living after discharge and in all probability suffer a relapse of the disease. The remaining seventy-nine cases can be grouped in three classes: those temperamentally unsuited to hospital life, the ignorant or indifferent, and the unmanageable. Among those temperamentally unsuited to sanatorium life may be placed those who are homesick or worried over family affairs. Such cases are not numerous but when they do occur it is better that they be supervised at home if it is possible to do so.

As an example of the ignorant or indifferent group is the case of a man forty-four years old who was admitted in August, 1910, to the Troy sanatorium with moderately advanced pulmonary tuberculosis. The sputum contained tubercle bacilli in abundance. The patient had been unable to work for three months previous to admission, but he improved greatly under treatment. He left in October, although warned that it was not safe for him to do so. He was visited in his home and it was found that for lack of room one of his three children slept with him and the other two were with him constantly during the day. The oldest child did the housework and attended to her father while the mother worked out to support the family. The patient was instructed to sleep alone, was given a tent and recliner and kept supplied with sputum cups. He followed instructions only indifferently. He was readmitted to the sanatorium in February, 1911, with the disease advanced. He improved considerably under treatment but left again in March against advice. Home conditions remained unchanged. In July, 1911, he applied for readmission again and remained until Sep-



tember, showing little change. He was visited in his home by a nurse and occasionally by a physician before he died the following winter. During his last stay in the sanatorium his oldest daughter developed tuberculosis and was admitted to the state hospital at Ray Brook.

This patient could contribute nothing to the support of his family. He knew that his wife could scarcely support herself and the children and that his care only added to her burden. He realized that he was constantly exposing his children to the disease and yet he was grossly careless in following instructions given for their protection. He realized too that he did much better in the sanatorium than at home, yet he could not be prevailed upon to remain there.

A man thirty-one years old who was admitted to the Troy sanatorium in December, 1910, with advanced tuberculosis of the lungs is a fair type of the unmanageable group of patients encountered in institutions. He lived in the home of his sister part of the time but most of the year wandered about the country working as a helper on farms. Under treatment he improved but

left against advice in January, 1911. He was readmitted on seven different occasions and was twice dismissed for misconduct toward other patients and his nurses. During the past summer he worked on a dairy farm that supplied milk to a large city. Because he had a hemorrhage while at work he was discharged. Shortly afterward he was arrested for vagrancy and served sixty days in jail. He was very careless in the disposal of his sputum and did just as he liked both in and out of the sanatorium.

Indifferent or ignorant and unmanageable consumptives are surprisingly numerous, and I believe that the records of other county hospitals will support this opinion. It is obvious that if the crusade against tuberculosis is to be successful restraint of some kind must be placed upon consumptives of these types. They constitute a source of infection of the most dangerous kind. The remedy lies in legislation that will make it possible to compel consumptives who will not protect those about them, to accept hospital care and permit their detention there until they have recovered or are no longer infectious.

## DUST AND PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS<sup>1</sup>

LOUIS I. DUBLIN, Ph.D.

STATISTICIAN METROPOLITAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

That there is a direct causal relation between the prevalence of occupational dust and the incidence of pulmonary tuberculosis has been accepted as proved by sociologists and vital statisticians generally. Reference need only be made to the frequent occurrence of tuberculosis as a cause of death in those occupations known as the "dusty trades." Yet this evidence is not in itself entirely convincing. Experimental laboratory demonstration of the close relation existing between the inhalation of dust and the production of pulmonary disease is, therefore, of great value as it is the one link in the chain necessary to make the evidence complete.

Such evidence is now available in a report on experiments made by Dr. Cesa-Bianchi, recently published in *Il Lavoro* (Vol. V, 21), journal of the Milan Clinic for Occupational Diseases. Dr. Cesa-Bianchi subjected guinea-pigs to the inhalation of air containing quantities of mineral dust for from two to four hours daily during eight to ten weeks. He found that in these robust, well-nourished animals with healthy respiratory systems, the dust alone did not produce grave lesions in the respiratory organs. The animals, however, were not left entirely unaffected by the continued inhalation of dust, as is shown by a series of later experiments.

To determine whether there was increased susceptibility to tuberculosis in animals so treated, Dr. Cesa-Bianchi subjected a number to infection. Each one received a single injection, either subcutaneous or intraperitoneal, of

attenuated tubercle bacilli. As a control, a number of healthy guinea-pigs, not previously exposed to mineral dust, received similar injections and were thenceforth kept under identical conditions. Finally, as an additional check, two animals that had been subjected to dust were kept under normal conditions without receiving any bacilli.

The results of these experiments may be summarized as follows:

1. The guinea-pigs subjected to the inhalation of dust and later kept under normal conditions showed no noteworthy degeneration, even after an autopsy.

2. Almost all the control animals (those that were injected with the tuberculous material without having been previously subjected to the inhalation of dust) survived. A few died within two months after the infection.

3. All the guinea-pigs which had been subjected to the inhalation of the dust and which were later exposed to the tuberculous injections, succumbed to violent pulmonary tuberculosis. In some, the degenerative process had a rapid course; in most, however, the process was slower. The animals wasted away steadily and did not suffer death until two or three months had elapsed after injection. In these cases grave lesions of the respiratory organs were almost always found on autopsy, as well as lesions in other organs.

Although these experiments leave much to be desired because of the small number of animals involved and the total absence of statistical data in the descriptions, two conclusions are justified:

<sup>1</sup>A review of experiments made by Dr. Cesa-Bianchi of the Milan Clinic for Occupational Diseases.



First, that mineral dust, though in itself unable to produce extensive lesions of the respiratory organs, nevertheless constitutes an important contributing factor in developing susceptibility to tuberculous infection.

Second, that when an animal has been subject to the inhalation of dust, tuberculous lesions of the respiratory organs develop regardless of the point of entry of the infection.

To apply these conclusions to the more general problem of the effect of dust on industrial workers, we need only recall that workers in

the "dusty trades" are constantly exposed to possible tuberculous infection through channels such as milk and other foods, dried sputum, and from contact with materials infected from other sources. Whatever be the point of entry of the tuberculous material, whether through skin abrasions, the alimentary tract, or the respiratory system, the bacilli ultimately find their way to the lungs where they develop characteristic lesions in tissue whose normal resistance has been lowered through earlier inaction and irritation by dust.

## HEREDITY AND RESPONSIBILITY<sup>1</sup>

ALICE HAMILTON, M. D.

Heredity has become a word to conjure with, and few of us now dare voice our inner protest when scientists tell us that all characteristics, mental and moral as well as physical, are predetermined in the germ cell, the result of age-long heredity and utterly unaffected by subsequent environment. We have been told that "laziness is due to inheritance or to parasites, the latter can be cured, the former never. Law breakers and murderers should be pitied; if blame attaches to their deeds, it falls on the marriage bureau and the parents. The world needs hospitals and sanatoria and sterilization institutes for the criminal and vicious, and punishments should be visited only upon the parents to the third and fourth generations. As all teaching, all government, becomes illogical and men are useful or useless members of society according to their inheritance, the only hope of the race is in eugenics—always supposing that enough freedom is left to men or to society to control the important function of choosing a mate."

In earlier times the adherents of such a theory of human responsibility were called predestinationists. Heredity then was the will of God, "His eternal purpose, whereby for His own glory He hath foreordained whatsoever comes to pass." But these rugged Calvinists and Port Royalists never followed their theory to its logical conclusion, as do the preformationists of today. Indeed, they presented the amazing paradox of at once denying free will and insisting upon the sternest morality. Their common sense and knowledge of their own natures was too great to permit them to accept the freedom of responsibility for their actions which their Paulist theology implied.

Nor has the world at large ever been able to accept such a theory, whether stated in theological or scientific language; yet if it is scientifically true it must be accepted, no matter at what cost. It is therefore a pleasure to see, in a recent copy of *Science*, a paper by Prof. Edwin G. Conklin of Princeton University, which discusses the results of scientific studies of heredity and weighs the actual evidence in support of such radical conclusions as that quoted above.

The paper is sane, judicial, and at the same time delightful reading.

Professor Conklin says that students of development, whether it be that of the individual or of the race, are like those early mariners who sailed the dreaded strait between Scylla and Charybdis; "in shunning the Scylla of predetermination they fall into the whirlpools of no-determination, while the narrow channel of truth runs somewhere between these two." At present there can be no doubt that we are sailing nearer the pre-formation coast than at any time since the modern study of development began under von Baer. "We formerly heard that all men were created free and equal. We now learn that all men are created bound and unequal. We once thought that men were free to do right or wrong, and that they were responsible for their deeds. Now we learn that our reactions are predetermined by heredity, and that we can no more control them than we can control our heart beats."

Emphasis must, of course, be placed upon the complexity of the germ plasma and the intrinsic factors of development, which do fix by heredity the main characteristics. "Race, sex, character are predetermined in the germ cell, and perhaps in the chromosomes, and all the possibilities of our lives are there fixed, for who by taking thought can add one chromosome to his organization?" But it is the possibilities that are fixed, not the actual characteristics which will emerge. It is one thing to say that all the potentialities of our lives are marked out in the germ, and another to hold that all that will actually develop from the germ is there determined, and cannot be altered. The characteristics which will actually appear depend not only on the potentialities in the germ, but also upon many complicated reactions of the germinal units with one another and with the environment. "In short our actual personalities are not predetermined in the germ cell, but our possible personalities are."

Professor Conklin goes on to consider the potentialities of development which are great—the physical in lower animals, the mental and moral in man—so far greater indeed than the actualities, that many must remain latent because not called out by environment. The organism

<sup>1</sup>Review of a paper by Prof. Edwin G. Conklin of Princeton, which appeared in *Science*, vol. 37, 1913.



develops in response to stimuli, internal or external, and habits are formed by repeated responses which by repetition become more rapid and perfect. The simple response to external stimuli is gradually changed or inhibited by the appearance of internal stimuli which are the result of hereditary constitution and past experience, for behavior is determined, not only by present stimulus and hereditary constitution, but also by the experiences through which the organism has passed and the habits he has formed.

Responsibility consists of the ability of an individual to respond to rational, social and ethical stimuli, and to inhibit responses to stimuli of an opposite nature. As we have seen, responsibility then depends partly upon the environment with its complexity of stimuli, and partly upon the capacity of individuals to respond to these stimuli. A man might be quite responsible in savage society, who would be quite irresponsible in civilized communities. Also the capacity to respond to stimuli varies in different men according not only to inheritance, but to training, habits and physiological states, for it is different at different times in the same individual.

Man has of all animals the most extensive and varied environment, and its effect upon his personality is correspondingly great. He has also the longest period of immaturity, during which time stimuli from his environment modify his development, and it is largely environment which determines whether or not the hereditary possibilities will develop or will remain latent.

Carrying his conclusions into the field of practical sociology Professor Conklin urges great caution upon the advocates of state control of marriage and the scientific breeding of the race. Speaking of eugenics, "that infant industry," he says:

"Undoubtedly it represents an important application of biological discoveries to human welfare, but it seems to me that it cannot wisely go farther at this time than to attempt to eliminate from reproduction the most unfit members of society. Giving advice regarding matrimony is proverbially a hazardous performance, and it is not much safer for the biologist than for others.

"Apart from certain bodily peculiarities, he would be a bold prophet who would undertake to predict the type of personality which might be expected in the children of a given union. Could any one have predicted Abraham Lincoln from a study of his ancestry? Observe that I say predict, not explain, after his appearance. The time may come when it will be possible to predict what the chances are that the children of given parents will inherit more or less than average intellectual capacity, but since germinal potentiality is transformed into intellectual ability only as the result of development, such a prediction could not be extended to the latter unless the environment as well as the heredity were known. Society can safely eliminate its worst elements from reproduction, but it cannot wisely go farther at present."

## FEDERAL HEALTH EXPENDITURES

During 1912 the United States government spent \$19,800,086.23 for "its health departments, bureaus, and all other health activities in its various branches." This information has just been compiled by the secretary of the treasury in response to a resolution of inquiry introduced by Senator Works of California. The estimate includes not only the Public Health Service, together with the medical and hospital work of the War Department, the Navy Department, the Department of Agriculture and the Panama Canal sanitary service, but also various bureaus and funds little known to the public at large.

Among these last may be mentioned the International Sanitary Bureau, the International office of Public Health, the International conference of the Red Cross, and the International Congress on Hygiene and Demography—all under the State Department. Under the Department of Justice come the health activities in connection with the support of United States prisoners, amounting to \$39,759.76 and the National Training School for Boys.

The number of officers and employes on the federal pay rolls engaged in public health and medical service is between 15,000 and 16,000.

## HOUSE INFECTION

House infection as a cause of the spread of tuberculosis is discussed in a study of Deaths from Tuberculosis in the Fifth Ward (Philadelphia) during a Period of Forty-seven Years, by Dr. Frank A. Craig, which appeared in the *American Journal of Public Health*.

From the data available, Dr. Craig concludes that house infection is "one of the most fruitful sources of infection." He declares that 78 per cent of the houses in the Fifth Ward of Philadelphia show evidence of having harbored one or more cases of tuberculosis. He finds that 11.2 per cent of the total deaths in forty-seven years (2,248) occurred in a very small proportion of the houses in the ward, 3.6 per cent, and that these latter dwellings averaged 4.96 deaths per house.

Inasmuch as the period covered (1863-1910) was so long, an arbitrary limit was made as to the time within which a death might occur as a result of infection from a fatal case of tuberculosis in the same house. This limited period was set at four years. Out of the 2,248 deaths in forty-seven years, 353, or 15.7 per cent occurred within this period of four years following a previous death in the same house.

Judging by the data available Dr. Craig concludes:

"In other words, 15.7 per cent of all deaths in forty-seven years were possibly due to house infection. Of the 353 cases, sixty-two were apparently related. Omitting these, we still have a percentage of 12.9. Of the 540 cases occurring in houses in which a previous death had occurred, 65.3 per cent of them came within the four-year period."



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# EDUCATION

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## TEACHING WHAT THE TWENTIETH CENTURY WANTS

WINTHROP D. LANE

What may prove a thoroughly revolutionary step in education, from the standpoint of social workers, was taken at Philadelphia the last week in February by the National Council of Education. A Committee on School Efficiency was appointed to give head and guidance to the growing demand for investigating schools and testing the efficiency of school systems.

This action was taken after a spirited debate by some of the leading public school men of the United States, in which everything from Mozart to mother-love was cited as a reason for throwing out the proposal. The stranger catching only stray phrases of the argument might have imagined himself at a political convention or a conference of social workers. "Reactionary" and "irresponsible critic" were words often on the lips of speakers.

"I want to say, sir, that there are some factors in education which cannot be measured or surveyed," said one of the announced speakers, who, with raised forefinger, put the case for those who were not ready for the plan.

"You may apply a yardstick to the physical equipment of a building or to the work of the janitor. But the real efficiency of education is revealed only in the contact of individual teacher and child. You can no more measure this relation than you can measure the divine influence of a mother's love."

The point was carried further by J. M. Rice, editor of *The Forum*, long known for his interest in educational problems. Standards of efficiency, he said, can be developed only for tangible or objective things.

"For example, you can't measure a child's vocabulary. My estimate of the number of words a child should know would be between 4,000 and 5,000, but a friend puts the number at 2,000, and there you are!"

As a matter of fact, an investigation of vocabularies used by average Americans in personal and business letters has just been made by the Russell Sage Foundation, with the idea of finding out what words ought to be emphasized in spelling courses. Mr. Rice's position was contested by another from the "outside," though to be sure one who has had a long previous experience in training both general pupils and prospective teachers—Jesse D. Burks, di-

rector of the Philadelphia Bureau of Municipal Research. Mr. Burks brought the point of view of the man whose trade tool is one form or another of the efficiency test.

"Sixteen years ago Dr. Rice broke up an educational conference by raising the question whether any one knew the proper amount of time that should be devoted to spelling in a school course. If this audience were as progressive as it ought to be, it would have been broken up by Dr. Rice's contention today that there are only a few factors of educational efficiency that can be measured or standardized. There is not an effective factor in school work that can not be measured.

"By obtaining the consensus of expert judgment, even such elusive qualities as appreciation of music, power of literary expression, or maternal affection can be as definitely, though not so readily, measured as ability in spelling, arithmetic or physical strength. Standardization means defining the best. It does not mean dragging all down to the lowest level."

Henry Suzzallo, professor of educational philosophy at Columbia University, followed with the statement that all the tests and scales of measurement mentioned so far were applicable only from within the school system. The one test pre-eminently needed, he said, had been ignored. This is the test of "social need," to which every factor in education must be submitted. He instanced the recent erection of a new school building in a section of San Francisco which had not enough children to fill it, so that there were many empty seats, while a neighboring part of the city was turning children away through lack of room. "How could we have foreseen this?" asked the school authorities. If they had studied the movement of industry and the consequent trend of population, answered Prof. Suzzallo, they would have been spared the blunder.

But even the curriculum must undergo the test of "social need," Professor Suzzallo went on:

"The greatest waste in education is not in bad teaching, but in teaching things that the twentieth century doesn't want. I fancy that if we went out into fifteen industrial shops in this city we could learn a great deal more than we know now as to what arithmetical processes



should be taught. We might get rid of the cube root."

The mention of arithmetic drew a recital in point from Leonard P. Ayres, director of the Division of Education of the Russell Sage Foundation. Dr. Ayres' staff examined at the request of local authorities the school curriculum of a large New England town. It was discovered that the course in arithmetic for the seventh grade, the grade from which children were dropping out in largest numbers, dealt almost entirely with the various tables of measurements. Ten representative problems from this course were submitted to ten business and professional executives in New York, men whose salaries ranged from \$3,000 to \$15,000.

The highest mark was scored by the secretary of a well-known propagandist society in social work. His grade was twenty-five. There were several zeroes. Two of the problems were concerned with buying and selling paper in bulk. One of the men who took the examination was the editor of a magazine and another was the head of a book publishing house. Both failed on these two problems. They declared that the terms employed in the problems had not been in current use for fifty years. Each of the ten men explained his low grade by saying, "I learned that stuff once, but I haven't had any use for it since."

Mr. Ayres was vigorously applauded during this story, but he left the platform in silence after asking:

"If there is no way of telling which of us is more efficient than the rest of us, why are some of us trying to get higher salaries than others of us?"

#### *Functions of the Committee*

No fewer than seventeen educational bodies held meetings in Philadelphia at this time. The most important were the National Council of Education and the Department of Superintendence, both parts of the National Education Association. The membership of the national council is limited to 120 members of the National Education Association. These members hold office for six years, twenty new members being elected each year, ten by the council and ten by the association. By a sort of comity members of the council are usually re-elected, so that its roster is fairly permanent. The council therefore is commonly regarded as the most select and authoritative body of educators in the United States.

It was to this body that report was made by a Committee on Standards and Tests of Efficiency of Schools and School Systems, of which George D. Strayer, professor of educational administration at Teachers College, was chairman. The report recommended that the council establish a board or commission to carry out three functions:

It should offer encouragement, expert advice and opportunity for publication to those

engaged in scientific work in deriving scales of measurement and in applying them to actual school situations.

It should offer expert advice with respect to the nature and scope of educational surveys, investigations or inquiries to be undertaken in any part of the United States.

It should offer to members of the teaching profession engaged in administrative work the opportunity to secure a scientific investigation of their systems of schools under the direction of professional experts.

By action of the national council these recommendations became the working program of the Committee on School Efficiency, appointed at the Philadelphia meeting to carry them out. In making up the membership of this committee,<sup>1</sup> Charles H. Keyes, president of the Skidmore School of Arts, Saratoga Springs, New York, and also president of the national council, declared that it was the most important educational body constituted within the last twenty-five years. Prof. Strayer compared its opportunity in the educational field with that in the social field of the new Bureau of Surveys and Exhibits created by the Russell Sage Foundation to help cities and towns desirous of taking stock of civic and sanitary needs.

#### *School and Life*

To one interested in interpreting the larger bearings of these educational conferences this clash on school efficiency was full of significance. To be sure, there were many discussions from which the 2,000 superintendents, principals, supervisors and teachers assembled received more practical help in solving their specific problems. There was a great deal of technical and professional argument. But this was the clearest cut instance of those who want to move swiftly in the attainment of new standards and ideals in education joining issue with those who prefer to go cautiously, holding fast to that which is good. And, indeed, even the more technical part of the program showed everywhere the ferment of unrest. If the talk turned on the curriculum, vocational guidance and training thrust their twin heads up for consideration. If administration was the topic, then team play between the school and the city, the schoolmaster and the citizen demanded attention. In tossing the retort courteous staid school men, whose pupils at home doubtless regard them as

<sup>1</sup>The Committee on School Efficiency has fifteen members, as follows: George D. Strayer, professor of educational administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, chairman; Paul Hanus, professor of education, Harvard University; F. E. Spaulding, Supt. of Schools, Newton, Mass.; Calvin N. Kendall, commissioner of education for New Jersey; C. H. Judd, director, School of Education, Univ. of Chicago; John H. Phillips, Supt. of Schools, Birmingham, Alabama; E. P. Cubberley, professor of education at Leland Stanford, Jr., Univ.; Katherine Blake, public school principal, New York; E. C. Elliott, professor of education, University of Wisconsin; Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, supt. of schools, Chicago; Adelaide S. Baylor, deputy state supt. for Indiana; E. L. Thorndike, professor of educational psychology, Teachers College; Benjamin F. Blewett, supt. of schools, St. Louis; William H. Maxwell, supt. of schools, New York; and James H. Van Sickle, supt. of schools, Springfield, Mass.



the very embodiments of calm dignity, flashed sharp language in the defence of their convictions.

How closely the audience often followed the speakers was shown when one of them parenthetically declared:

"The teacher is the most important feature in education—"

"I thought the child was," shot back a listener.

Space cannot be taken here to tell of the many attempts described by which school administrators are trying to make their schools play a more vital part in the working scheme of community life. Superintendent C. S. Meek, of Boise, Idaho, told how vocational activities had been introduced into the curricula at Boise, and declared that high school students had built fifteen private dwellings in that town.

L. R. Alderman, state superintendent of public instruction for Oregon, described how credit was being given in the schools of Salem for housework done at home. Supt. F. E. Spaulding, of Newton, Mass., exhibited charts showing what part of each dollar spent on public education in his town goes to buy instruction in Greek, what part instruction in grammar, in history, shop work, etc. There was a report on sanitation in rural schools, and another on the salaries and cost of living of teachers.

The fact that this last report cost nearly \$9,000 throws light on the campaign authorized at Philadelphia to raise \$1,000,000 as a permanent interest bearing fund for the National Education Association. One reason given for this step is that intensive and large scale investigations by committees of the national council will play a much larger part in its work than heretofore. A circular telling about this campaign declares that "a crisis period has been reached in American education, as in American politics. Science and industry are pressing home on educators new problems for solution. The National Education Association must have enlarged means with which to investigate, weigh, decide, advise."

#### *Four Standards for Teachers*

It was the conception of the teacher as the most potential social servant of the community which lifted out of the sphere of mere professional interest a plan put forward by Professor Suzzallo for a new organization of teachers, and gave it a vital significance for the man on the street. Professor Suzzallo submitted four standards of service to which teachers, like members of other professions, must measure up. First, they must have a ready and progressive power to meet new and changing needs—economic, political, social. Every school superintendent, he said, should aim to master the difficulties of the society in which he lives to the fullest degree that the right education of men and women will demand. No teacher, if he be modestly efficient, he declared, will forever crave one school system, an unchanged course

of study, the same subject and the same grade. He will be happy for the adventure of meeting new problems, glad to hear a call to his resources.

The second standard is that of expertness. Talking as a teacher to teachers, he declared that "in a world full of intelligent people, we shall have to stir ourselves to keep ahead in a work which has so much to do with life in general, a field in which all men play some part." He then laid down specific technical requirements.

The third standard, he said, is that of social servanthip. Teachers are not mere wage-earners; neither are they teaching just arithmetic, reading, writing and the rest. They are making men, the pillars of social institutions. "Our scholastic point of view," he said, "like the monastic vision of ministers, may make us scorn the world a bit, when it is in that real outer world our product must be tested."

The fourth standard is that of ethical co-operation. This requires, he declared, a more or less complete reorganization of the present relationship of teachers. The influence of partisan and personal politics, he insisted, still interferes with a full rendering to the public of an expert educational service. With adequate organization of the half million teachers in the United States, he said, "we can force commercial concerns into fair dealing, compel boards of education to recognize expert judgment, and force out of existence the teachers' agencies which thrive on our professional neglect."

#### *How Teachers Should Organize*

Professor Suzzallo advocated local guilds of teachers, the territorial unit for each being small enough to insure attendance at meetings. Cities of considerable size should have several guilds. Then there should be a state association of teacher guilds in each state. Finally, a national council of teacher guilds should consist of representatives from each state. The primary purpose of such an organization, formed thus from the bottom up, should be to increase the efficiency of teaching as a public service. And as a mode of attaining this end, its secondary purpose should be to improve the status of teachers.

There were those who feared that such a body might become, as they put it, "a mere trade union, concerned solely with advancing the class interests of teachers." It was declared also by friends of the scheme that many who opposed it feared that the power lodged in such an organization might bode ill for administrative school officers.

It was voted, however, to refer Professor Suzzallo's plan to a committee<sup>1</sup> of the national council for report at the next meeting of the National Education Association.

<sup>1</sup>The committee consists of C. H. Judd, chairman; C. S. Meek, supt. of schools, Boise, Idaho; Katherine Blake; Augustus Downing, first assistant commissioner of education for New York state; John R. Kirk, president State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.; David Snedden, commissioner of education for Mass.; and F. Bolton.



# INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION AND DEMOCRACY

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[In the Education Department (February 15), *THE SURVEY* published an article on the Wisconsin Experiment in Industrial Education by H. E. Miles, chairman of the Committee on Industrial Education of the National Association of Manufacturers and president of the Wisconsin State Board of Industrial Education. The plan in operation in that state puts the control over industrial schools in the hands of state and local boards distinct from those which control the traditional public schools. This arrangement has come to be known as the "dual" system.

The case against this system is put in the following article by Professor Dewey, the first part of which was written in direct answer to Mr. Miles' statement in *THE SURVEY*. The second part is reprinted from *The American Teacher* for January. In it Professor Dewey uses the situation in Illinois, where legislation is pending,<sup>1</sup> as a text for protesting that the essential weakness of dual control is that it strikes a blow at democracy in American education—Ed.]

## I.

In his recent interesting article, Mr. Miles has raised the question of the "control" of education as it affects the movement for industrial education. According to him, it is a question of whether teachers or business men shall control. It would be hard to find a mode of statement more fitted to befog the real issue, or one better adapted to bring into clear relief the animus of many of those who are interested in establishing segregated schools for the training of their future employes. There is not a city or town in the country, so far as I know, where control of the school system is lodged in teachers. In many cities the superintendent of schools himself is not even a member of the board in control. School boards do not represent either the teachers nor yet "the business men" for whom Mr. Miles is so solicitous. They represent the community as a community in behalf of the community—something considerably wider and more important than the class either of teachers or of business men. The real issue is whether this community control in the interests of the community is to continue, with such developments as changing needs may call for from time to time; or whether this social control is to be abrogated in behalf of a control by business men in the interests of business men.

It may be true, as Mr. Miles intimates that (in some localities at least) business men have not had sufficient share in the active direction of the policies of the schools. The logic of Mr. Miles argument is that as long as business men are required to take an interest in education from the standpoint of the well being of the community as a whole, they will not exert themselves; that only when it is a question of specialized education affecting their pecuniary interest as employers of labor will they take an interest in education. Mr. Miles presumes to speak for his fellow "business men"; I should be sorry to make or to believe such an accusation against the public spirit of business men.

<sup>1</sup>For a fuller news statement of the Illinois situation see *THE SURVEY* of last week, page 832. Professor Dewey refers specifically to the measure advocated by the Commercial Club, not yet introduced into the legislature. Another bill, more nearly embodying Professor Dewey's ideas, is before the state senate.

## II

### *Two Movements on the Inside*

No question at present under discussion in education is so fraught with consequences for the future of democracy as the question of industrial education. Its right development will do more to make public education truly democratic than any other one agency now under consideration. Its wrong treatment will as surely accentuate all undemocratic tendencies in our present situation, by fostering and strengthening class divisions in school and out. It is better to suffer a while longer from the ills of our present lack of system till the truly democratic lines of advance become apparent, than to separate industrial education sharply from general education, and thereby use it to mark off in the interests of employers a separate class of laborers.

These general considerations have a particular application to the scheme of industrial education which has been proposed for adoption by the next legislature of the state of Illinois—one of the leading industrial states of the Union, and containing its second largest city. This scheme proposes a separate state commission of vocational education, wherever the community may wish to develop any form of industrial education. In other words, the entire school system of the state as a whole and of such communities of the state as may desire to do something definite in the direction of industrial education is split into two for the education of all above fourteen years of age. Since whatever a state like Illinois may do in such a matter is sure to have influence in other states in this formative period, educators all over the country should be aroused to help ward off what, without exaggeration, may be termed the greatest evil now threatening the interests of democracy in education.

The statement of the scheme ought to be enough to condemn it. The least reflection shows fundamentally bad features associated with it. First, it divides and duplicates the administrative educational machinery. How many communities have such an excess of public interest in



education that they can afford to cut it into two parts? How many have such a surplusage of money and other resources that they can afford to maintain a double system of schools, with the waste of funds and the friction therein involved? Second, the scheme tends to paralyze one of the most vital movements now operating for the improvement of existing general education. The old time general, academic education is beginning to be vitalized by the introduction of manual, industrial and social activities; it is beginning to recognize its responsibility to train all the youth for useful citizenship, including a calling in which each may render useful service to society and make an honest and decent living. Everywhere the existing school system is beginning to be alive to the need of supplementary agencies to help it fulfill this purpose, and is taking tentative but positive and continuous steps toward it. The city of Chicago in this same state of Illinois probably ranks behind no other city of the country in the extent and wisdom of the steps already taken, steps which will of necessity be followed by others just as fast as those already taken demonstrate their efficiency.

#### *Its Arresting Effect*

These two movements within the established American public school system, the proposed scheme, if adopted, will surely arrest. General education will be left with all its academic vices and its remoteness from the urgent realities of contemporary life untouched, and with the chief forces working for reform removed. Increasing recognition of its public and social responsibilities will be blasted. It is inconceivable that those who have loved and served our American common school system will, whatever the defects of this system, stand idly by and see such a blow aimed at it. Were anything needed to increase the force of the blow, it is the fact that the bill provides that all funds for industrial education raised by the local community be duplicated by the state, although the funds contributed by the state for general school purposes are hardly more than 5 per cent of the amount raised by local taxation.

#### *A European Example*

Third, the segregation will work disastrously for the true interests of the pupils who attend the so-called vocation schools. Ex-Superintendent Cooley of Chicago, who is understood to be responsible for the proposed bill in its present form, has written a valuable report on Vocational Education in Europe. He quite rightly holds in high esteem the work and opinions of Superintendent Kerschensteiner of Munich. It is noteworthy that this leading European authority insists upon all technical and trade work being taught in its general scientific and social bearings. Although working in a country definitely based on class distinctions (and where naturally the schools are based on class lines), the one thing Superintendent Kerschensteiner has stood for has been that industrial training shall be primarily not for the sake of industries, but for the

sake of citizenship, and that it be conducted therefore on a purely educational basis and not in behalf of interested manufacturers. Mr. Cooley's own report summarizes Mr. Kerschensteiner's views as follows: "If the boy is to become an efficient workman he must comprehend his work in all of its relations to science, to art, and to society in general. . . . The young workman who understands his trade in its scientific relations, its historical, economic and social bearings, will take a higher view of his trade, of his powers and duties as a citizen, and as a member of society."

#### *Industrial "Classes" the Consequence*

Whatever may be the views of manufacturers anxious to secure the aid of the state in providing them with a somewhat better grade of laborers for them to exploit, the quotations state the point of view which is self-evident to those who approach the matter of industrial education from the side of education and of a progressive society. It is truly extraordinary that just at a time when even partisan politics are taking a definitely progressive turn, such a reactionary measure as the institution of trade and commercial schools under separate auspices should be proposed. It is not necessary to argue concerning the personal motives of the bankers and manufacturers who have been drawn into the support of the measure. Doubtless many of them have the most public spirited of intentions, but no one experienced in education can doubt what would be the actual effect of a system of schools conducted wholly separate from the regular public schools, with a totally different curriculum, and with teachers and pupils responsible to a totally independent and separate school administration. Whatever were the original motives and intentions, such schools would not and could not give their pupils a knowledge of industry or any particular occupation in relation to "science, art and society in general." To attempt this would involve duplicating existing schools, in addition to providing proper industrial training. And it is self-evident that the economical and effective way to accomplish this move is to expand and supplement the present school system. Not being able to effect this complete duplication, these new schools would simply aim at increased efficiency in certain narrow lines. Those who believe in the continued separate existence of what they are pleased to call the "lower classes" or the "laboring classes" would naturally rejoice to have schools in which these "classes" would be segregated. And some employers of labor would doubtless rejoice to have schools supported by public taxation supply them with additional food for their mills. All others should be united against every proposition, in whatever form advanced, to separate training of employes from training for citizenship, training of intelligence and character from training for narrow industrial efficiency. That the evil forces at work are not local is seen in the attempt to get the recent national conven-

(Continued on p. 893.)



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## CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

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### EVERY-DAY WORK OF THE SUNDAY SCHOOL<sup>1</sup>

Not long ago a correspondent suggested that we "make a little survey of the work being done in the training of boys and girls in the theory and practice of social service." The writer was "particularly anxious to know if anything is being done through the Sunday Schools of the country."

Another correspondent wrote that he and others connected with Sunday school work for years "feel that we are not reaching and holding the boys as we ought to, and as we must do if our work is to be called fully successful and efficient." In this correspondence it was estimated that in their town there are 12,000 Protestant boys under twenty years of age who ought to be in Sunday school and only 4,000 of them are enrolled. This lack of interest these Sunday school workers think might be due to the fact that "the Sunday school reaches them only one hour a week. If some provision for every-day clubs in club-houses could be made, it might help solve the problem."

This second correspondent also asked THE SURVEY for information based on a practical experience. Thus incited we made a few inquiries. These elicited a mass of interesting facts, some of which are reserved for later publication.

We first wrote for facts to Marion Lawrance, general secretary of the International Sunday School Association. In response he sent an account of a session of the Pennsylvania State Sabbath School Association. At this meeting he had suggested that "the Sunday school become an important factor in social service work by remaining open seven days in the week" and that "moving pictures be adopted as an adjunct of Sunday school work." The president of the convention, H. J. Heinz, buttressed these suggestions by asking: "Would any business man think of running his plant one day out of seven? His business would not make much progress at that rate. He runs his plant on full time and gets the best results out of it. Let us conduct our Sunday schools on business principles." Then superintendents and teachers replied in the following strain:

"Our Sunday school is thrown open to the public every night in the week. Winter nights we have a big sign over the door which reads 'Come in and get warm. Coffee and sandwiches served. You must not pay.' We have clubs and a gymnasium for young people. The Sunday

school is a great social center in our community."

Others told of week-night programs, literary societies, gymnasiums, and club-houses. Moving-picture shows were said to have been so successfully used by Sunday schools in some counties that they are driving the saloons out of business. To all of which Mr. Lawrance answered:

"Friends, there is no more important question before this convention than this one of bringing our young people to look upon the church as a social center. We have allowed our young boys and girls to be taken by the world. The time has arrived for us to reclaim them by strengthening the social life of the church."

Then he urged every school "to make a beginning, to keep its rooms open week evenings, to open a reading room or a rest room."

The *Ladies' Home Journal* for April will contain an article by Marion Lawrance on What the Sunday School Does During the Week, from which by editorial courtesy we are permitted to quote in advance of publication. The article will surprise and inspire even those who are well informed about Sunday school work. Mr. Lawrance himself seems to have been surprised by the facts which led him to assert:

"There was scarcely a feature exploited by the social service specialists in the continent-wide campaign of the Men and Religion Forward Movement which was not already being effectively carried on in the Sunday school, chiefly through the 35,000 organized classes of people over sixteen years of age."

Week-day recreative and industrial activities range all the way from birthday parties to week-end and summer camps, from story hours to debating clubs, and from seed sowing and gardening to handicrafts, photography and dressmaking. The largest amateur baseball organization in the world is the league under the direct supervision of the Sunday School Association of Chicago. Eleven leagues of six teams each, having 1,000 members, are enrolled. Each member is eligible only upon regular Sunday school attendance certified by the written statement of the pastor or superintendent. Through other athletic leagues, organized outings of all kinds, gymnasiums and indoor recreations, the play-life of the young is being safeguarded and enriched.

<sup>1</sup>These facts reported by Protestant churches it is hoped will be followed by reports from Roman Catholic parishes and Jewish synagogues.



Among the outreaching helpful agencies conducted by Sunday schools which are described in this informing *Ladies Home Journal* article are: Business college scholarships for young women, college tuition for young men, and night classes in common branches of learning and circulating libraries for rural communities. A Bible class composed of firemen secured funds to build a hall for a camp of tuberculosis patients. Other Sunday schools lend invalid chairs, take shut-ins out for automobile rides, provide free medical dispensaries and hospital beds and visit poor farms, asylums and homes. A union of ten schools made improvements in a local jail. Men's classes have sick, accident, out-of-work and loan benefits for their members and free employment bureaus. Another Sunday school group helps paroled prisoners. Others cultivate and beautify vacant lots. A divided neighborhood was united by enlisting the neighbors for service in a tenement house district. Children's work took the form of hospital care for deformed children, free kindergartens, public playgrounds and penny entertainments.

Mr. Lawrance concludes his article with the prediction that the Sunday school will soon be recognized as "the church's best channel for social service, the community's best leavener for good and the nation's best good citizenship builder." He cites these reasons as the basis for this conclusion:

## SOCIAL APPLICATIONS OF SUNDAY SCHOOL TEACHING

A most significant index of the attitude of the churches toward their responsibility for training the youth in civic and social duties appears in the official announcements of the lessons and studies by their Sunday school and publishing agencies.

The Standard Curriculum of the General Board of Religious Education, published in the *American Church Magazine* for February, includes among the six divisions under which the course is arranged, Christian Service. It designates "the activities of the pupils in the parochial and social life of which they are a part, both as members of the congregation of a particular parish and as members of the city or town in which they live." And the training for these activities is co-ordinated with that for "church knowledge and the devotional life."

The Christian service in which the pupils in the several departments of the Sunday school should be trained is specified as follows:

**PRIMARY DEPARTMENT:** (Kindergarten, ages 4, 5; Primary Grades, ages 6 to 8).

- (1) Acts of loving kindness to people and animals, helpfulness to parents and teachers, and pleasantness in home life.
- (2) Ministry to sick and needy.

**JUNIOR DEPARTMENT:** (Ages 9 to 13).

- (1) Personal and social duties to God and our neighbors based upon holy scriptures and set forth in the catechism.

(2) Share in the corporate life of the parish, through the various parochial activities and guilds; e. g., junior auxiliary candidates' class for the Girls' Friendly Society, Boy Scouts, Knights of King Arthur, etc.

"Because it is found everywhere, no other institution being so near to all the people; it is prepared, because it is already organized; it is economical, because no new buildings are required; it is ready, because it lives the year round and is always at its post; it is strong, because it represents more than sixteen million members, of whom two million and a half are men; it is efficient, because it is equipped with earnest workers, and in its sympathies needs only to enlarge upon its policy of helpfulness."

Nevertheless, every one must admit that so far the civic and social activities of the Sunday schools and the churches themselves are sporadic, scattered, and without co-ordination or well-defined program. These limitations, however, always characterize such new projects as spontaneously arise out of the various activities of life. New significance and promise accrue to these endeavors, when viewed as the impulses of classes that are organized and federated in local, denominational and inter-denominational fellowships of a world-wide movement. The Sunday school's concerted efforts for better local government and against intemperance, vice and gambling in the home land; against the opium and drink traffic abroad; and for the lepers, the sick and unfortunate in many lands, are intimations of what the federated churches and their schools may do for international peace and "the federation of the world."

(3) Efforts to bring others to church and Sunday school.

(4) Gifts to missions based upon concrete information.

(5) Taking part in mission plays, and making articles to be sold for the Lenten offering.

(6) Collecting magazines for homes and hospitals.

(7) Giving to specific local needs.

(8) Making friends and being friendly to new boys and girls in the schools, playgrounds and other social centers.

(9) Visiting the sick and needy and institutions as far as suitable.

**SENIOR DEPARTMENT** (Ages 14 to 17).

(1) Encourage the pupils to fulfil their responsibility to other scholars as leaders, helpers and examples, especially in bringing others to church, confirmation and holy communion; and to continue their share in the parochial and general activities of the church, such as membership in missionary societies and missionary study classes.

(2) Older scholars should be interested in matters pertaining to the public welfare as expressions of their Christian faith and life.

**GRADUATE DEPARTMENT** (Ages 18 and over).

All members should be engaged in some definite active service in the church, and should prepare themselves to become teachers in the Sunday school.

Other religious bodies which, like the Protestant Episcopal church, have their own systems of religious training, are extending their applications to social and civic relationships. Lutheran, Moravian and other denominations of native and foreign origin are doing this in their own ways. The denominations using the international graded lesson system, in accordance with its provision for social service, are organizing their social teaching and activities. This is especially true of their senior grade and in adult Bible classes.



### *Social Service in the "International" Lessons*

The most systematized curriculum is that for the first year of the senior department. This, in substantially the same form, is separately issued and edited by the official Sunday school agencies of the Congregational, Presbyterian, Methodist-Episcopal and Disciples' churches. The very title of this course is significant—The World a Field for Christian Service. Still more so is the substitution of the "discussion" method for the recitation, "to encourage students to express themselves freely on the problems and so work out for themselves Christian principles and ideals of conduct." The "foreword" to the student is:

"This course of study comes to you when you are standing on the threshold of a larger, more mature life. The world is before you. You feel its challenge and long to enter the lists. The question before you is, 'When and how can I best use my life in the world's activities?' It is hoped you will find in this course of study an answer. The subjects suggest the practical problems of life, especially in its relation to others."

These studies truly have a new and far-reaching significance. Starting with youth, life and the world's needs, they treat of physical, mental and spiritual efficiency in the specific opportunities for service open to the young; for young men in agriculture, industry, commerce, the professions and public life; for young women in teaching, business, nursing, housekeeping, cooking, home-making and motherhood. The specialized church callings to the ministry, church and social work are emphasized. In the same way the call to home and foreign missions is attractively addressed to "pathfinders or the frontier," "Christian leaders in every land," and "ministers of healing." The lessons on Opportunities for Service in Public Life, Champions of Good Citizenship, Working for the Physical

and Social Welfare of Others, are practical and effective. Among the character qualifications for service frankly and firmly treated are honesty; fidelity in daily tasks; justice to others; truthfulness and cleanness in speech; high ideals of each sex for the other; liquor, tobacco and opiates as a social menace; the use and abuse of pleasure; friends and companions; "the social significance of youth."

The world's Sunday school convention at Zurich, Switzerland, may lay the basis for advances in the teaching of its constituent schools by the report of an able commission on adolescence.

### *A Methodist Local Demonstration*

The way in which this social Sunday school training works out in the local church is exemplified by this report from the Epworth Memorial Methodist Church of Cleveland, Ohio:

"We are using the graded lessons which lay emphasis upon social service. All our classes in the intermediate department are organized under the direction of the teacher. They do calling, visit the sick, look up new members, go to the hospitals and social settlement houses. Two strong young people's classes carry this work further. Closely related to the Sunday school is the work of our Boy Scouts and Camp-Fire Girls as laid down by these national organizations. In special instruction at Easter to prepare groups of boys and girls for church membership special lessons in social service are included. 'White gift service' at Christmas provides holiday baskets for the poor. Our Friendship Hour Sunday evenings gathers into the Friendship Room of the church many of the young men and women from the rooming-houses, who are thus led into the young people's prayer meeting. Special addresses are frequently given on such subjects as tuberculosis, temperance and kindred things."

## RELIGIOUS TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

The Epworth League of the Methodist Church South has changed the name of its department of charity and help to the Department of Social Service. The *Epworth Herald* wants the northern church league to follow this example. The *Herald* is doing its best to broaden the idea and work of this department so that it will be in fact not only a relieving and reforming agency, but a preventive, constructive, formative force. To this end, the *Herald* publishes inciting programs for league meetings and platforms for community service.

Effective community action in Chicago has been advanced by the Christian Endeavor Union which has combined the young people's efforts in the several denominations. The union conducted the campaign that secured Sunday rest for more than 5,000 postal employes in Chicago, many of whom now attend church. Through its influence, congressional action has extended

Sunday rest to postal employes throughout the nation. It helped defeat the bill to legalize prize fighting in Illinois. It supports a chaplain at the Cook County Hospital, and provides an organized body of volunteer workers to assist him by providing flowers, reading matter, entertainments, and spiritual comfort to thousands of patients. "Comfort bags," containing sewing and writing materials and a Bible, are distributed among the sailors on the rivers and lake. An "efficiency campaign" designed to draw out and develop the abilities of the 15,000 members of the union is a novel and successful feature of its work.

### *Summer Vacation Bible Schools*

Daily Vacation Bible Schools were conducted last summer in twenty-six principal cities. Seven hundred teachers served 38,306 children in 160 schools, at an average cost of only a dollar for



each child. The association promoting this work claims that in fifty of the largest cities, after existing agencies for child welfare have done their best, there are still 1,500,000 boys and girls unhelped by any organized philanthropy who spend sixty-two vacation days on the street, exposed to physical and moral dangers.

The association aims to promote "the community use" of 100,000 church buildings for child welfare on broad and non-sectarian lines when public schools are closed in summer; to promote the social welfare of children, irrespective of race or creed, by good teaching and songs, and by happy occupations and oversight of games; and, finally, to employ in this field, including 18,000,000 children, alert college men and women, fitted to be efficient leaders of children in worship, work and play.

#### *The Friends' Adult Schools*

A type of organization and method for religious social training which is reproducing itself in varied forms among other religious bodies both in America and abroad is furnished by the adult schools of the Society of Friends in England. It is described by J. Wilhelm Rountree<sup>1</sup> as "the method of Socrates and the message of Christ;" as finding its basis "in the promotion of a vivid sense of human fellowship, rooted in an all-embracing divine love;" and as providing "a bridge to a different form of church fellowship—to some future church order in that wider brotherhood, which in the far-off years will fuse the sects, embracing them as one in living bonds, where there will yet be a place for the 'round-table,' for the sweet discourse of kindred souls, breaking in common the spiritual bread of life."

Just what this means may be told best by this official statement of the purpose of an adult school and by a single concrete description of one of them:

"To make and develop men and to teach them the art of life; to study the Bible frankly, freely, reverently, and without prejudice; to establish an unsectarian basis for Christian effort and unity; to bring together in helpful comradeship and active service the different classes of society; to stimulate and educate public spirit and public morality; to teach men the responsibility of citizenship; to advance as far as may be the equality of opportunity; in short, to help men to understand and to live the life of Jesus Christ, and to encourage them in their personal allegiance to him."

The Barton Hill branch of the Bristol (England) Adult School works among the men of the densely populated artisan district in a building specially erected for its work, after this manner:

"A fatherly man lies in wait at the entrance with a good handgrip for all arrivals early Sunday morning. At 8:25 a. m. secretaries of the Burial, Sick and Coal Clubs, the Savings Bank

<sup>1</sup>History of Adult Schools by Rountree and Binns. Headley Bros., London.

and the early attendance fund are at the receipt of custom. The school opens at 8:30 with a prayer and hymn. The men divide into small groups to discuss the lesson for the day with the leader and each other, while the registry of attendance is marked. At 9 a. m. the groups merge again. Reports are received from members and from deputations who have visited other schools. New members are introduced by name. Those absent on account of sickness are mentioned. After the visitors are posted as to whom to visit the class separates after prayer at 10 a. m."

The axis on which the scheme revolves is the Bible lesson with entire freedom of discussion, which turns on a great catastrophe, such as some bill before Parliament, the death of a preacher or statesman, the local horse-races, the public house evil, or some recent book or article on social and religious questions.

Social clubs for swimming, cricket, football, cycling, rambling, are features of some schools, as are temperance societies, lectures, excursions and devotional meetings. These social features prove so advantageous that they are considered indispensable to the up-keep of the adult school system.

In the Philadelphia Adult School the men and women discussed their lesson on My Neighbor and His Possessions (scripture text "Thou shalt not covet") after this fashion:

—"What is likely to result from coveting another's possessions—to the nation, to the individual? What light does this law throw on the true path of social reform and progress? Descriptions of the occupations of the members of the class were exchanged. A class in economics met once a week. Closely associated with Adult Schools in Baltimore and Philadelphia are social settlements, which are the outgrowths of this work."

#### *And the End Is Not Yet*

That all this development of religious training for citizenship and social work is only in its inception, let this letter from an observant pastor attest:

"Throughout the Sunday school world today there is a growing demand for the social service side of our church activities. If this is to be met, it must be by the development of a new generation with such ideals. In the Sunday-school program and literature there is no uniform recognition of the principles underlying such service. The ideas and activities of the Sunday school teachers and church workers along these lines are very chaotic, and are not directed with regard to the fundamental and universal principles which I feel sure underlie this expression of the religious life.

"Your opinion is asked with a view of getting out a book for the direction of Sunday school teachers and church workers along these lines. Towards formulating this volume, I am gathering opinions and data from religious workers and leading sociologists throughout the country as to two phases of this problem:—



"By the use of what material and by what methods of presentation may we develop the social consciousness of religion among those from six to twelve years of age, from thirteen to sixteen, from seventeen to twenty-one, and from twenty-one years and upwards?"

"How can the work and teaching of the Sunday school be connected in a practical way with the concrete problems of the local community?"

### *The Reaction*

The reaction from the rapidly increasing social interpretation and application of Christianity is surprising more for its feebleness than its strength, for its few spokesmen than its prevalence, for its adherence to the letter than its vision of the spirit, and for its misunderstanding of the social view of religion than for its exclusively individualistic view of Christianity.

The attempts at organized reaction against these social developments within the churches are two: One was made in the conference of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ at Chicago in a committee report and recommendation, warning against the unspiritual tendency of social work; the other is an organized opposition within the Presbyterian church to the senior and intermediate grades of the Sunday School lessons described above.

Perhaps a fair statement of sincere doubt and dissent regarding the social movement within the churches is that of Hugh R. Monro in the *Sunday-School Times* for November 2 and November 9, 1912, under the title *Is Christ's Cross in Modern Social Service?* While sympathetic with the aims and spirit of the social propaganda, he challenges it on the "single issue between the New Testament gospel of salvation which Christ's church has followed, even though falteringly and imperfectly for nineteen centuries, and the modern movement of 'Social Service' as a new gospel and a new method now urged upon the church." His objections to it are based upon his own views that it is "an entirely new" conception of the church's mission and of individual Christian responsibility and a new outlook upon society; that its adaptation of the great texts and terms which enshrine certain fundamental truths of Christianity will soon make "our whole Christian terminology count for nothing;" that it obscures the distinctive teaching and preaching ministries of the church, by "mass methods of uplifting humanity in which Jesus took no part and evidently never intended that his disciples should take part;" that it deals with "physical conditions," which distinctly lie within the political sphere, "since they are mainly dependent upon legislative measures for realization," while "the mission of the church lies in the spiritual sphere and concerns itself with the transformation of men's lives by the power of Christ, and building them up in Christian character;" that such activities as the regulation of public dances, the emancipation of athletics, or the promotion of a higher standard of theatrical performance, are difficult to reconcile with the pursuit of the

ideals in "the ministry of God's Word, prayer, Bible study, the family altar, subjection to the Holy Spirit, and an absorbing devotion to the will of God;" that it is false to assume character to be "in any large sense the product of environment"—since "scores of redeemed men in our great cities and elsewhere are living radiantly happy and useful lives amid the very scenes of their former degradation, at the same time reaching out for their fellows in the power of Jesus Christ." These, he claims, to be "the chiefest of social results."

His final conclusion is that "there has always been a fundamental incompatibility between this doctrine of the Cross and the commonly understood social or humanitarian program of effort. The Cross must fill the whole horizon, or it is nothing. Looking both to the welfare of the church and the uplift of society, this is the one measure of superlative promise."

To this array of objections the editor of the *Sunday-School Times* adds in black-faced, double-leaded type a still more surprisingly indiscriminate arraignment of "organized Christian social service conducted within the church and in the name of Jesus Christ." He characterizes social service work as "a real peril," as "a substitute for the Gospel," as "a short-cut to social regeneration," as "one of the greatest perils confronting the church and the world today"—"a tremendous crisis of the twentieth century church to be faced only with the decision to follow in their steps who followed our one Lord, by the way of Calvary only."

Thus fairly to state these sincere objections is but to show how they beg the question in stating it, in so far as it claims to be a statement of the point of view taken by those within the evangelical churches who are identified with "organized Christian social service." They yield nothing to these critics in being loyal to Christ and His Cross, to what he taught and died to do. They reply, "these things ought ye to have done and not to have left the others undone." For if "these things" are the fundamental propositions of the Gospel, then it follows that these other things are their inevitable corollaries.

Moreover, the social propagandists may claim that where a community of Christians is not a Christian community, one of two things is apparent: either the church fails "to react powerfully upon the life of the community, touching all its social, political, philanthropic, commercial and other interests," as Mr. Monro promises it will; or it cannot claim "the presence and working of God's spirit," which, he says, characterizes the church that does so react. If the failure thus to react be denied, then the conditions existing in communities where church influence preponderates will be difficult to account for. If the claim of these churches "to the presence and working of God's spirit" be denied, it will excommunicate many a church and unchurch many a community. Is it not to save Christianity from just this dilemma that the Christian social movement has arisen? Is it not coming to the kingdom for just such a time as this?



## VALUE OF A CHURCH COMMUNITY SURVEY

JOHN TIMOTHY STONE

PASTOR FOURTH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH, CHICAGO

The pastor of a large city church finds himself surrounded by conditions which are not ideal according to the former definition of a pastor's duties; his long hours of poring over his books; a systematic and faithful house to house visitation of members of his parish; his pre-eminent emphasis on the regular church services and preparation for the same—these still stand for him as an ideal. In so far as he is able to attain that ideal, he is a fortunate man; but if he is alive to his present opportunities he will probably find that his schedule will have to be rearranged to meet a hundred and one other demands that come in upon him as a practical agent of administration.

On the other hand, he will make a great mistake if he intends to be the executive himself, aiming and attempting to do the things which a hundred others ought to do under his guidance. Organization for organization's sake is a pure fallacy, but organization for the sake of accomplishment and effective results pertains today to every line of aggressive and successful Christian activity. This by no means is being disregarded by Christian leaders. Our foreign as well as home missionaries are marked examples of careful and large administrative work. In some of our mission stations, where scores are involved in various departments, the whole work seems to go on with the perfect mechanism of exact machinery.

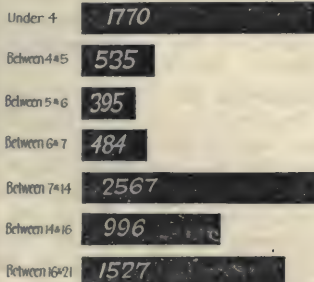
It is wise for us to consider, first of all, the necessity of a comprehensive and painstaking survey of the field if we are to be able to accomplish results without duplication. Cross purposes and cross activities injure one another. There should be a dovetailing of work in order to gain efficiency, and this relation can not exist unless a thorough and complete knowledge of the field is obtained.

We ought to consider also as a primary requisite the opportunity which the church of God has today in any field to co-operate with present active and worthy agencies. The easiest thing in the world is to form a new organization, and one of the hardest things is to utilize the present organizations in scientific and practical co-operation. The trouble has been in so many instances that a man of personality, thrift or enthusiasm starts in to do everything his own way, and starts another organization, perhaps under the guidance of his church, thus centering everything in his one plan, and duplicating the work which older agencies have carried on in his neighborhood. He is a law to himself, or would be, because he feels he can work more easily from his own center than to know and understand the splendid work which has been done, and relate himself to it. This may not be his object; frequently it is simply a matter of ignorance. He has come into a field, and has been approached by a good many enthusiastic

### POPULATION

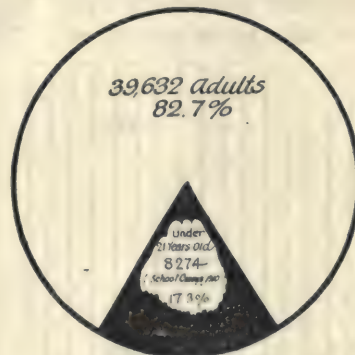
U.S. Census 1910 - 21<sup>st</sup> Ward.

47,906 .....



POPULATION  
U.S. Census 1910 - 21<sup>st</sup> Ward

47,906



#### PEOPLE IN THE FOURTH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH'S NEIGHBORHOOD

"There is an average population of 63.58 persons per acre, which is slowly increasing. The proportion of minors in the population is decreasing. The problem of the foreigner in this field is a very small one. Yet no other area in Chicago furnishes as many types of people living under every conceivable standard."

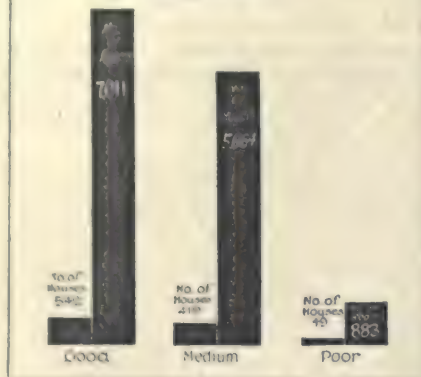


## • HOUSING •

### Occupied Lodging Houses

Section 43-44 & Part of 59 Chicago Telephone Co Study

(River to North Av. Wells to Lake - with a few Additional Blocks.)



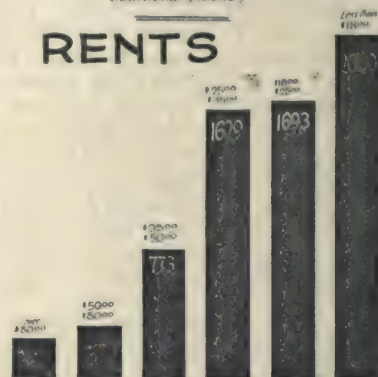
## • HOUSING •

### Occupied Housekeeping Apartments

Section 43-44 & part of 59 Chicago Tel Co Study

(River to North Av. Wells to Lake - with few Additional Blocks.)

## RENTS



### TWENTY-FIRST WARD HOMES

"Some of the worst housing conditions in the city are to be found here, although the evil of bad housing may not be apparent. Houses built for private residences have been converted into cheap boarding or lodging houses. Landlords are striving to adapt the old buildings to their new purposes. This has resulted in overcrowding, lack of light and proper sanitation."

individuals as to various lines of activity. He has started in without much direct analysis, and has kept busy all the time doing one thing after another as it came up. Hence, before very long a center of activity has grown up around him,

of which he is the head, and a score of activities are at work from his one center without the information and the knowledge which years have acquired in the painstaking work of many organizations working in the very same line.

Now, it is not so much the duty of the local church to start new organizations as to co-operate in wise and helpful affiliation with all existing organizations, in so far as they are doing their work aright. Of course, it is understood if an organization is not worthy and is not carrying out its practical end wisely, it is time to start a reform, or form another efficient organization in the same line; but a little careful study and thoughtful investigation would tie up the church in almost any locality to a score of active agencies. These are led by splendid men and women, who are able and willing, and in fact eager, to receive the co-operation of the churches.

This latter process will take time and thought, and can not be done carelessly. The young men and the young women of the parish, of the Sunday school in its various departments, and of all other agencies, can associate with the splendid social organizations now doing the work of general philanthropy in the spirit of Jesus Christ.

The organized charities of the city are scientifically and effectively seeking to solve the problem of poverty and want. A large percentage of their ablest workers are loyal Christian men and women. The Juvenile Protective Association, the Boy Scouts and many other such organizations are ready to co-operate in every way to assist in the local problem, and to receive the assistance of those who are locally interested.

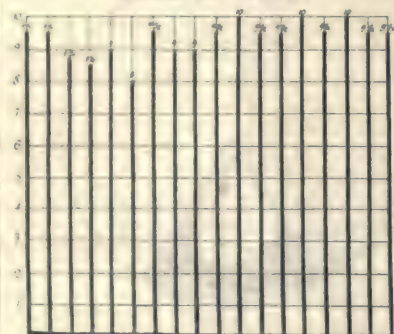
## MANUFACTURING PLANTS

### 4th Presbyterian Church Community

— 18 PLANTS INVESTIGATED —

Total Number of Employees 2,872

— HOURS OF WORK —



### HOURS OF LABOR IN NEIGHBORHOOD FACTORIES

"The average number of hours per day the employees work is 9.36"



Too many times we act without thinking, or we leap before we look, and the object of a survey such as we have carried on is not simply to know the conditions of our own field, but to find out as well the present work of earnest, active agencies who are also working, in order that we may thoroughly co-operate with them.

The object of the church is not to denominationalize the community, but to give to the individuals therein the capability of working out their own problem, spiritually and morally; and this from the standpoint of their own conscience. We aim, however, to assist them and the church may, in bringing them into personal contact with the Fountainhead of strength, give them the power within themselves to administrate their own affairs and work out their own salvation.

This survey which we have just completed in a large portion of the twenty-first ward of Chicago is the result of a painstaking canvass by some twenty or twenty-five young men, some of whom were connected with a class at McCormick Theological Seminary, led by G. B. St. John of New York city. Mr. St. John is engaged in the Social Service Department of the Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church. This department is under the leadership of Charles Stelzle, and is supervised by the secretary of the home board of the church. Constant experience in this line of work, and con-

sultation with the local pastor, gives to them the opportunity to carry out the survey on the basis of the need of the local field.

Many of the conditions which we supposed we understood thoroughly, the survey has proven false, whereas many more which we estimated as correct have been verified. The survey has opened the way for an immense amount of additional activity among our church members and organized forces. Thousands of names of those who are partially interested have been given to us, and can be visited. Hundreds of names have come to us of those who have expressed a definite preference for our demonination and our church, a large share of whom we did not know. The value of such a survey is not only in the gathering of these facts, and in the enlightenment which results, but in the "follow-up" work. A survey for a survey's sake is as useless an undertaking as the act of a vain man sitting for his photograph in order that he may hang it in his own study! But a survey which leads to direct and active "follow-up" work is of just as practical value as the work of a forester who surveys the timber before the lumberman begins his work.

Of course, one of the dangers is that such an immense amount of material is gathered which is not used that it is somewhat discouraging when compared with the actual work followed.

### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SOCIAL SERVICE

OFFERED BY THE COMMUNITY SURVEY OF THE FOURTH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH:

*Ask each member in what activities he or she is engaged and how many contribute toward the support of charitable agencies.*

*Courses in social service should be conducted for men and boys, women and girls.*

*Scouts should represent the church at social agencies and report the work of each to the church group especially interested.*

*Representatives of the church should belong to the local league of the Juvenile Protective Association.*

*Men of the church should walk about the park summer evenings to discover the danger to unattended girls because of a lack of supervision.*

*A look-out should be constantly kept by all members of the church for the sale of liquor, tobacco, and indecent pictures to minors, for disorderly pool rooms, street trades, and other conditions contributing to juvenile delinquency.*

*Men and women should volunteer for friendly visiting, professional men to give legal, medical or dental service; women to be visiting housekeepers, to aid in clerical work, to accompany women and children to dispensaries and hospitals; men and women to volunteer co-operation with department of health, schools, tenement house inspection, hospitals, police; to be responsible for the enforcement of law in the dance halls, and to provide a recreation center for adults in the center of the field.*



This affords, however, an opportunity to discriminate between the important follow-up work and the unimportant, and also puts before the local church the ideal of that to which it may attain. It also gives the spirit of patience to the workers.

It has been demonstrated in many churches and locations that the great difficulty has been that men have not stuck to their own jobs patiently, persistently, faithfully, and constantly. Many a man is more popular in speaking in different places around the country and telling other churches how to work than he is useful in his own field. A survey means that patient, continuous years must show the result of his earnest leadership and labor. A community can not be changed in a month nor in a year. One thing after another must receive the impress of many personalities until the reforming process has resulted from the regenerating process of indi-

vidual life. Theories and plans will not effectually change cities or wards. They are important, but only important when faithful, constant work, together with careful organization, work out results.

A survey such as this also inspires prayerful and conscientious workers to greater effort and to a *greater faith*. The need is seen, and with the need the power of the unseen but all powerful leadership of God is recognized. Men "attempt great things for God," and they are willing to begin in quiet, practical ways, for they also "expect great things from him."

We believe this survey will result in a more definite consecration, and in a more comprehensive view than anything which has ever been attempted in our parish, but we do not mean to philosophize so much as practicalize, and the test of efficiency after all will be seen in the development of the work of years.

## FORD HALL: A SPIRITUAL PLYMOUTH ROCK

WILLIAM HORTON FOSTER

"I could easily imagine the Galilean on that Ford Hall platform answering the eager, earnest questions of the perplexed multitude." In this way William T. Ellis described the Sunday evening forum in Boston whose fifth birthday was celebrated February 23.

Eleven years ago, Daniel Sharp Ford, publisher of *The Youth's Companion*, in his will gave the Baptist Social Union of Boston absolute control of the imposing building opposite the State House on Beacon Hill, as well as a considerable income from invested funds. He desired these gifts to be expended as the union should see fit "to soften the inevitable conflict between employer and employed." In the building was a hall admirably suited for use as a forum. Obeying the wish of the philanthropist, the union has promoted and managed a series of Sunday night meetings, modeled on the Cooper Union gatherings in New York, but having a distinct religious tone.

The prime mover in this undertaking is George W. Coleman, a Baptist layman. His broad social vision discerned the unchurched crowd and he was moved with compassion for it. He saw the "common denominator of ethical impulse," to use his own phrase, which could reduce to common terms varying races and creeds. He believed that a weekly open discussion and conference would help find that common ground upon which men of all creeds and of no creeds could stand together. He further believed that such a meeting would fulfill the letter and the spirit of Daniel Sharp Ford's will.

At the first meeting, February 22, 1909, a labor leader, a settlement worker, a trustee of the union, and the president of the Universal Peace Society addressed the 150 men and women present. At the next meeting, one week later, Charles Sprague Smith of Cooper Union, New York, spoke on the Brotherhood of Man. That brotherhood has been voiced at every meeting

since, but from almost as many points of view as there have been speakers and addresses.

Fully 75 per cent of the members of the audience are men, and about as many confessed to going to no other Sunday religious service. A large majority declare themselves without interest in any form of organized religion. The faith most largely represented is the Jewish; nearly every known creed finds adherents in the congregation—for such it truly is. People of all walks in life, except the leisure class, are represented. About 40 per cent are trade workers, largely union men; about 30 per cent are clerks and salespeople, while the professional and student classes form about equal divisions of the balance.

For all their difference in creed and race, there is one dominant controlling note in all, a passionate longing for light. They are reaching for something somewhere, and there is a dignity about their striving which makes every form of self seeking or self serving look petty and mean. Everything from Socialism to the religion of India is discussed, and every man and woman present is eagerly responsive. The questions are pertinent, often subtle and searching, but a common ethical impulse animates all; men and women of all faiths and no faith sing together *America and Brotherhood* and join reverently in "Our Father who art in Heaven." As one sits night after night and gazes into the faces of the audience he sees them melt into a composite photograph of hope and longing and almost of faith—a picture which has no counterpart outside the records of the vision of a prophet.

There has been no preaching at Ford Hall and yet the majority of the speakers have been preachers. Those who believe that the church will see that its mission is to save the world as well as to save sinners—to guide the poor battered world into a safe port as well as rescue



those poor sailors who have fallen overboard—to use Professor Peabody's fine figure—can take comfort that among clergy as well as laymen are to be found those who can rightly tell the story of brotherhood. And there are ministers in the audience—men who come for fresh inspiration and go back to give to their churches the lessons they have learned from the unchurched.

Already some eleven similar forums are maintained in and about Boston, while five more are about to start and others are forming. New Orleans and Colorado Springs have flourishing forums frankly copying Ford Hall, and Minneapolis, Detroit and Nashville are making preparations for similar undertakings. *The Youth's Companion* is not the only Daniel Sharp Ford institution which is far-reaching in influence.

From the start, the attendance at the meetings has rapidly increased. Hundreds are turned away and the line waits outside for hours. There is never any crowding or jostling, and through friendly contact in this way the audience gets to feel cordial and unrestrained. *Ford Hall Folks*, a journal containing a stenographic report of the address given each week and the questions asked afterward, is passed around before the meeting opens, and for the next half hour the audience busies itself in discussion of the meeting of a week ago. Genuinely good music makes up the first half-hour of the program. Then comes the address and then the questions. And those questions! David Starr Jordan refers to the "exciting pleasure" of his address. He must be a brave man who would face a Ford Hall audience. Some restless questioner seems always able to find the weak spot in the most carefully prepared address. The real spirit of the questions and the questioners is courteous—no matter how stinging may be the form of the remark.

The most enjoyable feature about the questioning is George W. Coleman. He as chairman—and he has been in charge of the meetings ever since they started—receives the questions and passes them on to the speaker. Of course, the audience is human as all audiences are, and occasionally a little animosity creeps in; occasionally a "thinker who has never been able to harness up his theories to actual life" gets lost in the mazes of his own question. But they all respond to the lightest suggestion from Mr. Coleman. Anything he says goes with them, for he belongs to them and they love him.

The human equation in it all is George W. Coleman. A little Jewess of sixteen said in a letter: "I am one of the girls you used to meet on your way to work and whom you have converted to desire to do unto others as you would have them do unto you." Busy business man as he is, one would judge from the account—an account difficult to obtain!—of his kindnesses that serving his Ford Hall folks is his chief occupation. He carries them always in his heart. He knows most of them by name—the atheist in the far gallery, the Italian tailor down in front, the militant trade unionist on the left, the I. W. W. laborer back by the door, the So-



GEORGE W. COLEMAN

cialist in the front corner—yes, and the little Jewess near the large pillar—he knows them all and they know he knows them, really knows them, and that's why they love him.

Since the first season, Mary C. Crawford, formerly secretary of the Woman's Trade Union League, has acted as secretary at the meetings. A college graduate and trained journalist, she has brought to the multitudinous details of the work the system and the push that have been necessary to energize it.

On their anniversary the Ford Hall folks presented to George W. Coleman a beautiful bound volume of touchingly appreciative letters from men in every part of the country who are prominent in various walks of life as well as from the regular attendants at the meetings. The following examples will serve to tell the story of Ford Hall and to present a composite tribute to the chairman of the meetings.

"I never believed it possible to love in such a personal sense every member of an aggregation of people," declared one who says the meetings have revived his religion and his hope.

The secretary of a cigar makers' union says: "A trade unionist, pure and simple, who believes in the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man, I desire to express my appreciation of what Ford Hall is doing. . . . Truly the Christian is beginning to understand christianity."

A Boston woman, born of Pilgrim ancestors, meets "at Ford Hall men and women of all nationalities from all countries, and some of no country to judge by their confessions of faith. We feel that we are all one people for we are all searching for the same truths. It is wonderful."





FORD HALL CONGREGATION

Freda Rogolsky says: "Ford Hall is a 'melting pot' where we all come together, forgetting all prejudices, and are brothers listening to how we may better the conditions and make this world a better place to live in for our next generations."

A blind man says: "You are helping to work out the grand thought of the poet:

"So many gods, so many creeds,  
So many paths that wind and wind,  
When just the art of being kind  
Is all the sad world needs."

Meyer Bloomfield adds his word: "The Ford Hall meetings have been a school of democracy where the faculty has been the audience."

Rabbi Wise: "I think, Dear Coleman, that your very special if not unique achievement lies in showing forth as you do, with earnestness and power, what I venture to call the practicability of religion—the realization of our ideals."

Norman Hapgood declares "Perhaps the greatest problem of democracy is to bring into the lives of the working majority as fine a spiritual and intellectual element as can be had by what are now the more favored classes. Towards this end your work at Ford Hall is contributing nobly."

Rev. Harold Marshall writes: "For a hundred years we Universalists have been proclaiming a belief that religion is a human attribute; but here in the cradle of liberal Christianity we left it to you to conduct the first serious laboratory experiment to test the theory. Some day Ford Hall will be recognized as a *spiritual Plymouth Rock*."

A Jew writes: "I am a Jew, you know, and some of the dearest friends I possess were formerly rabid Jew-haters. But such animosity cannot exist in Ford Hall atmosphere; it melts. And you may rest assured that I, in return, have learned to love my Christian neighbors, God bless them. Such is Christianity, stranger, as Ford Hall expounds it."

And then mark what Lyman Abbott says: "You have proved in Boston . . . that whenever the church forgets itself and thinks only of the service which it can render, it finds that the people are interested in problems of the religious life more profoundly than in any other problem, and will flock in great numbers to hear these problems discussed in a vital way by vital men."

And finally a cluster of epigrammatic appreciations of what Ford Hall has meant to regular attendants at the Sunday meetings:

"These meetings stand for the highest type of moral and educational influences."

"Ford Hall stands for the biggest and broadest brotherhood."

"Each lecture affords me a continuous pleasure for the week."

"I have never left a meeting without feeling uplifted, strengthened, benefitted."

"Aching to tell what Ford Hall has done for me."

"Ford Hall meetings are more to me than a college education."



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# INDUSTRY

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## LABOR CONDITIONS AND INTERSTATE COMMERCE

ADELBERT MOOT

FORMER PRESIDENT NEW YORK STATE BAR ASSOCIATION

*[In many quarters the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court upholding the Mann Act, in the white slave cases, has been regarded as foreshadowing the entrance of the federal government upon many lines of legislation that have been considered, heretofore, as exclusively within the province of the states. In this article Mr. Moot shows how the result in the Mann case marks the culmination of a line of decisions which may establish the right of Congress to enact social legislation controlling all industries that enter into interstate commerce.—Ed.]*

In his striking inaugural address, President Wilson said:

"We have been proud of our industrial achievements, but we have not hitherto stopped thoughtfully enough to count the human cost, the cost of lives snuffed out, of energies overtaxed and broken, the fearful physical and spiritual cost to the men and women and children upon whom the dead weight and burden of it all has fallen piteously the years through. The groans and agony of it all had not yet reached our ears; the solemn moving undertone of our life coming up out of the mines and factories; and out of every home where the struggle had its intimate and familiar seat. . . . There can be no equality of opportunity, the first essential of justice in the body politic, if men and women and children be not shielded in their lives, their very vitality, from the consequences of great industrial and social processes which they cannot alter, control, or singly cope with. . . . Sanitary laws, pure food laws, and laws determining conditions of labor which individuals are powerless to determine for themselves are intimate parts of the very business of justice and legal efficiency."

Has the national government power to remedy the conditions the president describes and suggests should be remedied? A brief consideration of our Constitution and some of the decisions under it may be of value in answering this question.

The power granted the national government by the Constitution to deal with such matters is contained in the following words:

"The Congress shall have power . . . to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes;"

and in the supplemental grant of power:

"To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the fore-

going powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof."

Any thoughtful consideration of the language used in the Constitution will show that the extent of this grant of power to the national government depends upon the exclusive or inclusive meaning put upon the words "to regulate commerce." What do those words mean? In what sense are they used in the Constitution? The Constitution itself is silent upon that subject. Consequently, we must look to decisions made in cases involving laws of the states and of the United States, for the answer the courts have been forced to make to these questions.

The first great case to come before the courts (*Gibbons vs. Ogden*, 9 Wheaton, 1), was a case involving the navigation of the Hudson river, wholly within New York. The state of New York assumed it had the right to control the navigation of this river, and it granted to Fulton and his associates the exclusive right to navigate the Hudson river with the steamboats built under Fulton's patents. In due time, this exclusive right was questioned by others who also desired to navigate the Hudson river with steamboats. The resulting litigation passed through the courts of New York, and in those courts one of the greatest judges of his time upheld the exclusive right granted by New York state, and enjoined Gibbons from navigating the Hudson river for that reason. Gibbons retained Daniel Webster and William Wirt, two of the most eminent lawyers any country ever saw, to present his case to the United States Supreme Court. They were met by lawyers almost equally proficient, and the case was ably argued in that court in the February term, 1824.

The result of that argument was the first



great decision as to the meaning of the language quoted from the Constitution, one of the most important decisions ever rendered by any court. In substance the court held in this case that Congress had the power to prescribe the terms and conditions under which vessels might navigate the great rivers and lakes of this country.

This decision really turns upon the meaning of the single word "commerce." In the decision, Chief Justice Marshall thus defined that word:

"The counsel for the appellee would limit it to traffic, to buying and selling, or the interchange of commodities, and do not admit that it comprehends navigation. This would restrict a general term applicable to many objects, to one of its significations. Commerce undoubtedly is traffic, but it is something more; it is intercourse. It describes the commercial intercourse between nations and parts of nations, in all its branches, and is regulated by prescribing rules for carrying on that intercourse."

This singularly clear decision as to what the word "commerce" means, as used in the Constitution, has been quoted again and again in numberless decisions since, but so well has it stood the test of time that no serious or lasting criticism of it has ever been made. The statement that it includes "commercial intercourse . . . in all its branches" proved most illuminating. Under this ruling it was conceded that where Congress spoke on the subject by statute, all state laws must yield, but in the absence of congressional statutes it has been conceded that within reasonable bounds states might legislate as to commerce within state boundaries. Where the subject is national, and admits of only one uniform system of law, state laws are invalid, but where the subject is one that has a local as well as a national character, there may be both state and national laws on the subject, if they do not conflict.

And so, following this first decision came others holding that all vessels, crews, passengers, freight, bridges, and the like, substantially involving interstate commerce by water, are subject to national regulation.

Then came the statutes and decisions following the same case, holding that all railways, engines, cars, railway passengers, passenger rates, freight, freight rates, safety appliances, telegraph lines, hours of labor, and employers' liability, are subject to the same law where interstate commerce is substantially involved.

But a momentous question remained unsettled as recently as 1903, and that was the meaning of the word "regulate." Did it include prohibition of that which is evil? In 1895 Congress made it a crime to carry lottery tickets in interstate commerce, by mail or otherwise, and the legal question raised was, had Congress the power thus to prohibit such interstate traffic.

So well was this question argued at the October term, 1900, that it was ordered re-argued at the October term the following year, and again ordered re-argued at the October term, 1902. As the result of these three arguments, a bare majority of the court finally sustained Justice Harlan in a decision thus carefully stated by him:

"We decide nothing more in the present case than that lottery tickets are subjects of traffic among those who choose to sell or buy them; that the carriage of such tickets by independent carriers from one state to another is, therefore, interstate commerce; that under its power to regulate commerce among the several states Congress, subject to the limitations imposed by the Constitution upon the exercise of the powers granted, has plenary authority over such commerce, and may prohibit the carriage of such tickets from state to state; and that legislation to that end and of that character is not inconsistent with any limitation or restriction imposed upon the exercise of the powers granted to Congress." (Lottery Cases, 188 U. S. 325, 363.)

Having these cases in mind, it will be seen that commerce includes intercourse between the states, and Congress, having the power to prohibit immoral commerce, or intercourse, or traffic, that thereby the interstate channels may be left free and unobstructed for moral and harmless commerce and intercourse, it follows that the Mann Law, prohibiting the importation of white slaves from one state to another, or from one country to another, is the mere exercise of the great power of Congress granted to it by the Constitution and upheld by a long line of decisions of the courts, of which the few striking ones referred to are only illustrations.

Let us add one further illustration of the power of Congress in all these matters.

In 1906 Congress enacted an Employers' Liability Law, that was soon pronounced unconstitutional because it did not carefully observe the rights reserved to the states in such matters, as to concerns not engaged in any way in interstate commerce; but that decision plainly showed that an act properly drawn as to interstate commerce employers would probably be upheld by the Supreme Court. (Employers' Liability Cases, 207 U. S. 463.)

Accordingly in April, 1910, Congress amended the Employers' Liability Act to make it conform to this decision of the Supreme Court. The amended act, however, was also attacked as to its constitutionality, but it was upheld by the court. In upholding that act the court quoted with approval from the able brief of the late Solicitor General Bowers the following clear statement of the "settled" law:

"The act of interstate commerce is done by the labor of men and with the help of things; and these men and things are the agents and



instruments of the commerce. If the agents or instruments are destroyed while they are doing the act, commerce is stopped; if the agents or instruments are interrupted, commerce is interrupted; if the agents or instruments are not of the right kind or quality, commerce in consequence becomes slow or costly or unsafe or otherwise inefficient; and if the conditions under which the agents or instruments do the work of commerce are wrong or disadvantageous, those bad conditions may and often will prevent or interrupt the act of commerce or make it less expeditious, less reliable, less economical and less secure. Therefore, Congress may legislate about the agents and instruments of interstate commerce and about the conditions under which those agents and instruments perform the work of interstate commerce, whenever such legislation bears, or in the exercise of a fair legislative discretion can be deemed to bear, upon the reliability or promptness or economy or security or utility of the interstate commerce act." (Second Employers' Liability Cases, 223 U. S., 1, 48.)

Recurring now to the language quoted from the stirring address of President Wilson—what application shall we make of these settled rules of law in dealing with the subject brought so forcibly to our attention by him? The question presented is, shall we go to all the various state legislatures with model acts designed to regulate the hours of labor, days of labor, places of labor, and compensation to injured employes, or to those who come after them, or, instead, shall we look to the national legislature for proper national legislation on these subjects? Shall we fritter away our time in piecemeal appeals to the various state legislatures for piecemeal legislation, however model its character, or, instead, shall we look to the national legislature for carefully thought out and comprehensive legislation covering the subject?

The great railways, steamship lines, and manufacturing and distributing corporations all do interstate business. Millions of men and women are engaged with the railways, the steamship lines, the steel companies, the wholesale stores, and the great manufacturing industries of the country. Many of these employes work twelve hours a day, and seven days a week, while many other worthy citizens find it difficult to get any work at all, so unevenly is work distributed. Women and children work hopelessly long days, and too many of them, while other women and children are unable to get any work, because of this unequal distribution. In many places the working conditions are unsafe and unsanitary, while in others they are good.

Is it not plain that all these employers and these laborers should have some more uniform and just rule of law to govern their relations to each other and to their work? Should it not be possible to take all the model laws and from them frame a national act that will cover the permissible hours and days of labor for men, women and children, the permissible sanitary conditions for them, the permissible conditions for them as to safety, and that will prescribe

what compensation shall be received by them in case of injury, or by those who come after them in case of their death?

Should it not be possible to prepare legislation definite and clear enough to enable the injured employe, or his widow or representative, easily to determine what their rights are in order that without the intervention of an insurance company or a lawyer a fair settlement may be made with the employer? After giving a reasonable time in which to make such settlements, and providing that settlements brought about by fraud or unfairness shall be void, should not such legislation provide for a competent adjuster in each federal district, appointed by the judge, who shall take proof as to the facts in case of dispute, and report to the court his opinion as to liability? If a lawyer or a claim agent is engaged, should not his compensation be subject to the action of the court, that the injustice of a 50 per cent contingent fee for merely making a settlement or conducting an easy case shall no longer be possible? If either party is dissatisfied with the report of the adjuster, upon filing exceptions to that report, should the party not have the right to come into the court and try the case out before court and jury in the usual manner?

If we had such a statute applying to all corporations substantially engaged in interstate commerce, and all such corporations were compelled to file within a reasonable time their written assent to its terms of liability or be prohibited from engaging in interstate commerce, it is not difficult to believe that an immense amount of injustice and litigation could be avoided.

Would it not be better to have such simple legislation, laying stress on sanitary conditions and safety, reasonable hours of work, and reasonable compensation in case of injury or death, than it would be to have crude state insurance laws that encourage malingering, enormously increase the expense of taxpayers for needless officials, and fail to put a premium on the side of health and safety?

Doubtless such a statute could not be drawn in a day. It would require the mature consideration of labor leaders and employers of labor, and the most experienced and broad-minded counsel that they could bring to their consideration. There have been objections in the past, and there will be objections in the future, to any such legislation, because of state rights.

Right or wrong, however, the Constitution of the United States, the decisions to which we have called attention, and the business conditions of today, have made it impossible properly to settle this broad question by appealing to first one state and then another. For a long period of years experienced and able lawyers have labored for uniform state legislation on matters so simple that it would seem easy to obtain it, and yet as the result of all these labors there are but few laws that are uniform in different states, and usually these laws are to be found in but very few states.

In the matter of welfare of workers in inter-



state commerce, however, is involved a problem of national concern, and it can be adequately dealt with only by national law. Upon no other basis can the employers or the employees be put on equal terms with each other everywhere in interstate commerce. If the relation of employers and employees to each other in interstate

commerce is thus regulated by national law, the states, in self-defense, will be compelled to adopt substantially the same regulations. It is only just and right that a subject of national importance and scope should be settled by national law; and it is doubtful if it will ever be settled right by any legislation short of that.

## WOMEN'S TRADE UNIONS'

FRANCES SQUIRE POTTER

The first women trade unionists in America were conscious daughters of one revolution and the mothers of a greater one. Naturally their organization arose in New England, the theater of the early industrial movement. They were characterized by a New England feeling. The textile workers were American girls, the daughters of farmers. A strong religious note pervaded their resolutions and other official utterances. There was a remarkable repetition of the declarations and phrases which had been common fifty years before upon the lips of the revolutionary orators and patriots.

The movement for organization among them from the time of the formation of a union by the tailoresses of New York in 1825 through the dominant period of the Knights of Labor is outlined by John B. Andrews, now secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, in Volume X of the Federal Report on the Condition of Woman and Child Wage-Earners in the United States. Mr. Andrews' résumé is clear, concrete, unpretentious and comprehensive. It shows a penetrating and orderly grasp of the subject. The writer has an appreciation of the picturesque and a sympathy which is grateful to the layman. These qualities, also enhance the value of his analysis for the scientific reader. There is apparent an understanding of the slow and progressive change of industrial forces which he interprets through an admirable selection of seemingly fragmentary episodes. Mr. Andrews has condensed and selected with skill, yet he knows when to go into detail. The emphasis placed upon the great principles behind the brief successes and the inevitable reverses of women's trade unions make this report an unusually valuable document.

Certain things stay by one after reading Mr. Andrews' report. Among these are: the patience and endurance of women workers; the prevalence of the defensive strike against longer hours, cut wages, and worse things; the dramatic coming together of the ardent and ignorant altruist from without the ranks of labor, and the definite, practical worker; the well-intentioned but one-sided vision of the altruist so obsessed with the woman side of the movement that she could organize women as strike breakers in a man's strike, and the more enlightened leadership of a Leonora Barry, "machine hand," who said "Organize within the industrial hive,

not just as women"; the importance of the press, particularly the labor press; the social evil inevitably keeping pace with economic depression; the growing callousness of the public consciousness from the Puritan days to the present, along with the increase of reform talk.

The account of the first strikes is illuminating when placed side by side with those of today. They were defensive rather than aggressive. They were accompanied by what are generally supposed to be recent devices—parades, mass meetings, ballads and lampoons.

The earliest sustained investigations into the conditions of working women in the United States were made and published by Mathew Carey of Philadelphia in the twenties. Under his inspiration, too, in 1835, the tailoresses and seamstresses of Philadelphia met with the women of other trades, and formed what is, apparently, the first city federation of working women's organizations. The ten years following 1825 saw the organization of several trades besides those of the textile workers. The experiments were sporadic; but even the failures inspire respect because they illustrate the crying out of a live organism against the first pinch of the great competitive forces of industrialism in the machine age.

The second period of the movement, 1840-60, represents the vaguer and wider protest of a nation groping for a remedy against wrongs which were repudiated morally but not understood economically. The struggle between abolitionists and secessionists has drawn attention away from the less spectacular developments appearing in the women's reform associations. These organizations were composed chiefly of textile mill girls but included representatives of cap-makers, shoe-makers, and the intolerably oppressed tailoresses and seamstresses. These are the years of legislative reform and legislative disillusionment for working women. The leaders soon realized the hopelessness of isolated action, and the organizations of Pennsylvania and New England women began to co-operate. The first ten-hour law was passed by the New Hampshire legislature in 1847 with the vitiating clause exempting special contract.

The Civil War accelerated the changes begun earlier. The government, for the first time, employed women in clerkships. War widows took to the needle in such numbers that women who were not "near relations of soldiers" were pushed to the wall by government preference. Women

<sup>1</sup>See Federal Report on Woman and Child Wage-earners in the United States. Prepared under the direction of Charles P. Neill. Vol. X. Women in Trade Unions.



sewing for the contract departments appealed to Lincoln for relief against the sub-contract middlemen. Shortly after began that influx of old world peoples and old world problems which the founders of the republic thought they had left behind them for good when they crossed the Atlantic. Famine drove the immigrants out of Ireland. The year of revolution, 1848, drove them out of western Europe. The Austro-Prussian War drove them out of eastern Europe. For fifty years we have felt the same terror of this inundation, and still they are coming!

In 1869 women were admitted for the first time, upon equal terms, into a men's trade union, when a charter was granted to the women of Typographical Union No. 1 of New York. This event marks a step in the wisdom of both men and women. It was the first perception of the fact that the economic problem is the same for every worker regardless of sex, and that there is but one way to solve it, by making common cause. This third period also saw in the Daughters of St. Crispin, an association of the shoe workers, the rise of the first national organization of women.

The Fourth Period, which began in 1880, is characterized by the dominance of the Knights of Labor. This organization affirmed the solidarity of labor without regard to trades or sex. It was the first time that a general organization invited women into its ranks upon an equal foot-

ing with men. One of the most stirring stories in the annals of the woman's labor movement is that of Mrs. Leonora Barry, lecturer, pamphleteer, organizer, research worker, and consecrated politician.

The report is presented in two divisions. Part II, by W. D. P. Bliss, is a collection of research material upon the history of women in trade unions since the organization of the American Federation of Labor. Up-to-date tables are interspersed and the collection is preceded by the author's exposition of his theory and conclusions. There is a sense of nearness to the materials which indicates a lack of organic grasp of the subject.

Part II gives one the impression of being an accumulation of facts, for later synthesis. There are striking narrations; for example, the episode of the Swedish women of Chicago. One is conscious of the on-coming of the tragedy of labor, which, after all, is not so much its struggle with oppressive external forces as it is the disasters from internal treachery and dissension.

An appendix by Helen Marot gives the key for the interpretation of the Woman's Trade Union movement of today.

The volume as a whole leaves a vivid conception, tempered by a true historical perspective, of the throes of a giant democracy to rid itself of the congestion and fever of an over-speeded, unsystematized, faulty industrial system.

## TIMBER CAMP PLANNING IN ALABAMA

ETHEL ARMES

Kaulton is the name of the first model industrial town to be set up in Alabama by a lumber concern. Saw mill camps are proverbial all over the South for rather sorry conditions, rough shacks, hill-billy folk and hill-billy looks all through. The Kaul Lumber Company has a large saw mill plant in the county of Tuscaloosa—a portion of what is known as the Birmingham district—about a quarter of a mile south of the century-old town of Tuscaloosa, seat of the state university.

The company owns an immense acreage of timber in this section. A tract comprising eighty acres immediately adjoining the plant, thickly wooded in spots and fairly level, was set aside by this company for separate quarters for its white and negro labor, and ground was thus broken a year ago for the town.

The town plan, the work of George F. Miller, of Boston, the landscape architect who designed Corey, is compact, practical and artistic. In form, like a palm-leaf fan, the stem leads out from the saw mill and all the "works" in the form of a tree-lined way to the office and commissary, church and school buildings, fountain and park space, on beyond to the workers' homes.

At the present time, forty-five houses and the hotel have been completed. They are plain, simple houses, an adaptation of the California bungalow type, but with higher ceilings and more

air space. There are four rooms to each house 14 by 18 feet, two chimneys, and double windows. The inn is designed along California-Spanish lines and has twenty rooms. It is built in a square with a patio in the center to be grass plotted and planted with roses and wistaria.

While the sewerage, drainage systems, lighting and water works are not yet completed, each house is designed to permit their installation.

The houses are all standard type, all precisely alike, built of lumber, rough side out. They do not, however, present a uniform appearance because such varying material is used in their construction, and a varying color scheme is employed. A high grade creosoted stain is used in several shades of browns and greens, some yellows and whites, and thus a charming and harmonious effect is obtained. They are further differentiated by various styles of lattice work and grill work on the little front porches, on which it is proposed to have climbing vines and roses. Then, too, the lots vary, being from 57 to 70 feet front, and from 125 to 140 feet deep, while there is a good space between the houses and none of them are "lined up" in stiff rows, but follow a general curvilinear scheme and all slope toward the street.

Water oaks, red elms and Lombardy poplars will be planted on the streets this spring. The original forest trees—second growth at least—



pinus and oaks and some hickory, are retained in every possible instance.

The inn faces a reservation which is planned to be at some future date an athletic field, park and playground. It is the purpose of the company to have their employes develop this feature themselves. "Paternalism" is being strictly avoided.

The Negro camp is across the railroad tracks at some distance from the white camp, and has its own civic center, and town plan, quite as attractive as the white section of Kaulton.

#### NIGHT TELEPHONE OPERATORS

In the December, 1912, Bulletin of the New York Department of Labor, E. B. Patton gives the result of a study of night telephone service. The report shows that 99 per cent of the 10,652 persons employed in the telephone industry in this state are women. Of these 2,677 work at night, the greater proportion in New York city. About 50 per cent work the whole night from 9 P. M. to 6 A. M. Of the 2,230 female operators whose age is reported, almost 73 per cent were under twenty-one years; in New York city less than 15 per cent were twenty-one years or over.

New York city, however, though offending in respect to the employment of extremely young girls at night, has a maximum night shift of only eight hours. Some of the up-state towns work the telephone girls ten and even more hours. The maximum was found to be a night of fourteen hours for eight operators. In all instances time for meals taken in the office is included in these hours. In the cases of excessively long hours, which were, of course, illegal, the country office operator usually sleeps between calls, and is wakened by a buzzer. Weekly hours ranged from thirty-six to ninety-eight. More than a quarter of these girl workers were found to have a seven-day week, all these cases being in the smaller exchanges outside the cities.

The extent to which the girls are exposed to the dangers of the street at night is not great. All but about one hundred of the 1,253 who reported on this matter leave or go to their work by ten o'clock or before. Three operators in New York city go off duty at 12 o'clock, and one in a country town goes on at 5:30 A. M.

In one respect this group of girls appears unusually well protected, for out of the whole group only 6.5 per cent reported that they boarded away from home. This is to be accounted for in part by the fact that the telephone companies, according to the report, give preference to girls living at home, but living at home, in turn, reacts on wages.

The maximum wage among the 1,100 operators, whose earnings were learned, was \$12 a week. This was paid to twenty-six girls in New York city and to one out of town. The minimum salary was \$12 a month which was paid to five village operators: In New York city 82.5 per cent earned \$8 or over a week; none received below \$6. Outside of the city 33 per cent got less than \$6, and only

22 per cent \$8 or more. The wages of a few women in supervisory positions were higher than those of the operators. Most of these received between \$12 and \$15, many of them rising with length of service.

#### CANNERS IN THREE STATES

Three states and possibly more are considering whether canners shall be permitted to exploit woman and child labor *ad libitum*. It is an old question in New York and the method of dealing with it in the past has been to let the canners have their own way. Now, however, the situation is different. After the revelations of the Factory Investigating Commission the canners are in a chastened mood.

When the hearing was held at Albany on February 19 on the thirty-two labor bills, including those extending the protection of the law to women and children employed in canneries, the canning interests proposed but two changes. They urged the committee not to make a corn field legally a factory, and they asked that a lower age limit than fourteen be decided upon for the employment of children in sheds. But they abandoned all their old contentions. They were not only willing that the legislature should fix any age limit below fourteen that it saw fit, but that it should also make any limit that it considered advisable on the daily hours of work.

This development ought to be of some significance to Missouri and California where the canners are not in so contrite a mood. When the eight-hour law for women was enacted in California in 1911 the canning industry was exempted from its operations. It is now proposed in a bill before the legislature to make the law applicable to the growers and canners of fruit. These industries have organized a committee to fight the proposition, and to draw an amendment satisfactory to themselves.

In Missouri the situation is quite similar. The Missouri Valley Canners' Association at its recent annual convention, discussed at length the hardship worked on their industry by the child labor law and by the act limiting the hours of employment for women to nine a day. A committee of three men including the president of the association, R. B. Gillette, was appointed "to take the necessary steps to influence members of the legislature to make the desired changes in the laws." The fact that there will be more than one hundred new canning factories in the state by the time the next crops come on makes it imperative, the canners say, that the legislature grant them relief.

"The canning season is at its height at the farmers' busiest time," said President Gillette. "Consequently, help is always scarce and it is not only necessary to employ children, but the women employes are needed more than nine hours each day. Conditions surrounding the workmen in the canning factory out in the country are different from those met with in the factories in the larger cities. In the country the air is pure and the conditions altogether different from those which the laws were framed to cover. Last season



Missouri cannery lost considerable money because they could not employ children."

It is possible that the answer of the legislature to the cannery's association will be the passage of an eight-hour law. It is probable that an amendment to the nine-hour law extending its operation to women in every field of industry covered by the most progressive labor legislation in other states will go through. Both the eight-hour bill and the amendment mentioned have been introduced and have strong backing—with no contentions among the backers.

#### COMPENSATION AND STATE LINES

A decision which is, in the opinion of H. P. Bradbury, writing in the *Market World and Chronicle*, the "most important legal chapter that has been added to the workmen's compensation question in a long time" has recently been handed down by Justice Cohalan of the New York Supreme Court. This decision was made in the case of Antonio Albanese, a resident of New York, who brought suit under the common law in a New York court for serious injuries sustained in a hoist elevator while in the employ of James Stewart and Company at Fort Lee, N. J. The defendants claimed that the case was governed not by the common law but by the New Jersey compensation law, which operates as a waiver of the common law right and substitutes a liability for the compensation provided therein. To this defense the plaintiff took exception on the ground that the New Jersey law was unconstitutional and opposed to the public policy of New York. He cited the Ives case and contended that inasmuch as the courts of New York had held the New York act to be unconstitutional, they could not enforce a like statute of another state.

The court upheld defendants' contention that the New Jersey act was elective or optional and therefore did not come within the scope of the Ives case holding a compulsory act unconstitutional. The decision thus upholds both the constitutionality of the New Jersey law and the right to recover under that law in a New York court.

Part of the text of Justice Cohalan's decision follows:

"The New Jersey act is not a compulsory statute. It is a so-called optional or elective statute. The act, in section 2, paragraph 9, provides that a contract of hiring shall be presumed to have been made under the act unless a contract of employment or a notice sent by either party to the other shall otherwise provide, and no such contract has been made or notice sent by either party in this case. The statute, therefore, becomes compulsory only in the event that neither party disaffirms it. Following the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of *Mondou vs. N. Y., N. H. & H. Ry. Co.*, reported in 223 U. S. 1, upholding the Federal Employers' Liability Acts, the several states have passed legislation embodying provisions similar to those contained in the statute in question. These statutes invariably have been declared constitu-

tional. The accident happened in the state of New Jersey, and as the liability of the defendants is governed by the law of that state, I think that the demurrer should be overruled, with leave to the plaintiff to reply to the defenses set forth in the answer."

A case decided on like grounds in the same court at about the same time is that of Antonio Pensabene, a citizen of New York, whose administrator sought to recover under the New Jersey compensation act for his death in the employ of the L. and J. Auditore Company of New Jersey. The court (Judge Kelby delivering the opinion) decided in that case for the plaintiff on the same grounds as those on which the plaintiff in the Albanese case lost in choosing to sue under the common law of New York.

#### DEPARTMENT STORES AND EARLY CLOSING

Emphasis on the fire danger in department stores was the distinctive feature of last year's annual report of the president of the New York Consumers League. Now the association is urging as thorough an investigation of these dangers as has been made of New York factories. The report this year takes account also of another hazard in the life of the saleswoman—the low wages that make her an easy prey to moral temptation. An investigation of the wages of 334 saleswomen over sixteen years old in stores of all grades throughout the city showed that 60 per cent received \$6.50 or less, and that 33 per cent receive between \$6 and \$6.50. Wages, according to the report, do not increase proportionately with length of service. These figures were gathered as part of a campaign which the league is undertaking for a state minimum wage commission.

In the matter of early Christmas closing the league reports a discouraging showing in New York.

A year ago the large Sixth avenue stores which had previously kept open from six to ten nights preceding Christmas closed at six on all but three evenings. This year, there was apparently no preconcerted arrangement to close early. Twenty-one firms closed at six as usual, other firms kept their stores open from four to ten nights. Some of those uptown kept open until 9, 9:30, 10, 11 and 11:30 P. M., and many employes were detained until a much later hour arranging stock. In a number of stores, employes were obliged to work on Sundays in addition. In the candy department of one of our best known department stores, a saleswoman worked 11½ hours a day or 65 hours during the week before Christmas. Supper was given but no extra pay. In the toy department some girls worked 73, 82 and 88 hours. On Thanksgiving Eve one clerk left the store at 2:30 A. M.

One packer who worked for sixteen years in a fashionable store, said that because of the long hours of work he had never been able to eat dinner with his family in all these years, except on Sunday nights and during three summer months on Saturday nights. The league's investigating committee noted that there was much



late shopping in stores which were supposed to close at 6 P. M. Customers remained after that hour and thus detained employes from twenty minutes to half an hour. Sometimes that meant losing a ferry boat or train, which delayed the evening meal. Merchants advertised that they would send home that same night or on Christmas morning all articles purchased on Christmas Eve, even if purchased as late as 10 P. M. Delivery wagons were therefore seen in the streets on the afternoon of Christmas Day, showing that some delivery clerks lost their holiday because of the procrastination of thoughtless shoppers. "Much of the labor of the world," writes Mrs. Nathan, "would be a real joy instead of a hardship were the hours of labor shorter. Exhaustion, ill-health, poor service are the inevitable results of long hours."

### JOTTINGS

#### PROGRAM FOR BIRMINGHAM WORKERS

John Mitchell, former president of the United Mine Workers of America, was interviewed recently by Ethel Armes for the *Birmingham News*. It will be remembered that the Birmingham coal fields have been largely non-union since the strikes of 1908. Miss Armes summarizes Mr. Mitchell's statements by saying:

That coal should "stand on its own bottom."

That the coal digger should be paid in cash and not in apples and potatoes.

That, while the commissary system may be a necessity in remote districts in Alabama, the abuses of this system should not be further tolerated.

That the semi-monthly pay day will, in great degree, eliminate these abuses.

That the interests of the workingmen and the merchants of the Birmingham district are identical insofar as the abolition of the truck store is concerned.

That the mining camps of Alabama should be thrown open to truck gardeners, peddlers and merchants throughout town and country.

That wages of workingmen should be higher in the Birmingham district if the whole community is to prosper.

That it is the payroll of workingmen—the trade and the citizenship of the great masses—that make a city.

That a system of ethics on the part of great companies; fair dealing and square dealing; good housing and living conditions, must be more general in Alabama and more uniform, if the best results are to be hoped for.

That all employes everywhere throughout this district must be free to trade where they please.

That the simple rights of trade organization among employes should not be denied, inasmuch as they make for associated expression, greater co-operation between employer and employe; necessary changes for good, and insure the personal freedom of the employe and make for industrial peace and prosperity for all concerned.

That the labor movement in America, being the only hope for democracy, will ultimately prevail and quiet the present unrest and discontent.

#### FEDERAL REPORT ON THE COST OF LIVING

In Bulletins 105, 106, 108, 110 of the federal Bureau of Labor, six volumes in the bureau's cost of living series are now available. The bulletins cover the retail prices (1890-1911) of the principal articles of food and of coal and gas for household use gathered from each of thirty-nine of the most important industrial cities in the United States. They also summarize data on cost of living published in the eighteenth annual report of the bureau and in several of its earlier bulletins, and give comparative prices of the principal articles of food for given months in 1911 and 1912. The average increase shown in some of the tables is 15 per cent. The following table is representative:

	Per cent of increase in price	Per cent of decrease in price
Potatoes, Irish .....		23.7
Sugar, granulated .....		20.4
Flour, wheat .....	0.6	
Milk, fresh .....	3.3	
Butter, creamery .....	6.5	
Ham, smoked .....	7.8	
Hens .....	8.7	
Corn meal .....	9.3	
Bacon, smoked .....	11.6	
Eggs, strictly fresh .....	13.8	
Rib roast .....	16.5	
Lard, pure .....	17.2	
Strloin steak .....	19.4	
Round steak .....	20.1	
Pork chops .....	22.1	

The bureau purposes to issue a report covering prices for the first six months of 1912 and thereafter to publish a current price report every two months, based upon monthly price lists sent in by 675 retail merchants, 140 bakeries, 165 coal dealers and 60 gas companies.

#### STEEL CORPORATION PENSION FUND

The second annual report of the United States Steel and Carnegie Pension Fund covering the year 1912 has been issued. The number of beneficiaries on December 31, 1912, was 1,843 as against 1,606 on December 31, 1911. During 1912, 363 beneficiaries were added, and 126 were discontinued. The corresponding figures for 1911 were 565 and 111 respectively. The average age of the cases added in 1912 was 63.69 years, while the average for the previous year was 66.66. The average period of service of the cases added in 1912 was 29.14 years as against 40.03 years for those added during the preceding twelve months. The average pension received by the new cases of 1912 is \$20.30 a month. In 1911, it was forty-five cents more. The total amount expended for pensions in 1912 shows a considerable increase. The sum was \$358,780.92 in 1912 while in 1911 it was \$281,457.37.

#### WAGE INCREASES IN STEEL INDUSTRY

The United States Steel Corporation on February 1, raised its rate for common labor in the Pittsburgh district from 17½ cents to 20 cents an hour. On March 1, the Cambria Steel Company of Johnstown, Pa., advanced the common labor rate from 15 to 17 cents an hour. Other independents at Youngstown, O., and elsewhere have also announced wage advances.



## COMMUNICATION

### MOTHERS' PENSIONS

TO THE EDITOR:

You will, of course, be glad to publish this statement of mine:

Soon after I succeeded in getting the Mothers' Pension Law enacted in Illinois people all over the United States, including governors, legislators, social workers and philanthropists, began to write me asking for full information about this new law.

These requests increased from month to month until they numbered thousands.

Not being a rich man myself I could not afford to hire stenographers and pay postage for carrying on this voluminous correspondence.

Judge McKenzie Cleland and I then formed the Mothers' Pension League for the purpose of gathering and distributing authentic information on the mothers' pension movement all over the United States.

People interested are asked to pay one dollar, which money is all used in paying for printing, postage, stenographers and incidental expenses for carrying on this work.

No officer of this league has ever received any money or personal profit in any way from the funds of this league.

The league employs efficient women in many cities to assist in carrying on this work.

People who are opposed to pensions for mothers of dependent children are constantly circulating misstatements.

For instance, Mr. C. C. Carstens of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, made a report of his opinion in reference to the mothers' pension system in Chicago. The writer talked with Mr. Carstens the next day, and he said that the so-called synopsis of his report which was published in the newspapers was not a correct synopsis of his report, and he had repudiated it by telegram.

This league endeavors to correct false statements that are given to the press by the enemies of mothers' pensions.

The Mothers' Pension League is furnishing to its members and to the public generally authentic information and furnishing as much information as its funds will permit.

I pay all of my own traveling expenses and I have traveled almost constantly for six months, campaigning in many states for the cause of mothers' pensions.

The only place where I have campaigned where I did not personally pay my own expenses was in Philadelphia the first week of this year, where my expenses were paid by the Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph*.

The first day in Philadelphia I discovered that the Pennsylvania legislature had enacted a Mothers' Pension Law in 1907—and for the past six years the organized charity people had been using it to get money out of the public treasury

to pay for the keeping of children after taking them away from their own mothers.

Although this Pennsylvania Mothers' Pension Law said that the money could be paid "to any person or family," it had never been paid to any mother. Evidently she was not considered "a person or a family."

The money, to the extent of \$17,000 a year, had been paid out of the public treasury to a corporation; evidently they considered that a corporation is "a person or a family." When I showed these facts to the people of Philadelphia they demanded that their Pension Law be construed correctly, and they then and there put into correct operation their Mothers' Pension Law.

HENRY NEIL.

Chicago.

[Comment on this letter will be found on page 849 of this issue.—Ed.]

## JOTTINGS

### A STRAW IN PRISON REFORM

A private letter from a person living near the Clinton, N. Y., State Prison says:

"At the last electrocution you will be happy to know that the 'local sports,' against whose presence at the function we had protested, were shut out. They were preparing an auto trip and junket, as they had been in the habit of having previously, but the warden sent word that they would not be invited."

### INTER CITY NEIGHBORHOOD WORKERS' CONFERENCE

New York and Boston neighborhood workers are the latest to arrange for an inter city conference which will discuss ways of improving the training of social workers. The decision to take this step is an indication of a growing recognition of the identity of certain of the problems which face our larger cities. St. Paul and Minneapolis, Baltimore and Washington were the first to recognize this by joint discussion of their social problems. Now New York and Boston have followed their example and the practice bids fair to spread still farther.

The conference will last three days, March 29 to 31 and will discuss such subjects as standards and stipends for work and workers and the value of federation in relation to standards of work. The Boston settlements are preparing to receive their visitors on Friday, March 28. Miss M. deG. Trenholme of the East Side House, 540 East 76th Street, is in charge of the arrangement in New York city.

### KENNEDY LECTURESHIP ANNOUNCEMENT

The New York School of Philanthropy announces Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association and of the New York State Public Health Commission, as the eighth Kennedy lecturer. His predecessors, since the lectureship was established in 1906, have been Simon N. Patten of the University of Pennsylvania, President Arthur T. Hadley of Yale, Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell, Edward T. Devine,



Henry R. Seager and Frank J. Goodnow of Columbia, and R. Fulton Cutting of New York.

Mr. Folks is to lecture on state and social welfare. The series of lectures which begins March 31 will cover state treatment of the insane and the feeble-minded, public health, poverty and crime. The substance of the courses given by the Kennedy lectures of the School of Philanthropy has been published in the Social Progress Series of the Macmillan Company.

Mr. Folks, this year's lecturer, has been commissioner of public charities of New York City, president of the New York State Probation Commission and of the National Tuberculosis Society and vice-president of the National Child Labor Committee. There is no charge for admission to the lectures but tickets for reserved seats will be issued. Applications for seats should be sent to the New York School of Philanthropy, 105 East 22d Street, New York.

## CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

### CONFERENCES

#### MARCH AND APRIL CONFERENCES

**EDUCATION**, Society for Advancement of, in the South. Chattanooga, April, 1913. Sec'y, H. E. Bierley, Chattanooga, Tenn.

**HOUSING**, New Jersey State Conference on. City Hall, Newark, March 28, three sessions. Chairman, W. L. Kinkead, 315 East 34th St., Paterson.

**IMMIGRATION**, Pacific Coast Conference on. San Francisco, April 14 and 15. Sec'y, Charles W. Blanpied, San Francisco.

**MARKETING AND FARM CREDITS**, First National Conference on. Chicago, April 8-10. Sec'y, Charles W. Holman, 1408 Steger Building, Chicago.

**SOUTHERN SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS**, Atlanta, Ga., April, 25-29, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, J. E. McCulloch, Nashville, Tenn.

**YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION** of the United States of America. Fourth Biennial Convention of. Richmond, Va., Apr. 9-15, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, Mabel Cratty, 600 Lexington Ave., New York.

#### LATER MEETINGS

##### INTERNATIONAL

**BLIND**, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, 1914; probably July 20. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 208 Great Portland St., London, W.

**CHILDREN'S WELFARE**, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstraat 106, Amsterdam.

**HOUSING**, International Congress on. The Hague, Holland, September 8-13, 1913. Sec'y, M. O. Velghe, director general Ministry of Agriculture, Brussels. Executive secretary section for United States, William H. Tolman, 29 West 39th Street, New York.

**INFANT MORTALITY**, English-speaking conference on. London, England, August 4 and 5, 1913. Under auspices of the British National Association for the Prevention of Infant Mortality and for the Welfare of Infancy, London.

**PRISON CONGRESS**, Quinquennial. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y, P. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

**SCHOOL HYGIENE**, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Sec'y Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York.

**STUDENT CHRISTIAN FEDERATION**, WORLD'S, Lake Mohonk, N. Y., June 2-8, 1913. Gen. Sec'y, John R. Mott, 124 East 28th St., New York.

**TOWN PLANNING AND ORGANIZATION OF MUNICIPAL LIFE**, First International Congress on Art of. Ghent, Belgium, Summer 1913. General Sec'y, Paul Saintenoy, Brussels.

**UNEMPLOYMENT**, International Association for Fight Against. Ghent, Belgium, 1913. American Corres. Officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

**YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION**, International Conference of. Cincinnati, May 15-18, 1913.

##### NATIONAL

**BOYS**, General Assembly of Workers with. Culver, Ind., May 17-30, 1913. Information may be secured from the Boys' Work Dept., Y. M. C. A., 124 E. 28th Street, New York.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, National Conference of. Seattle, Wash., July 5-12, 1913. Sec'y, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.

**CITY PLANNING**, National Conference On. Chicago, May 5-7, 1913. Sec'y, Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress Street Boston.

**CONSUMERS' LEAGUE**, National. St. Louis, Mo., April 8 and 9, 1913. Cor. Sec'y, Mrs. Florence Kelley, 106 E. 19th St., New York.

**HOME ECONOMICS**, American Association of. Ithaca, N. Y., June 27-July 4, 1913. Information may be secured from Marguerite B. Lake, Forest Hill, Md.

**INFANT MORTALITY**, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fourth annual meeting. Kansas City, Mo., Oct. 23-25, 1913. Exec. Sec'y, Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedra St., Baltimore.

**JEWISH SOCIAL WORKERS**, National Association of. Atlantic City, May 29-30, 1913.

**MEDICINE**, AMERICAN ACADEMY OF. Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting. Minneapolis, Minn., June 13, 14, 1913.

**MOTHERS**, National Congress of. Boston, May 15-20, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. A. A. Birney, 806 Loan and Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

**OFFICIALS OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, American Association of. Fourth Annual Meeting. Springfield, Ill. June 24-26, 1913. Sec'y, W. T. Cross, Columbia, Mo.

**PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA**. Richmond, Va., May 6-10, 1913. Sec'y, H. S. Braucher, 1 Madison Avenue, New York.

**PRISON ASSOCIATION**, AMERICAN, Indianapolis, Ind., Oct. 11-16, 1913. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

##### STATE AND LOCAL

**BAPTIST CONVENTION**, NORTHERN, Detroit, Mich., May, 1913. Cor. Sec'y, Rev. W. C. Bitting, St. Louis.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS**, Arkansas Conference of. Little Rock, Ark., May 13-15, 1913. Sec'y, Murray A. Auerbach, Little Rock.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, Ohio State Conference of. Akron, O., October, 1913. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Bldg., Columbus, O.

**CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, New York City Conference on. May 14-15, 1913. Sec'y, John B. Preest, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York.

**WOMEN'S CLUBS**, New Jersey Federation of Atlantic City, May 2 and 3, 1913. Sec'y, Mrs. Joseph M. Middleton, 46 Prospect St., Trenton.

### EXHIBITIONS

#### LOCAL

**CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT**, New Britain, Conn., April 25-May 2. Sec'y, E. W. Pelton.

**CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT**, Rochester, N. Y., April 5-12. Sec'y, Adeline B. Zachart.

**CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT**, High School, Newport, R. I., March 24-29. Chairman, Harriet E. Thomas, 263 Thames Street.

**CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT**, Atlanta, Ga., April 28-May 3. Chairman, Walter E. Rich, Atlanta.

**TAXATION IN NEW JERSEY**. Charts prepared by the Bureau of Municipal Research will be shown at the New Jersey Federation of Women's Clubs, Atlantic City, May 2 and 3. Sec'y, Mrs. Joseph M. Middleton, 46 Prospect St., Trenton, N. J.

#### NATIONAL

**CONSERVATION EXPOSITION**, NATIONAL, Knoxville, Tenn., Sept.-Oct., 1913.

#### INTERNATIONAL

**PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION**, San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 20-Dec. 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Frank A. Wolff, Washington, D. C.

**PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION**, San Diego, Cal., Jan. 1-Dec. 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego.

**STUDENT CHRISTIAN FEDERATION WORLD'S**, Lake Mohonk, N. Y., June 2-8, 1913. Exhibits including "social study and service." Gen. Sec'y, John R. Mott, 124 East 28th Street, New York.

**SCHOOL HYGIENE**, Fourth International Congress on. Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 25-30, 1913. Chairman, Committee on Scientific Exhibit, Dr. Fletcher B. Dressler, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.



(Continued from p. 871.)

tion on industrial education in Philadelphia to commit itself in favor of the Illinois scheme.

The only serious danger is that a number of sympathetic and otherwise intelligent persons should be misled, and on the basis of a justified enthusiastic support of the principle of industrial education (with whatever supplementary agencies that may be found necessary) jump to the support of this scheme, not realizing what is really involved in it. Such persons should first inform themselves as to what is actually being done already in this direction in the more progressive public schools, and should then devote their spare energies to backing up and furthering these undertakings, and to creating a public opinion that will affect the more backward and conservative public school systems. The problem is a difficult one, but many intelligent, though unadvertised, attempts are already making for its solution; and its difficulty is no reason for permanently handicapping the interests of both common school education and a democratic society by abruptly going back upon what, with all its defects, has been the chief agency in keeping alive a spirit of democracy among us—the American public school system.

### SCHOOL SOCIAL CENTERS

Three hundred and thirty-eight schools in 101 cities of the United States were used as social centers during the past season, according to a report compiled by Clarence Arthur Perry for the Russell Sage Foundation. In forty-four of these cities social centers were directed by paid workers. New York had forty-eight such centers and Chicago sixteen, while Philadelphia, Boston, Columbus, Detroit, Jersey City, Louisville, Rochester, and Trenton are also among the cities included in this list. There is wide variation in the length of the season, from five or six weeks in some localities to the full school term in others. In fact, little uniformity prevails as to what constitutes a social center. Mr. Perry presents in the report a tentative definition of a social center as follows:

"A community may be said to have a school-house social center if one of its school buildings is thrown open to the public on one or more fixed nights a week for at least twelve weeks a year, for activities of a social, recreational, or civic character, regularly directed by one or more trained leaders."

The report also presents data on the growing use of school buildings for political meetings. In Cleveland, Ohio, meetings were held in the schools to discuss the new constitutional provisions that were before the people for adoption.

The use of schools as polling places is another recent development. Thirty schools in Los Angeles were used for this purpose in 1911. In the past year Milwaukee began using the basements of school buildings as polling places. Definite adoption of the idea of schools as polling places is reported from Boston; Berkeley and Long Beach, Cal.; Grand Rapids, Madison, and Salt Lake City.

### "CONTROL" OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

A tentative statement of "principles and policies" drawn up some time ago by the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, of which C. A. Prosser is secretary, and just approved by the board of managers, takes the position that the control of vocational education ought not to be entrusted to the regular school authorities. Professor Dewey (see page 870) takes a different view of the matter. Says the statement:

"Efficiency in vocational education requires different methods of school administration, different courses of study, different qualifications of teachers, different equipment, different ways of meeting the needs of pupils, and a much greater flexibility in adapting means to ends than is possible of development under the ordinary routine of the public school system.

"For these reasons, whether administered by regular public school authorities or a separate board of control, and whether conducted in a separate building or under the same roof as the regular school, the work in vocational education should be carried on separately and independently from that of general education, so that it may be left free to realize the dominant aim of fitting for useful employment. This requires a separate organization, under a separate head or a distinctive management, and separate equipment, course of study, pupils, and teachers who shall have had extended practical experience in the industries or occupations they are employed to teach."

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By

Charles K. Taylor, M. A.

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# THE SURVEY



Volume XXIX, No. 26

March 20, 1913



## *A Last Year's Bird Nest*

*A thrush's nest was found last summer into which was woven a letter head of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society. In the fall an exhausted butterfly flew for shelter into the society's headquarters and was found near this nest.*

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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



## THE PITH OF IT

**T**HE state of Washington has just abolished the death penalty for crime. Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin constitute the small but courageous group of states which have previously done this.

**ILLINOIS'** state-wide investigation of vice by a special committee of the state Senate has led to a nation-wide discussion of the relation between low wages and vice. As yet scarcely a protest has been made against frank handling of the subject. P. 897.

**I**N one district in China which two years ago had 2,000,000 or 3,000,000 starving people, the railroad recently found itself unable to provide freight cars enough to transport all the grain. It is constructive results such as this which make the report of the Central China Famine Relief Committee's operations of a year ago of more than temporary interest. P. 900.

**MICHIGAN** has passed a law authorizing the sterilization of habitual criminals. Eight other states have such laws. The Legislature of Ontario, Canada, is considering a bill which permits operations for the prevention of procreation, on certain inmates of institutions for the care of the insane, feeble-minded and epileptic.

**A** "CONTINUOUS educational campaign in the interests of child conservation and race betterment" has been launched by the National Child Welfare Press Service, Incorporated, of Illinois to operate through the press. P. 896.

**A** REAL official investigation into wages at the time of a strike against a wage reduction has been made for the first time in New York state. Its results have just been issued by the State Bureau of Statistics. The bureau's report furnishes a glimpse of living conditions not only at Little Falls, but among all the textile workers of the Mohawk Valley. P. 899.

**A** DECADE'S advance in the field of Religious Education and Civic Progress as revealed at the recent tenth annual meeting of the Religious Education Association is reviewed by Professor Graham Taylor. P. 902.

**WILLIAM D. HAYWOOD'S** recall from official party position by a referendum of the Socialists as viewed by the press of the nation. P. 909.

**A** GITATION for state funds for mothers has raised the question as to what is adequate relief and whether it should be measured in terms of money or of service. P. 910.

**H**EREAFTER when a man is convicted of family desertion or non-support in the state of Washington he may be compelled to work upon the public roads or highways. Further, it will be the duty of the board of county commissioners to pay a certain sum of money to those dependent on him.

## THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE  
GRAHAM TAYLOR Associate Editors JANE ADDAMS  
PAUL U. KELLOGG  
Editor

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### THE COMMON WELFARE

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## RELATIVES AND FRIENDS

are the natural sources to which we go first in our efforts to find adequate relief for the families coming under our care.

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# THE COMMON WELFARE

## THE MILBANK MEMORIAL GIFT FOR SOCIAL WELFARE WORK

Financed by the income from \$1,000,000, the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor announces the organization of a new department for preventive and constructive social work. It is to be known as the Department of Social Welfare and its establishment was made possible by the generosity of Elizabeth Milbank Anderson.

In addition to the Milbank Memorial Gift, which will take the form of annual payments of \$50,000 each, the association has also accepted the sum of \$150,000 which Mrs. Anderson has stipulated is to cover "initial or capital charges and the cost of certain experimental and research work."

Mrs. Anderson's offer was made early in the month in a letter to R. Fulton Cutting, president of the association. In this she indicated the objects she had in mind in the following words:

"I am particularly interested in fostering preventive and constructive social measures for the welfare of the poor of this city, as distinguished from relief measures affecting particular individuals and families. . . . I wish to make it clear that the proposed Department of Social Welfare is to concern itself, in so far as it employs funds supplied by me, with a social program based upon preventive and constructive measures.

"Generally speaking, therefore, this program should include those activities which are calculated to prevent sickness and thus relieve poverty, such, for example, as the promotion of cleanliness and sanitation and the securing of a proper food supply. In this connection your association will doubtless find it advisable, in some cases, to co-operate with public authorities, and with existing agencies having similar objects in view where such agencies are practicing approved methods in fulfilling their purposes, while in other cases it may probably be necessary to establish the work as a new enterprise.

"With the funds at your disposal I would expect you to create the proposed department of social welfare, and to distribute the enterprise to be conducted under its supervision among at least three sub-departments or committees, one dealing with matters pertaining to public health and hygiene, one dealing with matters pertaining to the welfare of school children, and one with matters pertaining to the food supply of the working classes of this city."

In announcing the acceptance of the gift by the board of managers, John A. Kingsbury, general agent of the association, said:

"Mrs. Anderson's gift makes it possible for the association to bring its work nearer to the original purpose as expressed in the constitution; namely, the elevation of the moral and physical condition of the indigent and, so far as compatible with these objects, the relief of their necessities."

A tentative program of the social work to be undertaken by the new department has been outlined and it is expected to have the work organized about the first of May. The Committee on Public Health and Hygiene will continue the public bath work which the association started in 1891. It will have supervision over the Milbank Memorial Baths in East 38th Street, and will aim to popularize the public bathing facilities throughout the city. A study will be made by the committee of the present needs of the city in regard to public comfort stations and public laundries in the congested districts. An allied activity will be an educational campaign in New York for the extermination of common disease carriers, such as the house fly and the roach.

The Committee for the Welfare of School Children will make inquiries concerning the extension and improvement of the present system of medical inspection of children and of the clinic facilities for the treatment of the physical defects of pupils especially of the teeth. It will work for the installation in each school of sanitary drinking fountains and improved methods of cleaning the school rooms. Mrs. Anderson has asked the association to make in connection with its school work a thorough investigation of the ventilation of the schools and other public buildings of New York. For this purpose research and experimental work will be conducted under the direction of a committee of experts to be selected by the association.

The association through its Committee on the Welfare of School Children, also intends to extend and broaden the serving of hot lunches to school children approximately at cost. The School Lunch Committee, which had been about to discontinue, next fall will be able to conduct its work in fourteen instead of seven schools.

The feasibility of establishing public bake shops in New York will also be considered by the



committee. In her letter to Mr. Cutting, Mrs. Anderson said:

"In connection with this enterprise I would like an inquiry to be made regarding the feasibility of establishing a public bake shop, to which those who have no facilities for baking bread or roasting meats could bring their uncooked food and at a nominal cost receive the benefit of this service. . . . I understand that this idea has never been attempted in this country, but is in successful operation abroad."

The program for the Committee on Food Supply so far as it has been outlined includes an investigation concerning the scientific production of food, its purchase in larger quantities, its scientific storage, its efficient and honest handling and the latest facts as to relative food values. The object of this inquiry will be to ascertain whether the cost of food to the consumer cannot be reduced, and its nourishing qualities increased.

This latest gift to the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor is the largest it has ever received. In the opinion of the Board of Managers its special importance lies in the fact that

"the establishment and successful operation of the several activities will inevitably lead to general recognition of their social value. It is believed that as the social value of any new activity is thus demonstrated it will naturally lead to the adoption of that particular activity on a much broader scale, possibly by the municipality itself, than would be possible if its extension were dependent upon any one individual or association."

#### **PUBLICITY CAMPAIGN FOR CHILD WELFARE**

Organized under the laws of Illinois, the National Child Welfare Press Service, Incorporated, is launching a new educational campaign. It plans "to operate and conduct, through the press, a continuous educational campaign in the interests of child conservation and race betterment." The service expects to disseminate not only through the newspaper and magazine press but through other avenues of publicity, editorial and news matter contributed by recognized authorities on child welfare subjects.

The present officers are James L. Clark, chairman of the Board of Directors; Rev. J. P. Dy-sart, vice chairman; Richard Norse, secretary and treasurer; Dimmitt C. Hutchins, councillor, and H. Wirt Steele, editorial director. The articles of incorporation provide for a board of thirty members.

The organization of the service and its present program was endorsed by a meeting of the Children's Home Societies held in Des Moines, Ia., early in the year. The co-operation of the executives of Children's Aid Societies was also

promised at a conference held somewhat later in New York. It is felt by those interested in the organization of this new service that many lines of work for children in the United States are so uncorrelated as to produce confusion in the public mind. The program for publicity in the immediate future embraces such subjects as eugenics; parental care; hygiene; dietetics; housing; education; treatment of dependent, defective and delinquent children; recreation, and child labor.

To start this program, it is planned to furnish a series of fifty half-page illustrated stories to representative newspapers throughout the country for simultaneous publication. The series is to be run in such sequence as to give newspaper readers the whole story of the efforts now being made in America to conserve child life.

The founders of the service believe that it will go far toward building up co-operation and co-ordination of the various agencies dealing with children throughout the country. They believe that it will foster higher standards of child-caring work. It is announced that the service will not attempt to exploit any particular children's agency nor any special kind of child-helping work, but will confine its efforts to the dissemination of information as to what is going on in this field of activity throughout the country and abroad.

The organization has begun to establish its connections with a view to learning the status of children's work in the various states, in order that local programs of publicity may be prepared consistently throughout the country. It is thought that this will help to bring the legislation and practices in the several states into conformity with the best standards. The service, according to its founders, will always stand for the interests of the child as paramount to the interests of any agency or any group of agencies dealing with children.

It is also planned to make the service as useful as possible to executives in child welfare work. They will be invited to call upon the editorial director at any time for advice and help in preparing and conducting local publicity campaigns of all kinds.

The promised co-operation of the new Federal Children's Bureau is counted upon, and the promoters of the service claim that the bureau's work, in turn, will gain not only wider publicity for its investigations and findings, but publicity of a kind and in a form that is not always easily obtainable by a government department or bureau at Washington.

The executive office of the service is located in the Hearst Building in Chicago, and the editorial department in room 26, Law Building, Baltimore.



## THE VICE INVESTIGATION BY THE ILLINOIS SENATE

Illinois' state-wide investigation of vice by a special committee of the Senate headed by the lieutenant-governor,<sup>1</sup> is being vigorously pushed in Chicago, Peoria, and other cities. Public hearings are being held and widely reported, to which employers of girls and women in department stores, mail order and supply houses, are subpoenaed to testify regarding the wages they pay; the hours and conditions of labor; and the profits of their business. They have also been asked for estimates of the cost of living among their employees, and their opinion as to the relation between the rate of wages and moral standards.

Almost without exception the employers met the investigating commission in good spirit and promptly furnished the facts and figures requested. Some of them admitted that low wages occasionally account for the demoralization of employees. But others stoutly denied any perceptible effect of the rate of pay on moral standards and asserted that a high integrity prevailed among their women workers. It was claimed that girls learning a business while living at home could not expect as high a minimum wage as those living away from home. Therefore some employers decline to hire girls living away from home whose services are not worth at least \$8 a week. When pressed to say whether wages could not be raised to meet the minimum cost of living without materially reducing dividends, some of the largest employers admitted that this could be done out of the surplus reserved for the development of the business.

The other witnesses subpoenaed consisted almost entirely of the inmates and keepers of vice resorts which were raided in some instances for the purpose of securing testimony. The assistant superintendent of the Peoria State Hospital is said to have substantiated the statements of the women that low wages are a chief contributing cause of immorality by showing the relation of heredity, environment and morality.

The chairman of the commission, Lieutenant-Governor O'Hara, has entered into communication with the governors and legislatures of all the states. He is urging country-wide co-operation in investigating vice conditions and legislation on the minimum wage and other measures deemed necessary to protect the moral standards of working girls and women. Assurances are said to have been received from two-thirds of the states that such co-operation would be given. The commission visited President Wilson on March 22 and urged that a national conference be called by the President. The only opposition so far publicly expressed in Illinois was that of the

secretary of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association at one of the hearings. Then and subsequently, in a paper which he personally owns and edits, he charged that the investigation was prompted by revenge upon merchants for failing to advertise in a newspaper with which the lieutenant-governor was formerly connected as a reporter. The secretary of the association was arrested and admitted to bail on a charge of criminal libel.

## NATION-WIDE ATTENTION TO VICE AND LOW WAGES

Press, pulpit and organizations without number all over the country have taken up the discussion of vice in relation to wages. Almost the last vestige of the old "conspiracy of silence" concerning vice would seem to have been swept away. As yet scarcely a protest has been made against frank handling of the subject.

Editorial expression has ranged all the way from vigorous approval of the Illinois commission and the acceptance of the testimony as showing that low wages cause vice, to just as energetic dissent from that contention. But nearly all welcome the stirring of the public mind and conscience. Scarcely a phase of the problem has been left untouched. The "responsibility of men" for the evil, the "low ebb of home life and protection," the share of dance halls in recruiting the ranks of "the fallen," the need for protecting young boys, and the assertion that to believe low wages are responsible for vice means "casting suspicion on honest girls"—all sides of the problem have received attention. Remedial efforts varying from photographing all men visiting disorderly houses to the minimum wage have been suggested.

Columns upon columns have been filled with letters from newspaper readers giving their views of the problem. These often comment upon the demand for efficient domestic servants and discuss the whole subject with an inference that no girl need complain of having to choose only between hunger and shame.

Other readers answer, pointing out sympathetically some of the real objections girls have to this work, and they contend further, with statistics to back up their assertion, that the occupation has apparently supplied a disproportionately large number of prostitutes. To cap the climax there have been the pitiful and tragic letters purporting to come from girls of the underworld.

Perhaps the most definite result of the whole discussion thus far has been to give an impetus to the agitation for minimum wage legislation. This has been felt particularly in the states where bills are pending and in others it has stimulated the introduction of bills.

In Chicago, Chief Justice Harry Olson of the Municipal Court has announced that a division to

<sup>1</sup>THE SURVEY, March 8, p. 812.



be known as the Morals Court will be established on April 1. This is in line with one of the main recommendations of the Chicago Vice Commission.

Some newspapers assert that political capital is being sought by those directing the Chicago investigation. However that may be, the Woman's Trade Union League in Chicago is taking advantage of the popular interest in working girls' wages to push efforts to organize department store employes into unions.

Employers, in a number of instances since the start of the Illinois investigation, have announced a new minimum wage for girls in their employ. The management of one large store in Chicago issued a statement that henceforth no girl will receive less than \$4 a week. The amounts most frequently mentioned in the Illinois hearings as the least a girl not living at home could manage on were around \$8 or \$9 a week. On March 19, Cyrus H. McCormick, president of the International Harvester Company, announced that beginning March 24 the minimum wage for girls and women employed anywhere in the United States by the company would be \$8 a week. The minimum has been \$5 a week for apprentices. It is reported that the wages of about 800 girls are affected by this action.

#### CHANGES IN NEW YORK PRISON DEPARTMENT

Newspaper interest in the removal recently of the superintendent of the New York state prison department and that of his sales agent a fortnight earlier seems to have been directed more at the political aspects of the upheaval than at its possible effects on prison administration. The ousting of Joseph F. Scott, head of the department, formerly superintendent of Elmira Reformatory, came after Mr. Scott had replied to charges preferred against him by Governor Sulzer. Frederick H. Mills, who, as sales agent was responsible for the development of the prison industries in New York, had previously been removed by Superintendent Scott at the demand of the governor. Both positions are now filled by temporary appointees and incoherency in the work of the prison department is the result.

People interested in prison administration throughout the country have followed these events closely because of the wide reputation enjoyed by Mr. Scott as a reformatory head. Coming to Elmira as superintendent in 1903, after eleven years' experience as head of the Massachusetts state reformatory, he raised the New York institution once more to the standards of excellence set up by Zebulon R. Brockway but allowed to lapse during the three years that had intervened after Mr. Brockway's retirement. In Massachusetts Mr. Scott had come under the

influence of the ideals of Colonel Gardiner Tufts, superintendent, who possessed in large measure the evangelical spirit and believed strongly in reformation through spiritual experience. At Elmira Mr. Scott came into contact with somewhat different traditions. Mr. Brockway had endeavored to intellectualize reformation and had built up a regime calculated to affect character through discipline and education. With this spirit Mr. Scott was in hearty accord. So effective was he in restoring the institution to its former excellence that in his book *Fifty Years of Prison Service*, published last year, Mr. Brockway spoke of him as "a man of high character, good capabilities, and large experience" and declared that his appointment "undoubtedly saved the reformatory from impending collapse."

Especially notable in Mr. Scott's work at Elmira was his perfecting of the military and gymnastic discipline begun by Mr. Brockway. He possessed in remarkable degree also the power to lift up others through the influence of his personality. The psychology of reformatory management was perhaps his strongest point. Due to the efforts of Mr. Brockway and Mr. Scott, the phrase "Elmira system" has come into use as denoting the highest type of reformatory work for youths.

Interest in the other vacancy in the prison department, that of sales agent, has transcended personal relations. Nearly a year ago *THE SURVEY*<sup>1</sup> pointed out the anomaly of a situation which allowed the man responsible for extending the market for prison products to be interested also in a private manufacturing concern which could compete with the prison industries in selling to state institutions. Mr. Mills was formally charged with this division of allegiance in January.<sup>2</sup> His resignation was sent to Mr. Scott but not acted upon. Thereupon a committee of inquiry appointed by Governor Sulzer to investigate the work of the superintendent of prisons was directed to bestow some of its attention on Mr. Mills' record also. Further facts were uncovered, chief among which was that as the representative of the Hamlin Supply Company Mr. Mills had used the "name of one Brown" to make large sales of supplies to state institutions, when such supplies could have been furnished by the prison industries which it was his duty to develop. At this discovery Governor Sulzer demanded and secured the removal of Mr. Mills. The state use system of prison industries in operation in New York is quite generally regarded as the most hopeful method yet devised of making the work of prisoners truly reformatory. Its advocates have felt that the plan was more or less on trial in that state and that the measure of its success there would largely determine the extent of its

<sup>1</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, April 13, 1912, page 94.

<sup>2</sup>See *THE SURVEY*, January 25, page 537.



adoption elsewhere. With Mr. Mills out of office many of them are breathing more freely over its chance of development.

The report of the Committee on Inquiry, made public March 10, contained ten accusations against Superintendent Scott. Using these largely as a basis Governor Sulzer a few days later preferred six formal charges against him. In the first he is accused of "intentionally and willfully neglecting and refraining from dismissing" Mr. Mills until Governor Sulzer demanded it. The second specification sets forth that in selecting a superintendent for the State Hospital for the Criminal Insane at Matteawan he passed over on the civil service list a man thoroughly experienced and appointed one who was known to lack experience.

The third charge declares that Superintendent Scott failed to remove or investigate the conduct of officials at Matteawan who made alterations in the hospital record of Harry K. Thaw. The fourth and fifth specifications call the superintendent to account for permitting unusual liberties to be extended to Thaw and for not exercising a proper supervision over the institution where he is detained. The last charge has to do with the failure of Superintendent Scott to dismiss an employe who had used offensive words about the governor in the presence of the superintendent and newspaper reporters.

Mr. Scott was given twenty-four hours in which to file a written answer to these charges. He did so and twelve minutes after the expiration of the allotted time the governor officially opened the public hearing of the case in his offices. Mr. Scott was not present. The governor declared that the written answer was unsatisfactory and shortly afterward sent notice of his removal to the superintendent.

After meeting every specification in detail Mr. Scott said in his formal answer:

"I have conducted the office of superintendent of state prisons conscientiously, honestly and economically and in a manner which has been for the best interests of the state, and which has received general approbation, wherefore I respectfully ask that the charges be dismissed."

In a statement given to the press later he said:

"I have been accused by a clique of self-styled medical experts of organizing Matteawan State Hospital in the interests of Harry K. Thaw. I deny these accusations as absolutely false. The men who have made them in the past and who ever may make them in the future will have an opportunity of proving them in a court of law."

Mr. Scott is quoted as having declared that the real reason for Governor Sulzer's desire to get rid of him was that he had refused to name as warden of Auburn Prison a man designated by the governor. This story was figured promi-

nently in the press also. That the affair has many political interweavings is shown by the fact that nearly all the papers regard it as a further breaking of Tammany traces by the governor.

Persons engaged in prison reform in the state differ greatly in their estimates of the justice of the charges made against Mr. Scott. The most lenient view, perhaps, is that he has been lax with his subordinates, allowing them too much responsibility and exercising too little supervision over them, but that his own integrity can not be questioned.

Governor Sulzer has sent the name of John B. Riley to the Senate as Mr. Scott's successor. Mr. Riley is a county judge of Clinton County. He was formerly United States consul at Ottawa.

## TWO REPORTS ON THE LITTLE FALLS STRIKE

Two reports on the textile industry at Little Falls were issued last week by the New York State Department of Labor. One covered the intervention by the Bureau of Arbitration in the strike which lasted from early in October to the end of December. The other was a study of wages and the cost of living by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The report of the Bureau of Statistics presents the results of the first real investigation into wages at the time of a strike against a reduction which has been made in New York by any bureau of the Labor Department. The pay-rolls of the mills for the first four weeks in September, 1912, were taken for study, this being prior to the wage reduction of 10 per cent which precipitated the strike.

The report shows that about 49 per cent of the male employes received \$9 a week or less, and that about the same proportion of female workers received \$7.50 a week or less. Those whose wages were not above \$6 constituted 30 per cent of the women and 10 per cent of the men. The report describes the living conditions of the operatives. Much congestion was found and the houses in which the workers live are characterized as being poor.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics report makes no remedial suggestions, but declares that "the one outstanding and unavoidable conclusion of this report is that there is need of a thorough general investigation of wages and cost of living among the textile workers of the Mohawk Valley."

Employers testified before the Bureau of Arbitration that the wages in Little Falls are the same as are paid in other textile mills in the Mohawk Valley. Since the workers won their strike against a reduction they are, presumably, now receiving the same wages as were found to have been the rule in September.



## FAMINE RELIEF WORK IN CHINA

ERNEST P. BICKNELL

Usually an official statement of temporary relief work published long after public interest in the special emergency has subsided is a good example of what not to read. The report of the Central China Famine Relief Committee's operations in the famine district in China between October 1, 1911, and June 30, 1912, is, however, an exception.

Headquarters for the committee were established in Shanghai and the membership included many well-known Americans, other foreign residents of China and prominent native citizens. Among the American members were Bishop F. R. Graves and Rev. E. C. Lobenstine who were respectively chairman and secretary. Two of the six articles in the committee's program were:

"That relief be given only in return for work done, except in the case of those incapacitated for work.

"That in the selection of work, preference be given to such work as will help the locality permanently, and as tends to prevent the recurrence of famine conditions, and that each piece be complete in itself."

This program was closely followed. District sub-committees, made up of foreign and native residents, had immediate charge of the relief works and distribution. Under them were the superintendents of the working forces.

In May, 1912, 110,000 famine sufferers were in the employ of the relief committee. As but one member of a family was engaged, it is estimated that this work supported about 550,000 persons. The character and extent of the operations are indicated by the following statistics:

Dykes built or repaired.....	129 miles
Canals " " ".....	63 "
Ditches " " ".....	1124 "
Roads repaired.....	163 "
Cubic yards of earth moved.....	10,155,000

It was reckoned that the amount of work performed daily by a famine sufferer was about two-thirds as much as a coolie does under normal conditions. In Hankow 2,000 women from the famine district were employed for two months in making garments of which 64,000 were distributed. A single extract from the report must suffice to show how the work was conducted. It is a description of the dyke building:

"Now come with me to the works. First in number and importance are the dirt-pushers [I translate the Chinese term], who dig the earth from rectangular pits and push it on their wheelbarrows to the new dykes. They number 3,400 and work in groups of about ten men each and are paid by the job in this way. As soon as a pit reaches a depth of four or five feet it is measured by the foreigner in charge and the

head man of the ten is given a ticket which is really an order on the office for the value in grain of the work done. Measuring these pits takes almost all one foreigner's time, and as two-thirds of the workmen are dirt-pushers, the foreigner has in his direct control that fraction of the whole. The dirt-pushers receive 450 cash per fang of 100 cubic feet. In this and the following statements it should be remembered that it takes about 2,500 cash to make a gold dollar.

"Next in numerical strength are the 'small workmen,' of whom we have about 1,000. Their work is to carry water from the canal to the dyke in order that the latter may be pounded firm the more easily. Also many of them receive the earth as it comes on to the dyke, break it up, level it and dig small holes into which the water may be poured. They are paid in grain at the rate of 150 cash per man per day.

"Now we come to the pounders. They number 750 and were divided in groups of ten. Each group has a stone weighing about 100 pounds, circular, a foot in diameter, and eight inches thick. To each stone are attached ten ropes, one for each of the ten men, and when the men all pull in unison the stone rises above the level of their heads and then comes down with a thud. The dyke is built in layers which are one foot thick after they are pounded. Each layer is pounded until it is of the consistency of rubber and is then tested in this unique way. An iron rod is driven down and into the small hole thus made water is poured from a tea-kettle. If the water does not soak away the layer has been pounded sufficiently. These pounders are skilled workmen and were originally paid 250 cash worth of grain per man per day, but they proved to be so lazy that we had to invent a sort of sliding scale of wages. So we considered 1,200 square feet as a full day's work, and if a gang pounds that amount each man is given 250 cash; if they pound 1,100 square feet, 240 cash; 1,000 square feet, 230 cash; 1,300 square feet 260 cash, and so on. Now they are not lazy.

"We have thirty skilled workmen who trim the edges of the dyke and give it a finished appearance. Also there are sixty overseers who understand the work. They keep an eye on the stone men and test their work as described above, see that the dirt-pushers place the dirt in the proper place and direct the stream of water carriers as they come. Both these classes of workmen receive 250 cash worth of grain a day."

In 1911 the American Red Cross sent C. D. Jameson, a well-known engineer, to study the conditions which cause the frequent floods in Central China, and to suggest a system of prevention. Mr. Jameson, who was an adviser of the relief committee, praises the thoroughness of the operations and the judgment and ability of the missionaries who were in charge of much of the work. These missionaries proved themselves untiring and practical men and capable administrators. They gave from twelve to fifteen hours daily to their unpaid tasks.

As part of the relief operations an interesting



金陵大學堂算學教習裴義理  
君創辦義農會專為中國貧民  
種植荒地自謀生計辦法甚善  
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Translation

The Famine Colonization Association was organized by Mr. Joseph Bailie, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Nanking, with a view to enable the destitute to earn their own living through cultivation of waste lands. Being practical as well as unselfish, this scheme has secured the hearty endorsement and promised support of the undersigned.

孫文 唐紹儀  
黃興 程德全  
陳貽範 溫宗堯  
張謇 伍廷芳  
黎元洪  
袁世凱  
蔡元培  
熊希齡  
宋教仁

Ts'ai Yuan-pei	Yuan Shih-k'ai	Li Yuan-hung	Chang Chien	Ivan Chen	Hwang Hsiang	Sun Wen (Sun Yat Sen)
Sung Chiao-jen	Hsiang Hsi-ling		Wu Ting-fang	Wen Tsung-yao	Cheng Teh-chuan	Tang Shao-yi

ENDORSEMENT OF THE FAMINE COLONIZATION ASSOCIATION BY CHINESE OFFICIALS

experiment in colonization was tried under the leadership of Prof. Joseph Bailie of the University of Nanking. With the co-operation of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, at that time provisional president of China, Professor Bailie secured a tract of waste land at the foot of Purple Mountain near Nanking, moved some of his more trustworthy workers on to it, built huts and began its cultivation. To quote from the report:

"A school was started for the children, so that they would be cared for while the men and women were at work. The land was gradually broken up, drainage ditches were dug, and potatoes and strawberries, wheat and other cereals were planted. A large number of fruit trees were set out. Some of these were Chinese but many were obtained from Japan and other countries. The land is now being used as an experiment farm and as a testing school for the men. The soil is of a poor quality, and is in many ways unsatisfactory; but Professor Bailie is persevering in the faith that he will succeed, not only in doing a piece of work which will be deeply interesting to the officials and gentry near the city of Nanking, but will prove of value to the larger enterprise which he still expects to see carried through."

Of the possibility of preventing the recurrent floods which have caused sixty-five famines in this region, including that of 1911, in the last 800 years, Mr. Jameson has this to say:

"There are no engineering difficulties in the

way of controlling the rivers, lowering the flood-level and reclaiming the waste land in North Kiangsue and North Anhwei; it is purely a question of money and time. Under the present conditions, at least three crops out of five are lost over an area of some 30,000 square miles. The soil of this area is exceedingly rich, the climate such that two crops a year should be possible when the conservancy and reclamation work had been completed. Not only will heavy crops be possible over this whole section year by year, but some millions of acres (English), which now are absolutely worthless, will be available for cultivation. All of this makes the expenditure of the necessary money justifiable from a commercial standpoint."

In its report the relief committee brings out strongly the fact that the construction and repair of dykes, canals and ditches carried on under its direction is not adequate to prevent disastrous floods in future. A permanent solution is aimed at in the plan prepared by Mr. Jameson.

A letter received a few weeks ago from Dr. John C. Ferguson, an American who has lived many years in China, shows how the land has prospered since the famine. Late in 1912 Dr. Ferguson passed through a part of the territory in which the relief operations were carried on in 1911 and the first half of 1912. He found that the land had produced generous crops and that the people had large quantities of grain for



market. Commenting upon this fact Dr. Ferguson said:

"The railroad provided a sufficient number of freight cars to handle the amount of freight which they thought would be likely to come to them for transportation, but the number has proved inadequate. After using all available cars which the railroad can supply, this district cannot get transportation for all the grain which it has on hand ready for shipment and sale.

"During the famine we had large distribution centers at Lungwai Kwan, Pengpu, Nan Suchow and Fuli Tsi. At these four railway stations a week ago I saw large heaps of grain on the platforms waiting for cars. The assistant traffic manager of the railroad, Mr. Wa, who was on the train with me, gave me the amount of grain at each of these places now awaiting shipment. The amount totalled 19,500 tons.

"This is all from the district which two years ago had two or three million people starving and freezing. These people were not demoralized by the help so freely given them but, on the contrary, this help only enabled them to show their wonderful power of recuperation."

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## EDITORIAL GRIST

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### THE RE-ELECTION OF RYAN

JOHN A. FITCH

At the recent convention at Indianapolis of the Structural Iron Workers' Union Frank M. Ryan, under sentence as a conspirator in the illegal transportation of explosives, and now at liberty under heavy bonds pending an appeal, was re-elected as president of the organization.

After making all possible allowances for personal devotion, for belief that the Indianapolis trial was improperly conducted, even for belief in Ryan's innocence of the charge under which he was convicted, there can be found no adequate justification for this action. If the best case in the world could be made for Ryan, if his innocence could be established and if the trial where he was found guilty could be shown to have been shamelessly misconducted, still his re-election would be without a reasonable foundation. For incontrovertible evidence—evidence not assailed even now by Ryan's friends—introduced at the Indianapolis trial establishes beyond a doubt that if Ryan was not guilty he is too easily misled, too blindly trustful of others, too willing to let others use his signature and too careless in his own use of the English language, to be either a safe man or a competent man to lead a great labor organization.

But the case against Ryan is not so mild a one as this. He is not merely suspected of a crime and so entitled to a presumption of inno-

cence—he has been found guilty of one by a jury of twelve men after being defended by able counsel, and if there were irregularities in the trial, as alleged, the burden of proving them is clearly on the appellants. Ryan is entitled to his appeal, but it is with a fair presumption of guilt, not of innocence, that he now faces the public.

By this act of returning to office a man presumably guilty of favoring and assisting in the use of dynamite in the destruction of property erected by non-union labor, the union has gone far toward placing its entire membership under suspicion of approving the dynamite campaign. The strong vote against Ryan proves that the suspicion does not justly apply to all. But if the union as an organized body cares to remove this stigma it must unmistakably and soon repudiate the action of the majority of its delegates in convention.

### TEN YEARS OF PROGRESS IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Seven years ago, after the death of its founder, William Rainey Harper, the Council of the Religious Education Association convened in executive session in Cleveland to decide upon the future policy of the organization. Recently the decennial convention was held in the same city, and 1,600 members were registered. Great audiences at the general sessions taxed the capacity of Gray's Armory to hold them, while thirty or more section meetings were held in churches, association buildings and hotels.

Every point of progress emphasized in the secretary's decennial review was accentuated by this annual meeting. Both phases of endeavor embraced within the title of the association had been broadening and deepening in significance during the last decade, until the full measure of meaning was revealed at this session. "Religious" has attained in this connection a meaning as broad as education itself, and indicates the whole educational idea, spirit and purpose, not merely instruction in certain texts and tenets. "Education" has likewise grown the larger for including the realm of religion. "Association" has come to stand on these occasions not only for a hope and aim, but for a fact. Educators representing both the state and the church, the public schools and the whole range of privately controlled institutions from the academy to the university are now actually co-operating for common aims.

The topic of the entire convention is itself a waymark of the decade's advance—Religious Education and Civic Progress.

Of the many vital themes discussed at the gen-



eral and sectional meetings, none elicited as keen interest or called forth as significant opinions and action as the discussion of Social Education in the High School at four preliminary sessions called by the council.

It rallied some of the foremost high school principals, university professors, city superintendents of schools, and other prominent educators, including the United States Commissioner of Education. They exchanged not only opinions, but experience, on such issues as the study of public morality in high schools, vocational and moral guidance, sex instruction and methods of social training.

But the interest centered upon the North Dakota Plan of High School Bible Study. It was presented by Prof. Vernon P. Squires, of the department of English in the University of North Dakota, who proposed and carried it through in that state. He described the plan as follows:

"The State High School Board, which has general supervision over the high school work of the state, has authorized a syllabus of Bible study, just as in other branches of study, showing the general nature and scope of the work to be covered. Upon the basis of this syllabus an examination is given at the time of the regular state examinations. These examination papers, like those in other subjects, are marked by skilled readers appointed by the board, and to the successful examinees credit is assigned to the extent of a half-unit, out of the sixteen ordinarily required for high school graduation, a course of at least ninety recitation hours being a condition for credit.

"The Bible work differs, however, from the work in other subjects in one essential respect. The study is not pursued in the school house, or during school hours. It is carried on privately, or in special outside classes, usually in connection with the various Sunday schools or young people's societies. These classes are taught by the local pastor, priest or rabbi, or by some layman interested. The study, moreover, is not required of any individual or of any school; it is purely elective. The examination is confined to literary and historical questions. Individual preceptors are at liberty to combine with this study as much purely religious instruction as they see fit. But the state recognizes the literary and historical study of the Bible as worthy of academic credit, leaving with the church the responsibility for instruction."

The idea of this plan suddenly occurred to Professor Squires while the question of Bible study in the public schools was being discussed at the conference of the State Educational Association in 1911. Its presentation met with immediate and unanimous approval. A committee to formulate a syllabus was appointed. The syllabus, after hearty endorsement by high school principals, city superintendents and the State

Educational Association, was adopted by the State High School Board.

A number of classes were organized in the churches of the state last autumn. Too brief a time had elapsed for many pupils to have completed the course before the January examinations, but fourteen papers from six different schools were submitted to the state examiner. Although all of them had been graded above the passing mark by the local instructor, three were rejected by the official reader and eleven were passed.

Speaking for the teachers, one of them said:

"We in North Dakota feel that the plan is sound in theory, and the brief experience we have had with it justifies our faith in it as a practical means for getting boys and girls of high school age interested in the careful study of the Book of Books."

It is claimed that the plan prevents including religious instruction either in the syllabus or the examination of the state; avoids suspicion of sectarianism, as any version of the Bible may be used; averts partisanship by omitting all references to theories of authorship, chronology, inspiration and authenticity; and helps dignify and standardize the work of the Sunday school by giving it some of the discipline and academic credit of the day school, besides justly recognizing the study of the Bible as a subject worthy of scholarly effort.

The general secretary of the North Dakota Sunday School Association, after traveling over the state, reports that he found large numbers of classes doing good work under strong leadership. Inquiries have reached him from twenty different states, evincing interest in the plan throughout the country. The syllabus may be obtained either from the office of the State High School Board or that of the North Dakota Sunday School Association. Both are at Grand Forks, N. D.

The Religious Education Association adopted this guarded endorsement of the plan:

"We look with favor upon any endeavor to bring together the day school and the church in the study of the Bible, but we hold fast to our declared principle of absolute separation of the church from the taxing power."

The only undercurrent against the endorsement of this plan was the fear that it might prove to be a wedge in the insistent attempt to secure state credits for teaching not under state control. This might then be used as a claim for state subsidies to schools providing such instruction.

*Religious Education*, the monthly journal of the association (332 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago) will publish all the contributions made by eminent educators and publicists at this convention.



## BOOKS

### SOCIAL RELIGION

By SCOTT NEARING. The Macmillan Company. 227 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

The expansion of an address before the Friends' General Conference, this volume has both the interest and the fault of oral utterance—intensity of feeling and disproportion in statement. On the social side of every subject discussed, it is the one-sided plea of an advocate before a supposedly uninformed and unconvinced, if not indifferent, jury of church people. On the religious or church aspect of each subject it is a protest against the indifference of the church, everywhere taken for granted, from which appeal is taken to the ideals of the religion of Christ. On both sides criticism abounds without trace of the critical method in reaching conclusions or citing statistics to support them.

Flashlight snap-shots of social and industrial conditions are vivid if not glaring insights into concrete situations at their worst. But they are all in shadow, scarcely at all relieved by any reference to relieving agencies and legislation, or to the gradual improvements thus and otherwise being brought about. So also Christ's ideals are held up entirely apart from their loyal adherents to whom their emphasis, interpretations and application are due.

Disparity between wages and cost of living is well stated, but without reference to the declaration of advanced social faith by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ or to the movement for a minimum wage. Child labor is justly condemned but with no reference to the National Child Labor Committee and the co-operation of the churches with it. The ravages of vice are painted not any too darkly, but no account is taken of the country-wide declaration of war by the churches and civic authorities against the conditions which produce and promote the social evil. Industrial casualties and occupational diseases are none too grimly described, but with no allusion to the new measures taken by employers and state legislatures for safety and indemnity—or the part church people are taking in them.

The inexcusable Cherry mine fire is described (the number of the dead is stated to be 360; it was 258), but there is no intimation of the most generously just reparation ever made to the sufferers from such a disaster, creditable alike to the St. Paul Coal Company and the state of Illinois, as well as to representatives of the churches who were among the first to minister to the stricken families and were the last to leave them.

To depict conditions at their worst, without even intimating either that they have not come to be so bad everywhere, or that successful efforts are being made to improve them is surely to depress and paralyze rather than to encourage effort or hope for bettering them. To magnify

Christian ideals heaven-high and to minimize almost to nothing the awakening social vision and rapidly spreading social undertakings of the churches is surely not the way to seek or gain the recognition and realization of "social religion."

The more's the pity that so earnest an appeal for a social religion should be raised "without the walls of the church" and the cry lifted, "will the church hear us"? And this when there are more social idealism, sympathy and endeavor within the churches than ever before, when they need the loyalty and help of just such men as the writer of this book and those whose knowing or unknowing, mute or murmuring plea for religious guidance and power he voices.

GRAHAM TAYLOR.

### THE CIVIC THEATRE

By Percy Mackaye. Mitchell Kennerley, 308 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

"For the very reason that our people are perhaps the busiest in the world, it becomes a national concern that their leisure be filled with joyous regenerative influences."

Thus writes Percy Mackaye in his luminous little volume.

As yet the civic theatre in America, is a dream awaiting fulfillment. Repertory theatres we have had, experiment theatres, educational theatres, and municipal stock companies; but these are all small and sporadic growths as compared to Mr. Mackaye's comprehensive plan for a theatre publicly and permanently endorsed, freed of all commercial pressure, and making that public which supports it, not alone spectators of, but also participants in, its artistic activities. What a tremendous educative and artistically expansive force such an institution would exercise is hardly to be compassed by the imagination.

That the present day commercial theatre is a failure in every respect except its commercialism, is generally conceded by thinking men. For this condition Mr. Mackaye holds responsible not the manager, but the public, which, through lack of education and ideals, demands the worst and trashiest. The way to educate, as Mr. Mackaye sees it, is to give the public, at a price within its reach, the best.

The small city of Rochester, Minn., has in the summer months a very fine symphony band, made up of the best musicians from American musical centres, which eschews "rag" and trashily popular selections and plays only good music. At first the crowds accepted the unfamiliar with doubt; now they demand high standards and are content with nothing less. This is incidentally submitted as support to Mr. Mackaye's argument.

Meantime, as he points out, the commercialized theatre viewed as a social institution goes far to reduce our educational system to an absurdity.



Here is an organization involving hundreds of millions of our people's dollars, scores of millions of our people's souls, the education of their youth, the alleviation of their toil, the monopoly of their scant leisure hours—and behold, the people support this colossal organization on a basis which compels it to copy, rather than counteract, the defects in their civilization.

Millions upon millions, in private endowment and public taxes, are poured into educational institutions to counteract our national defects; while simultaneously millions upon millions, in individual subscriptions, are poured into the theatres to copy them. Tens of thousands of universities, colleges, schools are busy awakening in our American youth civic ideals; while simultaneously the titanic caricature of a university is busy putting them to sleep. Strangest of all, the prophets and leaders and supporters of true education ignore the very existence of its caricature.

By way of establishing the higher ideals the author suggests that the theatres be endowed, wherever possible, under the trusteeship of the universities. Would such an institution drive out and supplant the theatres of today? Mr. Mackaye thinks not. But it would, he maintains, compel the abandonment of the worst features of the modern stage, and bring about a universally higher standard of dramatic ethics and dramatic art.

To attempt to render in a brief review, the substance of a book as close-packed with inspiration, suggestion, and vision as this, is futile. I shall attempt merely to outline in the most general way, the plan as carefully worked out by the author. The main points are as follows:

Permanent endowment by public funds, not mere occasional subsidy of city, state and national theaters.

Participation in the acting, by the public, under the leadership of a permanent staff of artists.

Price of admission sufficiently low to make the theater available to all wage earners, the scale running from 5 to 25 cents.

Correlated with these institutions, a chain of privately endowed university theaters.

One national theater at Washington.

Organization and correlation of the arts of the theater, and general co-operation between all these bodies.

With the development of such a plan Mr. Mackaye looks forward to this future.

"From ocean to ocean, a mighty chain of theaters, state and municipal. Forty or more state theaters—from the Theater of California to the Theater of Massachusetts—publicly endowed on the precedent of Wisconsin University. A thousand municipal theaters—from the Theater of San Francisco to the Theater of Boston—publicly endowed, on the precedent of the College of the City of New York. Leading and harmonizing these, one national theater at Washington, endowed by the federal government. All these,

organized by civic leaders, safeguarded to perform their highest functions, directed by experts in theatrical art, dedicated to cultivating—creatively in artists, critically in audiences—the liberal art of a drama of democracy."

There are appendices full of valuable and practical suggestions for those interested in the organization of masques, pageants and other public spectacles.

SAMUEL HOPKINS ADAMS.

#### THE WOMAN MOVEMENT

By Ellen Key. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 224 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

#### THE BUSINESS OF BEING A WOMAN

By Ida M. Tarbell. The Macmillan Company. 242 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.

#### THE BOOK OF WOMAN'S POWER

Introduction by Ida M. Tarbell. Macmillan Co. 285 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.

#### WHY WOMEN ARE SO

By Mary Roberts Coolidge. Henry Holt and Co. 371 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

#### THE ADVANCE OF WOMAN

By Jane Johnstone Christie. J. B. Lippincott. 333 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

#### WOMAN IN MODERN SOCIETY

By Earl Barnes. B. W. Huebsch. 257 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

#### WOMAN IN THE MAKING OF AMERICA

By H. Addington Bruce. Little, Brown and Co. 257 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

As an articulate cause, the woman movement is still far behind the labor movement. But feminism is fast learning to express itself; its literature is rapidly increasing. Some of this literature, as must be expected, shows the crudities and sincerities of work struck off in the heat of action rather than in the repose of achievement. To borrow a phrase from Earl Barnes's book, the movement "is educating itself in public."

Here are seven books on the subject which have appeared in scarcely more than a year. Written from varying points of view and representing the greatest diversity of temperament and metier on the part of the authors, they all agree in addressing the middle class woman and in using the terms of life which she best understands. Except Miss Tarbell, who says that she does not herself see the necessity of giving the vote to women, their authors all advocate the extension of the franchise to women.

In her latest book, Ellen Key has given her personal observations on fifty years of the woman movement, a period spanned by her own memory. It is by no means a dispassionate history of events, but a personal interpretation of the external achievements of the movement and its influence on the spiritual nature of the modern woman. It reviews in turn the effects of the growth of feminism on the lives of single women and of daughters, upon men and women in general, and upon marriage and motherhood. The chapters contain by way of illustration many transcripts from domestic life in Sweden which give them a homely; familiar flavor.



Writing from the standpoint of her sixty-three years, Ellen Key seems genuinely to express the motherly spirit which she has so long expounded as a theory. What the older leaders see in the younger women, she says, is "a more universal development than in themselves, because these young girls have been developed through active consumption of power which was spared to the older women, although they must have summoned much passive energy in order to maintain their personality against convention. The young girls find often in these older women a fine understanding, which they richly reciprocate. Such terms of friendship are the most beautiful which the present has to offer: they resemble the meeting of the morning and evening red in the bright midsummer nights of the North."

\* \* \*

The *Business of Being a Woman* was written, as the introduction states, in the belief that the "great problem of human life is to preserve faith in and zest for everyday activities." The first of the nine essays analyzes the *Uneasy Woman* as the author sees her. The word "uneasy" is used interchangeably with "militant," an instance of the question-begging which characterizes the entire book.

According to Miss Tarbell, it is the uneasy American woman who is to blame for most of our common faults in domestic as well as in public life. She is not only responsible for mismanaging her raiment, her furniture, her servants and her daughters, but to her door, also, can be traced most of our notorious national faults, such as trusts, corruption in politics, popular contempt for labor, and inflexibility of the school system. "What the *Uneasy Woman* forgets," says the author, "is that no two children are born alike."

In many ways Miss Tarbell seems to follow the trend of the woman movement. Her attitude certainly cannot be called opposition. Her relation to the militant movement is more like that of the "slow-moving vehicle" which "must keep near the curb" to the swifter conveyances which go speeding past in the center of the street. Both, however, are going in the same direction.

\* \* \*

The *Book of Woman's Power* contains a series of about seventy-five quotations on varying aspects of woman's relation to society, with an introduction by Miss Tarbell. The introduction states the author's belief in "unconscious living" as the best answer to the woman question. The book has been compiled by a very eclectic hand. Distinguished suffragists like J. S. Mill, Professor Ward, Olive Schreiner, and Jane Addams have been levied upon for what might be called, considering the anti-suffrage tenor of the book, their least representative opinions.

\* \* \*

The best book for American readers on woman in the nineteenth century is Mrs. Coolidge's *Why Women Are So*. It is a refreshingly straightforward piece of writing, easy to read and well-

stocked with information on the history of the movement in this country. We are given, by the way, a valuable and entertaining picture of middle class manners in nineteenth century America. Evidently the book was written by a person who knows from parlor to kitchen the sort of home in which most of us have grown up.

The intention of the writer is, as she states in the Hypothesis at the beginning, to show that "sex tradition rather than innate sex-character have produced what is called 'feminine' as distinguished from womanly behavior." The author defends her case by pointing out how the conduct of women has been formed through the laws of imitation and suggestion from without rather than from within. Even more convincing than her scientific arguments are the shrewd observation, good sense, and mother-wit which she brings to bear upon her subject.

\* \* \*

The *Advance of Woman*, by Mrs. Christie, contains an array of facts gathered by much diligent reading from biology, ancient and modern history, and particularly from the history of Christianity. The intention is to show the advance of woman hitherto and to justify the present trend of events in the woman movement. Although this book, considered from the standpoint of literary art, shows many crudities, as a contribution to the subject it well repays a reading. Incidentally, the publication of a work with such apparent faults of literary workmanship means that the public demand for books of this nature is very large.

\* \* \*

In *Woman in Modern Society* Mr. Barnes makes a strong plea for equality of the sexes in society. The relation of the modern woman to education, to culture, to property, to industry, to political life, and to the family is discussed in different chapters.

Perhaps the best things the author has to say are on education, a problem to which he has given much thought. But education as he sees it "is co-terminous with life." He would not only have co-educational schools for boys and girls, but he would also have women share with men the responsibilities of government, and men share with women the work of teaching the young. "The foster parents of the nation's children must be both men and women." Mr. Barnes recommends strongly the employment of married women as teachers in preference to an exclusively celibate teaching force.

\* \* \*

In *Woman in the Making of America* the author gives an account of the significant contribution made by a long line of distinguished women to the nation's history. As the procession of American womanhood, mainly of the hardy type of Hannah Duston and her successors, passes in review before us, Mr. Bruce pays a sincere if rather conventional tribute to each successive group. The beginning and development of the club movement for women is also reviewed.

KATHARINE ANTHONY.



**THE SEXUAL LIFE OF THE CHILD**

By Albert Moll. Macmillan Co. 339 pp. Price \$1.75;  
by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.88.

**SEX EDUCATION**

By Ira S. Wile. Duffield and Company. 150 pp. Price  
\$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.05.

**HEALTH AND HAPPINESS**

By Dr. Eliza M. Mosher. Funk and Wagnalls Co.  
203 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

**CONFIDENCES**

By Edith B. Lowry, M.D. Forbes and Co., Chicago.  
Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.55.

**HIMSELF: TALKS WITH MEN CONCERNING THEMSELVES**

By E. B. Lowry, M.D., and Richard J. Lambert, M.D.  
Forbes and Co. 216 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE  
SURVEY \$1.10.

Dr. Paul has translated into simple and readable English this latest book by Dr. Moll on the sex life of boys and girls. The book is scientific in the finest sense and written in a style easily followed by laymen. It is dignified, sincere, frank and sane. It is a welcome addition to the growing literature prepared for persons who wish to make a careful study into the normal and abnormal facts of the sex life of children. It supplements Havelock Ellis' *Studies in the Psychology of Sex* with the results of many years of research into the psychology and pathology of sex in the pre-adolescent and adolescent periods.

After dealing with the reproductive organs and processes, Dr. Moll analyzes the sexual impulse and tells of the various stimuli to and deterrents of sexual manifestation. The chapter on Sexual Education should be read by all those who desire to see the facts about the physical life presented properly for children of different ages. In comparatively few pages Dr. Moll presents the conclusions which are to be found in Dr. Stanley Hall's work on Adolescence only after diligent search. We are told that the power of example in the home and among older friends is much more effective than formal teaching. Courses of study may conflict "with what the child sees every day in the conduct of his relatives and companions." The facts about the physical life must be given both by precepts and by example in wholesome ways through many years. Since children's natural curiosity about these fundamental things will surely be satisfied, information must be given to forestall possible dangers, evils and the disillusionments of later life. Girls must learn for themselves modesty and reserve; boys self-control and respect. Self-protection is developed in American schools through co-education and common games.

One of the conclusions reached by Dr. Moll is that "For effecting enlightenment regarding the processes of the individual sexual life, school is unsuitable; this matter can best be undertaken by some private person and above all by the mother. Choice of a time for this last phase of the sexual enlightenment must be guided in part by the questions of the child, in part by the child's physical maturity, but more

especially by the indication of psycho-sexual development." The process of general education will be slow, in the judgment of Dr. Moll, "because the very persons to whom, today, we have to look to effect the sexual enlightenment of children are themselves to a great extent also in need of enlightenment."

The writer is both an unsparing critic of the unthinking or hypocritical attitude of religious people and a firm believer in the value and power of religious education. He has in mind "that religious education, which has an internal reality and arises spontaneously out of the demands of morality, based upon the internal and everlasting truths of religion."

\* \* \*

Dr. Wile writes from an extended knowledge of both fact and method in sex education. His purpose is sincere, his facts are scientific, his style is lucid. His little book, *Sex Education*, is intended primarily for adults. In short, terse statements, he states the arguments for certain ways of instructing children. Parents will find here the reasons for home instruction and for the presentation of sex information in a normal, natural way through the pre-adolescent period. The responsibility for the instruction of girls is placed upon the mothers and that of the boys on the fathers. In rapid succession, under the three ages of mythology, chivalry and civic awakening, the manner of presentation is discussed. Dr. Wile also emphasizes the differences in the power of the sex impulse between males and females. He indicates clearly that the former are the ones to be closely watched for abnormalities, indiscretions and excesses.

A vast amount of material is included in a few pages. It is questionable whether the ordinary father or mother will derive definite and precise assistance in meeting the changing problems of the lives of their boys and girls from reading Dr. Wile's analysis. They will, however, receive a normal point of view and the frame work of a right method.

The chapters at the end of the book will be of decided assistance to parents who desire accurate statement of parts and functions and also a bibliography of educational and social books dealing with sex matters.

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Dr. Mosher's *Health and Happiness* is made up of a series of letters written during summer holidays to a group of girls of adolescent age. They deal with personal hygiene, and present physiological facts in a clear-cut way. The book contains a short chapter on the sex problems of adolescence.

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*Confidences*, by Dr. Edith Lowry, is a little booklet of ninety-four pages written to acquaint girls ranging from ten to fourteen with the facts about hygiene and reproduction. It aims also to point the way for mothers. The approach is through nature study and biology. It uses a method which has been accepted among edu-



cators but treats so many subjects lightly and rapidly that the impressions are not clear. Mothers would be involved in untimely explanations if the facts presented were properly amplified. No mother, in a limited time, can cover naturally the variety of ideas prescribed in the book. She will much more wisely meet questions with honest, simple answers and allow true explanations to follow budding curiosity.

\* \* \*

The book entitled *Himself*, written by Dr. Lowry and Dr. Richard J. Lambert, deals with sex hygiene for men. It is written in a straightforward and clear manner with many topics in short compass. There is neither articulation between the various subjects discussed nor exhaustive treatment. It has evidently been prepared by doctors who lay great stress upon physical facts and little upon subtle, moral and far-reaching causes.

Books on sex hygiene and sex education are in demand. They handle subjects which have been taboo. The reader follows every statement carefully and accepts the conclusions without much verification. It is necessary, therefore, that the writer should have a high purpose, a sincere manner, a conservative point of view and accuracy.

One of the problems confronting scientific, social and moral workers in the realm of sex is the limitation of offspring. Dr. Lowry's statements about prevention of conception of the tubercular, the weak-minded and the syphilitic, the regulation of the number of children of the poor, and instruction by nurses in methods of prevention should be withheld until the subject is fully discussed by those most skilled and most competent to deal with it. Modern science has not yet decided upon the effects of vasectomy, nor has it stated satisfactorily the classes of degenerates, insane, and epileptic people who should be sterilized. The chapter dealing with the recent law in Indiana and action in other states should be much expanded or treated differently.

ORRIN G. COCKS.

#### TRAINING THE BOY

By William A. McKeever. The Macmillan Co. 368 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.61.

The motto of this book, stated in the preface, is "Train the whole boy, and not merely a part of him,"—and throughout it breathes the author's "profound faith in the common boy—and that means practically all the boys."

The book is in five parts—Industrial, Social, Habit, Vocational and Service Training. It is a clear and comprehensive setting forth of the art of character building, and plainly shows this to be not the work of days or weeks, but of careful and thoughtful, persistent and sympathetic effort through all the years of infancy, boyhood and adolescence. This effort must be co-operative on the part of parents, teachers and all who have to do with the young, but the author lays its burden largely on the shoulders of the fathers, where doubtless it was meant to be, but whence it is all too often and too easily shifted.

In general, he claims that "any boy may be so trained and directed as to attain to mastership and happiness in his vocational life."

"This newer ideal of fondness and mastership in the chosen calling must be exalted earnestly by all who hope to succeed in training boys."

Certain "fundamental training practices" growing out of boy nature must form part of the development of every boy if we would help him to a successful career. These are play, industry, sociability, citizenship and social service. The chapter on methods of vocational guidance insists upon training in honesty, also upon teaching a boy to earn money, to use it and to save it, as all-important, but really says little as to guiding choices—what we most need to know, perhaps.

In the chapter on vocational training schools a good idea is given of the work being done in Boston, of trade schools, apprenticeship schools, and the many special schools now open to boys. There is also a chapter on getting started in business.

Part V, or Service Training, covers an important field, only lately receiving adequate attention. It discusses preparation for citizenship, for social service, for home life, for marriage and parenthood and for the religious life.

The book is illustrated and has a remarkably good index with bibliographies scattered throughout at the close of each chapter. This makes it excellent for reference. It is a business-like, concrete, helpful discussion written with great sympathy and understanding, and the best thing about it is its hopefulness.

CHARLOTTE S. THURSTON.

#### OLD HOMES OF NEW AMERICANS

By FRANCIS E. CLARK. Houghton Mifflin Co. 285 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.61.

This little volume, by the founder of the Society of Christian Endeavor, is overflowing with good-will for our neighbors of the dual monarchy and for all that is picturesque and heroic in their present lives and past achievements. It frankly owes a great part of its substance to other writers, but it is entwined and made real by the note of personal observation and the first-hand appreciations of the traveler.

The book is slight and far from absolutely accurate. Since America is so hard beset by the faults of superficiality, haste and lack of scrupulous regard for fact in its writers one is tempted to emphasize this criticism. It is to be said, on the other hand, that this readable and even entertaining account of the background of some of our largest and most misunderstood immigrant groups may render real service if it reaches the readers whom Dr. Clark has in mind, the provincial-minded Americans who still cherish the outgrown mood of contempt for all that is foreign. The pictures are interesting whether of places or people. In the introduction we have Mr. Schauffer's fine verses *Scum o' the Earth* which themselves would make the book worth owning.

EMILY GREENE BALCH.



## TREND

THE Bulletin of the Chicago School of Sanitary Instruction reprints the following Ten Commandments of the Housing Committee of the Chicago Woman's Aid Association:

1. Thou shalt honor thy city and keep its laws.
2. Remember thy cleaning day and keep it wholly.
3. Thou shalt love and cherish thy children and provide for them decent homes and playgrounds.
4. Thou shalt not keep thy windows closed day or night.
5. Thou shalt keep in order thy alley, thy back-yard, thy hall and stairway.
6. Thou shalt not kill thy neighbor's bodies with poisonous air, nor their souls with bad companions.
7. Thou shalt not let the wicked fly live.
8. Thou shalt not steal thy children's right to happiness from them.
9. Thou shalt bear witness against thy neighbor's rubbish heap.
10. Thou shalt covet all the air and sunlight thou canst obtain.

On the reverse side of the card is a diagram graphically setting forth these facts:

Good housing promotes: Health, life, mortality, success, ambition.

Bad housing promotes: Failure, stupidity, crime, disease, death.

\* \* \*

OFFICIAL figures were given out by the Socialist Party on March 15 on the recall of William D. Haywood as a member of the Executive Committee. More than a fourth of the party membership was represented in the vote cast, the number being 33,500, and the result was two to one against Haywood.

Press comment has been for the most part congratulatory. The *Pittsburg Dispatch* says the party has by this means "eliminated the teachings of industrial anarchy," and the *New Orleans Statesman*, in the same vein, defines sabotage as "nothing but anarchy in its defiance of law and the constitutional authorities." The *Birmingham (Ala.) News* believes that the vote shows that "Haywood's utterances in favor of direct action, the strike and sabotage are not endorsed by the party membership," and the *Springfield (Ind.) Republican* calls it a "milestone in the history of Socialism." In this the *New York World* concurs, believing that now the Socialist Party can "honestly appeal to public opinion as a party that recognizes the rules of orderly government and rejects the theory that the lawless shall gain power by intimidation and terrorism."

The *Detroit Tribune* recognizes in the unpromising position taken by Haywood that unwillingness to adopt opportunist tactics, which it believes to be the weakness of European Social-

ism. The repudiation of Haywood will, however, the *Tribune* believes, "place the party squarely in the field as favoring progressive or evolutionary Socialism." Says the *Tribune*:

"So long as Ettors, Giovannittis and Haywoods could balk compromise, and with their shrieks for violence bring discredit upon the constructive evolutionary socialists, just so long the other parties of this country had little or nothing to fear from the socialist program. But now that the socialist party has deliberately purged itself of the 'direct action' group of obstructionists, it is likely to become a more formidable contender with the other political parties."

The *Washington Herald* believes that the vote has settled the question of whether the party shall stand for political action or for "blood letting," and the *Springfield (Conn.) Republican* that it settles the struggle between "revolution by legitimate acquirement of political power—through majority rule and revolution by means of terrorism which impatient and reckless minorities have occasionally employed to bend majorities to their rule." The *Independent* (New York) comments on the large majority in favor of recall, and expresses the belief that "the more extreme Syndicalists will now forsake the party for the Syndicalist League."

The *Christian Science Monitor* believes that not only in the Socialist Party are Haywood's ideas unpopular, but that he is not succeeding in making these ideas prevail among the working class outside of the party, as it is "doubtful if the class war theory of social evolution is getting a firm grip on American workmen."

In contrast to these comments, the *Milwaukee Free Press* and the *Chicago Post* place most emphasis on the size of the minority.

What the *Free Press* says is tinged by its long warfare against the local Socialist movement in Wisconsin under Berger. The latter has been one of the leaders within the Socialist ranks in the fight against Haywood and the I. W. W.; but the *Free Press* is not disposed to let the chance go by to hold the political actionists and the party as a whole responsible for the action and teachings of the faction they are in the process of disciplining and throwing out:

"The Socialist Party is reaping the just retribution for its incendiary methods of propaganda. Holding to political action and denouncing anarchy in principle, the propagandists of this party have characteristically appealed to class prejudice, incited to class hatred, and, in their eagerness for votes, toyed with the most dangerous human passions—passions that crave an outlet in violence and catastrophe. . . .

"The Bergers, who see the writing on the wall, may become hoarse in their appeals to reason and their exposition of the beautiful philosophy of Socialism. The Spargos may develop writer's cramp in pointing out the terrible pitfalls of industrial unionism.



But the dragon's teeth have been sown and the brood of anarchy is growing within the ranks of Socialism."

The *Chicago Post* believes that the fundamental struggle among the Socialists is not against industrial action, but rather against a tendency to belittle political action in its favor. "Privately," says the *Post*, "the Socialists are more or less deliberately making room in their equipment for these new weapons, but the foot comes down hard when any one . . . begins to emphasize the virtues of the new weapons at the expense of the old." The real test of strength between the two wings of the party, the *Post* holds, is yet to come, and this "trial will be of considerable interest." At the present moment, however, the *Post* believes that the recall can be counted on to help the party increase its "remarkable middle class vote."

The membership of Local Denver to which Haywood belongs, and in which charges for his expulsion from the party, on the same grounds as the recall, have been introduced, has recently passed the following resolution of confidence, which was published in the *International Socialist Review*:

"Whereas, Comrade Wm. D. Haywood is a member of the 2nd Ward Branch of the Socialist party of Denver,

"And, whereas the New York State Committee of the Socialist party has instituted a referendum for his recall from the National Executive Committee of the Socialist party, declaring that Comrade Haywood never advocated the use of the ballot by the workers, but advocated sabotage instead,

"And, whereas Comrade Haywood during the miners' strike in Colorado constantly warned the strikers to beware of violence,

"And, whereas Comrade Haywood has been a Socialist for many years and has delivered many addresses in Denver, in which he always advocated the use of the ballot by the workers,

"Therefore, be it resolved that we value Comrade Haywood as a Socialist and comrade and respect his position on Industrial Unionism."

The attitude of those Socialists who formed the two-thirds majority in the national referendum is best represented by the *Call*, the New York Socialist daily, which says, in part, in its editorial comment:

"Probably there has never been a time in which the members acted more deliberately than in this. There was little rancor, malice or hate in the recall. On the contrary, there was a deep feeling of personal regard for Comrade Haywood. There was a recognition of the value he might be—and should be—to the revolutionary movement. There was also the recognition that Comrade Haywood had so little consideration for the democratically expressed verdict of the party that he not only ignored it and held it

up to scorn and ridicule, but frequently went out of his way to defy, antagonize and frustrate what was manifestly the will of the great majority of his comrades."

## COMMUNICATIONS

### MOTHERHOOD AND PENSIONS

#### TO THE EDITOR:

With indications that the "public" is being swayed by appeals to protect motherhood through pensions, the presentation of *Motherhood and Pensions* by Miss Richmond is a relief. Aside from the economic waste of human energy which a "pension" system may induce, it is likely to lessen individual initiative, to reduce its possible recipients to the condition of petitioners for favors, and hence to weaken the social structure.

It is unfortunate that our city, state and national treasuries bear so impersonal a relation to the members of society. Intelligent citizens know that the poor and ignorant pay an indirect tax out of all proportion to their resources, that this condition is fostered by those who have in hand larger resources, and that poverty and ignorance are necessary factors in the explanation of human energy. The poor and the ignorant are paying the price of that which is to be returned to them as pensions.

If the time, money and energy now being used to establish pensions could be directed into the establishment of fair conditions of industry, of sanitary conditions of living, of greater opportunities to acquire knowledge, of equal privileges and duties for men and women, might not the nation's integrity be better safeguarded?

GRACE PUTNAM POLLARD.

[President Liberal Union of Minnesota Women.]  
Minneapolis.

### SERVICE IN CHARITY WORK

#### TO THE EDITOR:

A bishop has said that the modern organized charity movement is destined to fail because it is concerned with material things while the real needs of humanity lie deeper.

He misinterprets modern organized charity. It is precisely because the modern charity movement is not chiefly concerned with material things that it will not fail. Modern organized charity puts the emphasis upon personal service, which is essentially spiritual and not material.

And it is here again that the real difference lies between the "charity experts" and the advocates of "mothers' pensions." The latter declare that the "relief" given by private charities is not adequate. By "adequate" they evidently mean that "relief" in itself might be sufficient to remove all need and all cause of need and that if such "adequate relief" were given for a time all poverty would disappear.

One of the best answers I have heard to this material argument came from an unexpected source. It was before a senate committee at a

<sup>1</sup>See THE SURVEY, March 1, 1913, p. 774.



hearing on a proposed "mothers' pension" or "funds to children's act." A senator wanted to know if it were possible to change environment with money.

Money may be used in some cases to help change environment, but its comparative value for such purpose may be estimated in the significance which the world's greatest moral and spiritual leaders have attached to it.

And the danger of any fund, *per se*, public or private, is that it shall at once become the thing of paramount importance. All other needs are lost sight of in presence of the opportunity to satisfy the universal need for money. The multitudes come then and the mission of one who might have done something to elevate humanity is submerged in the routine of distributing things. So those who come receive things only and they come for nothing else.

Now your practical man will decry such preachment and will want to know what all that has to do with the case of the poor mother whose children are about to be torn from her side. Our answer is that human nature is fundamentally the same and what would apply to a single individual in respect to the danger of a known, always available relief fund would apply equally to another, even to a mother and to her children. Can we protect humanity physically while at the same time we undermine its moral integrity? Or do we suppose that the only need or the real need in poverty is for a little cash?

Truly, as Mr. Hard says, this whole question of pensions to the poor "is a matter of moral, or speaking even more broadly, of esthetic, perception." Or let us say spiritual,—that is a better word.

We social workers are ourselves to blame for teaching the public that relief might be adequate. Some have even claimed that it was so, not only for certain instances, of which they have proudly boasted, but over the community as a whole. Is relief ever adequate? We have used the term to signify that a certain amount was adequate for a certain time; that is, it would furnish groceries, and coal and other necessities for a week. But if we have provided these for a family and the next day the husband and wife are arrested and charged in police court with drunkenness and disorderly conduct, was our relief adequate?

A friendly visitor finds a mother and two children deserted by the father. The father is arrested and sent to the reformatory and the visitor helps the mother to work out a plan whereby she may keep the children with her; but the next week the mother places the children in an orphan asylum. Was that relief adequate?

A father is out of work, his family is in distress. Relief is given for a few weeks until the father can be found another position. Then, of course, the relief stops. But in a few weeks the father is out of work again. Was that adequate relief which we gave?

Relief really is never adequate unless it removes the cause of the trouble. It is in this sense that the public understands the word, and it is the only honest sense in which we have any right to use it. In speaking of adequate relief we must

know that parents have the moral strength to do their part. Relief can be adequate for a mother only when she has the determination and will power to make some effort for her own salvation. Lacking this, any amount of material aid given in that home can do only harm. And in adequate relief we establish a social order in which an industrious father is not thrown out of work, but is able continuously to make enough to support his own family.

And for any one to claim that he or his organization gives all the relief that is needed in his community, when individuals are suffering and dying all about him because of poverty and neglect, is the consummation of ignorance, or stupidity or dishonesty.

Since we social workers ourselves have introduced the term adequate relief and have taught the public to believe that it might be so, let us not blame any one but ourselves if we find certain advocates of mothers' pensions demanding that we give adequate relief to mothers.

The best part of our charity is the personal service which we give. That service has a double benefit; it really saves some individuals and some families here and there; and it helps to keep the city acquainted with itself. It compels us to know conditions and knowing them to find some remedy.

Such personal service is essentially religious, and our cause suffers often because we do not more boldly assert that fact. It is not the religion of any sect, its creed is as broad as humanity. It is a kind of civic religion, promoting the day of universal brotherhood and democracy.

FRANK D. LOOMIS.

[General Secretary Children's Aid Association.]  
Indianapolis.

## SEX HYGIENE

TO THE EDITOR:

After reading *Post Graduates of the Hired Man in THE SURVEY* for March 8, I am impelled to contribute a fragment of personal testimony.

I am associated with Charles Keen Taylor of the University of Pennsylvania in developing, under the auspices of the Home and School League of Philadelphia, a system of moral education in the public schools of this city. He works with the boys, while I work with the girls.

In the individual and really "friend-to-friend" talk that I plan with each girl, I ask three questions, if I find that the girl has reached the age of puberty. One is "Did you know of this event of your life before its happening?" The next question is, "Who told you of it?" To which the reply is, nine times out of ten, "a girl," or "the girls, I know." My next question is, "From whom would you rather first know this great thing in your life?" And not once has the answer failed to be, "My mother."

Possibly, if the mothers who read *THE SURVEY* should read this, they would find something more of the depths of the daughter-heart, than they have dared (?) to seek.

FRIEDA E. LIPPERT.

Philadelphia.



## NEW YORK FIRE BILLS

TO THE EDITOR:

Allow me to set aright Lawrence Arnold Tanzer, legislative draftsman for the Factory Investigating Commission, who finds it hard to comprehend my statement in your issue for February 22, that the commission's bills will not affect materially the fire hazard conditions which the commission was appointed remedy.

Mr. Tanzer bases his difficulty in understanding my contention upon his interpreting these bills as largely following my own recommendations. It is because they follow my recommendations *largely*, and not specifically, that Mr. Tanzer has been misled.

Mr. Tanzer says that my proposed bill, prohibiting the erection of factory buildings which cannot be emptied in three minutes is impractical. I have grown accustomed to statements of this kind during the past eight or nine years. During this time, while I was urging legislation for compulsory fire drills in factories, manufacturers, commissions, legislative draftsmen and legislators have said that such legislation would be impractical. Nevertheless, under pressure of public sentiment such a law is now in effect in Pennsylvania, New Jersey and New York.

It stands to reason that if factories are to be safe they should be designed and built safe. Architects and builders should not be allowed to continue to design and construct buildings with inadequate exit facilities, as they have in the past, and which have to be altered so as to be safe only after a fire panic proves their defectiveness. People in other professions are restrained by law from unloading upon the unsuspecting public goods which are not what they purport to be.

There is a general consensus of opinion among people with whom I have conferred that no one should be detained in a building more than three minutes after it gets on fire. I have reconstructed plenty of factories previously unemptiable in such an emergency, so that they are now readily emptied in less than three minutes.

The bill I have been advocating would prohibit the construction of any factory building which could not be emptied within this time limit. I shall leave this question to the intelligence of the public, satisfied that, when they want safety in factories, legislative draftsmen, commissions and legislators will get busy and devise and pass a bill which will be effective.

Now as to my criticism of the bills. Mr. Tanzer says I do not make my objections specific, and therefore may mislead those who have not read them. Let me say that they do *largely* follow my recommendations, but in each case there is a string attached which nullifies it or weakens it so that it is of little value.

Bill No. 7 was passed last year, requiring that cuttings and waste materials shall be removed from the factory building daily. This bill was very good, evidently too good to let stand, for it was dragged out of the statute books this year and amended so as to allow the cuttings and

waste materials, if a string is tied around them (*i. e.*, "are baled"), to be removed from the building only once a month.

Bill No. 8 calls for fire alarm signal systems and fire drills in factory buildings. These drills may take all day long to get the people out of a building. They do not act as a test of the exit facilities and simply tend to preserve present unsafe conditions by permitting unsafe buildings to be constructed and then establishing drills to enable the people to get out of them. Such drills are worse than useless, as they establish in the minds of the occupants of the buildings a false idea of security.

Bill No. 9 requires automatic sprinklers to be installed in every factory building over seven stories in height, in which wooden flooring or wooden trim is used. In the direction of protecting property this bill is apparently good as far as it goes, although favoring one fire retarding apparatus to the exclusion of every other; but taken in conjunction with the next (Bill No. 10) it is vicious. It will inflict a great hardship upon many building owners by putting them to great expense without an adequate return.

Bill No. 10 enters into the construction of buildings for the purpose of making them safe for their occupancy. I stated in my report that a stairway of standard type with a height between ceiling and floor of ten feet, has twenty steps, which if wide enough for people to come down single file will accommodate one person on every other step, and therefore have a capacity of ten people. Likewise a stairway with a height between ceiling and floor of twelve feet will in the same manner have a capacity of twelve people. Any more people getting on these stairs will jam them.

These are plain facts, but the commission by fiat increased both of these capacities to fourteen. Winders actually reduce the capacity of a stairway 50 per cent, but the commission established the legal reduction at 10 per cent.

The number of people which I stated in my report can be safely crowded into a given space on a floor is one for every three square feet (*i. e.*, a space say 22 inches by 19 inches) but the commission voted that if a sprinkler system would be installed 50 per cent more people can get into it. Sprinkler systems have never been considered life saving devices, and, like all other automatic devices, they frequently do not operate at all. When they do operate it is at a temperature and in an atmosphere filled with smoke and flames which human beings cannot stand. The latter always have to make their escape in advance of the operation of such a system; but with the additional occupancy allowed, there would be no place for the people to escape to, owing to the congestion of the exit facilities. These bills were supposed to reduce present congestion in factories, but instead they establish it by law.

Bill No. 1 authorizes the appointment of an Industrial Board, which Mr. Tanzer says is intended to consider the important details which I have stated are defects and omissions in the legislation proposed. This is my whole conten-



tion, that the Factory Investigating Commission has failed to serve its purpose and is now turning its problems over to an Industrial Board empowered to employ experts to solve it for them. Nearly two years have been spent getting this far. Now the long suffering public is asked to put up more money and wait indefinitely for another political board to employ experts to study the situation over again. The question is, how long will the public stand this sort of circumlocution?

H. F. J. PORTER.

[Secretary Efficiency Society; former expert New York Factory Investigating Commission.]

New York.

## PARTNERSHIPS OF INDUSTRY

TO THE EDITOR:

I was delighted to find in *THE SURVEY* for February 8 two articles on the questions of arbitration and the partnerships of industry. It is well that the article on partnership comes from one who has tried it so long and is pleased with it. His statement that "Nothing is more discreditable to a class of reformers than the cynical charge that profit sharing aims at advantage over employees. On the contrary it is always the opening wedge to a genuine mutual interest and understanding" has truth in it.

Some fifty years ago I urged in the labor papers that the main cause of industrial evils was the universal practice of recognizing the right of capital to take all net gain, and urged the wage workers to adopt co-operative arrangements which would limit the gains of capital and divide profit or net gain equitably among all the parties to producing it.

I am disappointed at the general ignorance at this late day, of so many wage workers and their leaders who persist in thinking that their whole trouble is with their employers and that all they need is more wages when the fact is that wages entering into the cost of products make the cost of living increase faster than the rise in wages, leaving workers in worse condition than before. It is also to be deeply deplored that the employers as a body have never thought out the capital and labor problem, and as a rule persist in resorting to the lash of the despot in place of reason and justice.

The world's best thinkers point to a joint partnership between capital and labor as the best foundation for the industrial future. Cairns fully and clearly pointed out that the only way by which labor can improve its condition is to secure a share of the profit or net gain of industry. Professor Ely of the University of Wisconsin is the only man, so far as I know, who has republished this statement of Cairns.

I am surprised, considering the increased interest that is now shown in the welfare of the wage workers by the educated classes over what was the case forty or fifty years ago, to find so little said on these questions of the true relations of capital and labor, especially when I think of the great good that would result from their consideration and public discussion. I sin-

cerely hope that the writers for *THE SURVEY* will pay more attention to these subjects.

The questions most important to be considered at this time in my judgment are voluntary arbitration, partnerships of industry in all production and Rochdale co-operation on the part of all in distribution. On these lines *THE SURVEY* has the power to do a vast amount of good.

In England the co-operators aimed at getting rid of the employing capitalist class, but changed conditions in this country call for a union of employer and employee. Labor needs the capital and business knowledge of the employer and the employer needs the good will and knowledge of labor. How to secure this is the question. We have to look to the educated class to help this along.

THOMAS PHILLIPS.

Clementon, N. J.

## SHOPPERS' PUZZLE

TO THE EDITOR:

Members of the St. Louis Consumers' League are seeking the solution of the following problem: Last summer a new large department store kept open on Saturday afternoons. This violation of the established custom of giving the Saturday half-holiday was discussed by the Consumers' League. It was decided that two members of the league call upon the head man of the local shop (which, by the by, is but one of a chain of stores established in various cities under one firm) and ask him why his concern did not conform to custom. The man told the women that such a bulk of business was done in their men's furnishing department on Saturday afternoons that the stockholders would never agree to Saturday closing, as that would reduce dividends. He said further that social harm would be done should his place close because then a number of mushroom men's furnishing shops would spring up to take up their abandoned business and general industrial conditions would be worse in these shops than in his—and as many people would be employed Saturday afternoons. He remarked, too, that all the existing men's furnishing shops kept open. To the suggestion that the men's furnishing department alone be kept open, his reply was that the construction of the store and the established machinery for doing business made this impracticable.

The Consumers' League added to this information their own observation that working men did have to have Saturday afternoons for their shopping or else shop at night. To promote night buying seemed no remedy. Employers rightly would not allow men time off during the day to shop without docking wages. So gloomily the Consumers' League looks forward to the coming summer and fears that other department stores will fall in line with the new place and keep open summer Saturday afternoons.

Do *SURVEY* readers wish to start a contest for the best answer to this modern industrial puzzle?

ALTHEA S. GROSSMAN.

St. Louis.



## JOTTINGS

### LINKING SCHOOLS WITH HOMES

How a boy in his institution in succession prepares the ground, plants radishes, cultivates them, takes them to school and paints them, and then eats them, was told by R. R. Reeder, superintendent of the New York Orphanage at Hastings-on-Hudson at a conference held in New York early in March under the auspices of the New York Child Welfare Committee. His point was that in this way the boy extracted the greatest possible benefit, both as education and nutriment, from the radish. A girl, he said, chooses the cloth, cuts it, sews the pieces together into a dress, takes the dress to school and paints it, and then puts it on and wears it.

Both the correctional and educational value of industrial training for boys and girls in institutions was emphasized. Stress was laid on need for close correlation between the work of the institutional school and the industrial department, as suggested in the method outlined by Dr. Reeder. Incidentally, Arthur D. Dean, head of the division of vocational schools of the New York State Department of Education, remarked that there never can be as much correlation between the family and the public school as is possible between the institutional school and the home life of the institution child. The institution, he said, is both school and home in one. Dr. Reeder was among those who thought that nevertheless there is opportunity for the public school to link itself much more closely to the family life of children than it has yet attempted. Giving credit in school for industrial and domestic work done at home was among the methods discussed for bringing this about.

### UNIFORM CHILD LABOR LAW FOR NEW JERSEY

A difference of opinion between the educational authorities and the commissioner of labor of New Jersey has delayed the passage of a bill to end a baffling inconsistency in the laws affecting the issuance of working papers. The labor commissioner has the power to issue working papers to any child of fourteen who applies for them and can prove his age. The educational officials on the other hand are required to enforce school attendance up to the age of seventeen if the child has not completed the grammar grades. The variance between these two statutes has caused confusion because a child who has secured working papers may in many cases be seized by the truant officers and returned to school.

A bill is pending to reduce the age of compulsory education to sixteen and to ensure co-operation between the two departments. The stumbling block has been as to which department should have the right to issue the working papers. The commissioner of labor because he has always had the power wished to keep it but the school authorities felt that they were in closer touch with the children. The outcome it is expected will be a compromise. The com-

missioner of labor has already said that he is willing to have the working papers issued by the school authorities provided that the original documents or attested copies are filed with the Bureau of Labor at Washington.

### UNEMPLOYMENT IN ENGLAND

While the number of men who demanded employment in England last year was 20,000 fewer than in 1911, the requests for aid to emigrate increased by 1,500. This part of the service cost \$2,000,000.

### GALSWORTHY ON THE EAST SIDE

What are the dramatic capacities latent in the second generation which should be added to the sum of American life? That is a question confronting New York's East Side and all immigrant quarters.

The Dramatic Club of the Henry Street Settlement gives one of the fragmentary answers. Last year they put on *The Shepherd*, Mrs. Dargan's tragedy of the Russian revolution. This year the play selected was Galsworthy's *Silver Box*, with its story of the isolation and lack of understanding between social classes. The club itself is the reverse of this, as the producing directors and the young Russian people who put in all their spare hours on rehearsals meet on an equal footing. Besides the social element introduced into settlement life by such a club, there is the opportunity to bring out latent talent for dramatic expression, as in the case of one of the main characters in this play, who out of work hours, is taking courses in the drama at Columbia. The audience was keenly appreciative of the social and philosophical aspects of the play, and the library records of that section of the city go to show that the interest is an all-the-year-round one.

### SCHOOLMEN FOR CHILDREN'S JUDGES

A juvenile court whose judges must be school principals or superintendents is the proposal now before the New York Legislature. Its purpose is to bring school room and court room into closer co-operation. The new court is to be known as the "children's bureau of the city of New York," and the judges will be called directors. A director must have had eight years' experience as principal or superintendent in the public schools of New York, or ten years elsewhere or in public institutions to which children may be committed.

The bureau, if created, is to have all the jurisdiction now vested in the inferior criminal courts with reference to violations of the compulsory education and child labor laws, and to charges of juvenile delinquency and improper guardianship. It may investigate, try, hear, determine and punish all such offenses.

Friends of the present juvenile court are for the most part opposed to this suggestion and it is not thought likely that the bill will pass. The chief objection is that principals and superintendents usually do not have much direct contact with children and so are not fitted to sit in judgment on youthful waywardness.



A STATEMENT

BY THE EDITORS OF THE SURVEY  
FOR THE PUBLICATION YEAR 1911-1912

IN BEHALF OF

CHARITIES PUBLICATION COMMITTEE

AN ANNOUNCEMENT

OF

SURVEY ASSOCIATES, Inc.

1912-1913

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THE SURVEY OFFICES

NEW YORK  
105 East 22nd Street

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Association.

## INTRODUCTORY

### SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC.

The Survey Associates is a membership corpo-  
ration, chartered November 4, 1912, under the laws of  
the state of New York.

Its stated purpose is "to advance the cause of con-  
structive philanthropy by the publication and circulation  
of books, pamphlets, and periodicals, and by conducting  
any investigations useful or necessary for the preparation  
thereof."

To the Survey Associates, Inc., is turned over the  
publication of THE SURVEY magazine, the mainte-  
nance of the Survey Press service, and other activities  
heretofore carried on under Charities Publication Com-  
mittee. The latter has been a constituent committee  
of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New  
York, and action effecting this change was taken by the  
Central Council of the Society, June 12 last.

Henceforward co-operating subscribers to THE  
SURVEY (those who contribute \$10 or more annually)  
may be elected voting members of Survey Associates,  
Inc. Contributors of \$100 or more in any one year,  
so elected, become continuous members.

The following directors were named in the act of  
incorporation:

Jane Addams  
Robert S. Brewster  
Robert W. de Forest  
Edward T. Devine  
John M. Glenn  
Julian W. Mack

V. Everit Macy  
Charles D. Norton  
Simon N. Patten  
Frank Tucker  
Paul M. Warburg  
Alfred T. White

The directors serve for three-year terms, and are  
divided into three classes, so that one-third of them  
come up for election each year. The Charity Organi-  
zation Society of the City of New York will nominate  
one director in each class. The first annual meeting  
will be held Monday, October 27, 1913.

At the organization meeting of the board of direc-  
tors of the Survey Associates on November 11, 1912,  
Robert W. de Forest was elected president, John M.  
Glenn, vice president, Frank Tucker, treasurer, and  
Arthur P. Kellogg, secretary.

Charities Publication Committee continues as a  
National Council, larger and more widespread in mem-  
bership than is possible for the board of direction with  
its monthly meetings.

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## TO SURVEY READERS AND SURVEY ASSOCIATES:

**T**HIS report must attempt a two-fold part:

First: An announcement to readers and subscribers that THE SURVEY has, in the last analysis, been turned over to them—a call upon them for an increased measure of that backing and vigorous personal interest which have made it a living thing these fifteen years past. Through action of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, the Survey Associates has been incorporated as a non-commercial membership organization open to the co-operating subscribers of THE SURVEY; and the magazine and its related activities have become in fact—what they have long been in spirit—a mutual enterprise.

Second: An acknowledgment in behalf of the new régime, of its indebtedness to the parent society for the valuable equity thus transferred, and for a final appropriation which, with exceptional gifts from friends and well-wishers during the summer and early fall, has cleared THE SURVEY from all overhanging obligations and enabled it to enter upon this new stage of its development four-square with the world.

To all who have borne a hand—our thanks.

To all who lend a hand—greeting.

**T**HE Survey Associates, Inc., thus becomes an adventure in co-operation.

Perhaps no more active question confronts journalism than how to free the periodicals of the United States—with their great powers for good or evil—from any dominance by the advertising pages. Only this fall, the editor of one national weekly,—most conspicuous heretofore for its independence in this respect,—has retired for this assigned cause. The editor of another and older weekly proposes the foundation of an endowed journal. It is only a war scare, he points out, that justifies a newspaper in sending a capable man half around the globe; it is only the circulation-getting quality in an investigation

which enables a periodical to go at it adequately. Therefore he argues for an income not only independent of business receipts, but ample enough to finance deliberate and inductive staff research into civilization in process, outside those limited fields where gathered fact has a marketable news or magazine value.

These references will give the reader some inkling of why it is—the point will be taken up more in detail later—that THE SURVEY appeals for \$20,000 above commercial receipts in order to do a creditable year's work in a field where the editorial procedure is continually one of intruding upon inertia and neglect and of bringing human values out from beneath the surface of things.

They will show why, also, in the publication world, THE SURVEY is watched as an experiment of unusual interest. It needs extra-commercial receipts to pay for rapid staff research and reporting in a field of exacting technique; to set forth its findings graphically, and at convincing length; to gain a hearing for them among wider and wider groups of readers; and, through its press service, to make them over into the common knowledge. It does not look to an endowment fund for these extra-commercial receipts, but to the voluntary contributions—\$10, \$50, \$100 and \$1000—from its readers. Will they back it up?

[Our financial appeal is printed on the back cover.]

**B**UT interesting as THE SURVEY is as an experiment in co-operative journalism, we are more concerned with its wider and deeper aspects. In 1910-11, 293 readers became co-operating subscribers at \$10 each; in 1911-12, 646; in 1912-13 we look for 800. 101 others, the past year, have given larger amounts. Sheerly as a membership body, the Survey Associates at the very start, ranks well up among the national organizations which carry forward constructive social work.

At a time when great trusts in philan-



thropy are being organized—the Rockefeller Foundation, the Russell Sage Foundation, the Carnegie Foundation—thrusting great resources into the future, it seems eminently opportune and far-sighted thus to create in the Survey Associates a human balance, a company of thinking, criticising, doing Americans whose strength will come from the passing from man to man of ideas and experience, method and good-will.

The transition in organization from old to new involves no violent break with the past, nor change of scope or purposes. It merely means that the magazine and other activities carried on under Charities Publication Committee have increasingly become national, and that a point has been reached where far-seeing stewardship calls for a natural, self-dependent organization which can project the work twenty-five years into the future.

IT was in 1897 that the parent society started *Charities* as a weekly medium through which its members could be kept informed of the social needs of New York, and of the movements leading to their improvement. From the first, in text and in spirit, it broke away from the narrow limits customary to institutional bulletins, and from the first it has had a message for other cities and societies facing similar problems. It has been published under various names; it has grown in scope with the growth of the co-operative efforts of which it has been the interpreter; but it has been marked throughout with a rare unity and distinction, due to the consecutive editorship of its founder, Edward T. Devine, whose practical service as general secretary of the Society has lent the force of achievement to printed words, and whose constructive vision has given them life and fire. Under his editorship, with the backing in purse and purpose of some of those longest in the councils of the Society—backing which naturally won for itself co-operative support from other quarters—the magazine became and has continued the largest single contribution of the New York organization to the national field.

In launching THE SURVEY as an independent undertaking, that contribution has been carried through a further and logical stage.

It has been launched at a period of exceptional opportunities for service. There has perhaps never been a twelve-month in the history of the magazine which has been

marked by more important developments in the national field, in which staff and Committee have borne a hand.

## FEDERAL INQUIRY INTO JAILS

AT the December session of Congress there is every prospect of an appropriation for a special inquiry under the Department of Justice into the condition of jails, as potential houses of detention for federal prisoners, and into our general methods for treating delinquents. Reforms must, of course, come largely in the states and in the counties, but such an independent inquiry, removed from the entanglements of local politics, should be as far-reaching as the work of the English Poor Law Commission.

In the fall of 1910, THE SURVEY published a special number, interpreting the meeting for the first time in this country of the International Prison Congress. This international body was instituted by an American, Dr. E. C. Wines. In the forty years of its existence, its membership, composed of official delegates from the great governments, has come more and more to respond to the principles of those pioneer American penologists who, in the 70's, took issue with old statutes founded on vengeance and punishment, and taught the new law of social offence and personal rehabilitation.

This quinquennial session saw the triumph of these American principles. They were embodied in recommendations as to the indeterminate sentence, probation and reform, adopted and sent back to the adhering governments.

But the Congress brought to America the leading penologists of our own generation, who measured not merely our modern reformatories, but the general run of American jails, prisons and penitentiaries, against the principles which the penologists of the New World have stood for in the councils of the nations. In the eyes of the most progressive of the foreign delegates, many of our conditions were still those of the dark ages. Mrs. Lowell long since noted that the American Revolution practically cut off the new continent from John Howard and his prison reforms. Our petty offenders are jailed in lock-ups which correspond to those of Eighteenth Century England.

A departmental editor of THE SURVEY, the late Samuel J. Barrows, was in 1905 elected president of this international body, the first American to hold such office.

Perhaps it may be counted a piece of loyalty to him that THE SURVEY brought out with discriminating frankness the sobering message which these European leaders left with the American people—not in their official resolutions, but in quietly expressed personal judgments.

Later, through Senator Root, the situation was placed before the Federal Department of Justice as the proper subject for a governmental inquiry. Attorney-General Wickersham responded favorably to the suggestion and recommended it strongly in his annual report and at Congressional hearings.



## COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

ONE of the most significant acts of the present Congress has been the creation of a Federal Commission on Industrial Relations. This is charged with the responsibility of investigating the fundamental relations which we as a self-governing people bear to corporate forms of work. An appropriation of \$100,000 has been voted for its use during the first year.

The Los Angeles confessions last December struck the public between the eyes. A natural reaction of vast numbers of people was to call on Labor to put its house in order. The corresponding reaction of at least some of the more militant unionists was to cite counter abuses at the hands of Capital—the old cry of “You’re another”. THE SURVEY sought to glean some light where there was mostly heat, by publishing a symposium on “The Larger Bearings of the McNamara Case”.

This suggested to a group of social workers in New York—headed by Rabbi Stephen S. Wise and the Rev. John Haynes Holmes—the desirability of some public expression from those who were neither in the ranks of employers nor of the employed. At a meeting, with Miss Jane Addams in the chair, discussion focussed not on the dynamiter, but on the worker who would not dynamite; on what channels for self-expression are open to wage-earners who through collective effort seek to better their condition. At the suggestion of a member of the staff of THE SURVEY, a public letter to the President was drawn up, urging him to recommend the creation of a federal commission of inquiry.

Many of the leading social workers and economists of the country signed this letter. It was presented at the White House on December 30; and on February 2 President Taft, in a message to Congress, strongly urged legislation to this end. As the Children’s Bureau Bill had been hanging fire for six years, it was felt that organized effort and education would be needed to secure prompt action.

The editor of THE SURVEY was the unanimous choice of the petitioners to act as chairman of a legislative committee, and for the succeeding five months the heavy work of organizing, interesting the general public, and carrying on a congressional campaign, was shouldered by Mr. Devine. The Survey Press Bureau undertook the work of publicity. [See p. 8.] Congressman Hughes in the House, and Senator Borah in the upper chamber actively sponsored the necessary legislation. Several thousand letters were sent out; testimony was offered at a widely attended hearing of the House Labor Committee, Congressman Wilson chairman; and a majority of the members of both houses were personally interviewed. Allen T. Burns, secretary of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, was secured on leave of absence, as Washington representative, and a gift of \$5000 from Mr. Adolph Lewisohn, supplemented by later gifts from Mrs. Emmons Blaine and Mr. Julius Rosenwald, financed the work.

The bill passed on August 20, creating a commission of nine members, to be appointed by the President, and composed of 3 employers, 3 workers, and 3 representatives of the general public. It was

signed by the President August 23. To quote Mr. Taft:

“Industrial relations concern the public for a double reason. We are directly interested in the maintenance of peaceful and stable industrial conditions for the sake of our own comfort and well-being; but society is equally interested, in its sovereign civic capacity, in seeing that our institutions are effectively maintaining justice and fair-dealing between any classes of citizens whose economic interests may seem to clash. . .

“ . . . Unquestionably the time is now ripe for a searching inquiry into the subject of industrial relations which shall be official, authoritative, balanced and well rounded, such as only the federal government can successfully undertake. The present widespread interest in the subject makes this an opportune time for an investigation, which in any event cannot long be postponed. It should be non-partisan, comprehensive, thorough, patient, and courageous.”

## OCCUPATIONAL STANDARDS

At Cleveland in June, representatives of a dozen national organizations in the field of constructive philanthropy united in a program of industrial minimums, which they set forth as a joint working platform with respect to labor conditions. These planks included the 48-hour week for women and the six-day week for men, the prohibition of child labor, of night work for women and of the 12-hour day for men, minimum wage boards, workmen’s compensation for accident and disease, and kindred proposals.

More especially the platform advocated and defined a sphere of governmental control with respect to physical conditions of work in a more clear-cut way than had hitherto been done. This was embodied in three working principles as follows:

### THE INDUSTRIAL MINIMUM

“The community has a right to complete knowledge of the facts of work.

“On the basis of these facts and with the recent discoveries of physicians and neurologists, engineers and economists, the community can formulate minimum occupational standards below which, demonstrably, work is prosecuted only at a human deficit.

“The community should bring all industrial conditions which fall below such standards within the scope of governmental action and control, in the same way that subnormal sanitary conditions are subject to public regulation, and for the same reason—because they threaten the general welfare.”

In 1910 the National Conference of Charities and Correction, meeting at St. Louis under the presidency of Miss Addams, devoted the work of one of its major committees to this subject of occupational standards. This was inherently an endeavor, on



the one hand, to bring together the proposals of the various propagandic organizations which have urged different phases of industrial reform (such as the prolongation of childhood, the elimination of night work for women, and the prevention of industrial accidents) and, on the other hand, to bring to bear upon these proposals the information and interest of charitable agencies.

It was held that:

"More than on the manufacturers themselves, more than on the wage-earners themselves, the responsibility for bearing testimony as to the human wear and tear of industry rests upon those who carry on our hospitals, reformatories, charitable societies, courts and children's institutions; from them, if from any one, must law-makers and industrial leaders learn where lines must be drawn, if the business world is not to throw back upon family and state, burdens which would be seen to be exorbitant, were they not scattered among a thousand hospitals and among the budgets of a hundred types of philanthropic agencies."

The work was carried forward on a three-year basis; the first year under the chairmanship of Paul U. Kellogg, of THE SURVEY; the second year, under that of Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers' League (a contributing editor); and the third year under Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee.

In September, 1910, THE SURVEY published a special number blocking out the field. The final report by Mr. Lovejoy at Cleveland last June was signed not only by the representatives of philanthropic bodies, but by men identified with employers' associations and trade unions. Specific planks were offered under each of the following heads: wages, hours, safety and health, housing, term of working life, compensation and insurance; Mr. Lovejoy presenting in printed form a mass of evidence under each head, American and foreign laws and the pronouncements of existing organizations.

In enunciating the principle of the *industrial minimum*, the committee was employing a governmental principle already adopted in the field of sanitary conditions. We have come to recognize a public element in congregate dwellings. With the aid of sanitarian and plumber, architect and engineer, we have worked out certain standards of building and maintenance below which health is endangered. And we have come to regard it as the proper province of government to step in, regulate and control cess-pool or cellar or dark interior bedroom or any other condition that falls below those standards.

The National Conference does not adopt resolutions. An all day's meeting adjourned as a session of the conference, and as individuals, with only minor changes, adopted the program.

Subsequently, steps were taken to put its findings before the platform committees of the various political parties; the Progressive Convention at Chicago drafted them into its proposals for "social and industrial justice"; and they became issues around which waged much of the most stirring discussion of the campaign. To quote Col. Roosevelt:

"Wherever such standards are not met by given establishments, by given industries, are unprovided for by a legislature, or

are balked by unenlightened courts, the workers are in jeopardy, the progressive employer is penalized, and the community pays a heavy cost in lessened efficiency and in misery.

"The first charge on the industrial statesmanship of the day is to prevent human waste. The dead weights of orphanage and depleted craftsmanship, of crippled workers and workers suffering from trade diseases, of casual labor, of insecure old age, and of household depletion due to industrial conditions are, like our depleted soils, our gashed mountainsides and flooded river bottoms, so many strains upon the national structure, draining the reserve strength of all industries, and showing beyond all peradventure the public element and public concern in industrial health. . . We hold that under no industrial order, in no commonwealth, in no trade, and in no establishment should industry be carried on under conditions inimical to the social welfare. The abnormal, ruthless, spendthrift industry or establishment tends to drag down all to the level of the least considerate."

## MEN AND RELIGION MOVEMENT

MAGAZINE and committee co-operated at many points with the Men and Religion movement which ranged the country during the winter months of 1911-12.

It need scarcely be pointed out that this movement, which based its primary effort upon public education rather than upon inspiration or conversion, became more and more imbued with the social spirit as it proceeded, breaking crusts in city after city, dislodging inertia, and leading at one point or another to a new view of religious responsibility. In the words of one southern pastor, "the church now has a definite stewardship for anything that takes place in the town, from what is to be found in the tin cans in the alley to the kind of chimneys in the tower."

A special fund was raised which enabled THE SURVEY to send copies of its issues every week for a period of three months to the committees which were organized in the different centers—a total of some 7,000 names.

Through its news columns and occasional articles, THE SURVEY kept abreast of what happened during the tours of the various teams, and published in a special number the gist of the sermons of an entire week given by Raymond Robins, whose message of social service became the striking feature of the campaign.

The present year, THE SURVEY is publishing a special department, Church and Community, in charge of Prof. Taylor, which will seek to record the results of the movement as they manifest themselves from town to town, and to interpret the work of the half dozen social service commissions instituted by different denominations.



## BUREAU OF SURVEYS: BIRMINGHAM NUMBER

EVER since the Pittsburgh Survey was carried through in 1907-8 by Charities Publication Committee, inquiries as to how to go about similar community inventories have been coming in from east, west, north and south,—to THE SURVEY, to the various departments of the Russell Sage Foundation, and to other bodies. Surveys in Buffalo, Syracuse, at various points in New England and elsewhere, have further tried out the survey as an organized method of social discovery.

The Russell Sage Foundation has instituted this fall a Department of Surveys and Exhibits, with headquarters at 31 Union Square West, New York City, which will seek to define and spread the survey idea, collect and keep within easy reference information on survey experience, send members of its staff to communities to make an initial diagnosis of their needs, and stand ready to counsel and advise them with respect to major lines of investigation.

The department has been placed under the direction of Shelby M. Harrison, who as a member of THE SURVEY staff was in charge of the field work for our special Birmingham number published last January. This number portrayed the communal problems of the industrial districts of the New South with graphic directness, vision and fearlessness. Like THE SURVEY'S work in Pittsburgh, it was a forerunner of the community inventories which, under the promptings of this new national bureau, will become a factor in American city building.

Here was a city coming to its majority in a decade when sanitation and town planning are widely recognized activities, when the technique of preventive medicine and of constructive philanthropy have reached a stage of precision, and when a new city can ward off in advance many of the conditions which are entrenched in our older towns.

None the less, here was a community which, in its councilmanic system (just abolished), its stunted health authority, its sheriff's fee system, its chain gangs and convict mines, its absence of factory inspection and compulsory education, its lack of adequate hospital facilities, is not as yet using modern implements to serve its social needs.

What Birmingham does will influence this whole Piedmont industrial district—will influence the whole South.

One testy resident was for hanging the members of the SURVEY staff, once our findings were out. But that was not the spirit in which they were published, nor in which they were received by the progressive element in the community. What Bir-

mingham's social and civic pioneers were doing was emphasized as strongly as what the town had left undone. One report became the basis of a vigorous pronouncement by a grand jury; a second led to the establishment of semi-monthly pay by the largest employing corporation in the district; a third has influenced the convict labor situation, and dealt a hard blow to the iniquitous fee system; a fourth has helped to institute a sanitary survey by the coal operators' association of all the mining settlements of Alabama. This sanitary survey—the first ever carried on on a state-wide scale in an American mining district—has already produced tangible results.

## LABOR CONDITIONS IN THE STEEL INDUSTRY: THE CABOT FUND

In a very different field, changes are taking place in which investigations made by THE SURVEY in the Pittsburgh steel district have played a part. The steel industry is basic. It includes the largest employing corporation in the United States. It is an industry in which, for better or for worse, the employers are wholly in control; therefore responsibility for the conditions of work is not divided; it cannot be escaped by managers and owners. And those conditions of work present great raggedness in occupational standards—unexampled schemes for the prevention of accidents on the one hand, and the 12-hour day on the other. In the general forward movement in the industry, THE SURVEY has attempted to follow an even course as critic and interpreter, voicing above all the needs of vast numbers of inarticulate and isolated workers.

In 1910-11, and again in 1911-12, Charities Publication Committee was in receipt of a special fund from Charles M. Cabot, a Boston stock-holder of the U. S. Steel corporation, which enabled us to commission John A. Fitch to visit the principal steel centers. His findings have been published in the magazine as the leading series of 1911-12.

Meanwhile Mr. Cabot, in his individual capacity, secured action at the annual meeting of the U. S. Steel Corporation calling for the appointment of a stock-holders' committee to investigate labor conditions. This committee engaged William H. Matthews, formerly headworker of Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, as secretary, and made report in the spring of 1912.

Its three most notable findings were: first, to clamp in the policy of a six-day working schedule for the members of all crews, a policy which had advanced by great strides since the investigations of the Pittsburgh Survey; second, to provoke the appointment of an Administration Committee to consider the shortening of the 12-hour day; and third, to call for regular publicity as to labor conditions, such as will give the stockholders of the corporation as complete facts as to work as its reports already afford in the matter of finances.

In its regular issues THE SURVEY has been quick



to bring out favorably and at length, various advances in labor conditions in steel making, such as accident relief, and sanitary and welfare committees instituted by the Steel Corporation, and by the American Iron and Steel Institute. At the same time, its current investigations have been a lively

factor in getting this new hearing for those terms of work which our Pittsburgh inquiries showed all too clearly undermined and battered down life in the milltowns, and which Mr. Fitch's inquiries in Bethlehem, Lackawanna, Pueblo and Birmingham have shown to be national in extent.

## PUBLICATION MATTERS

**W**HILE THE SURVEY can play a constructive part in various movements for the improvement of social conditions, it is primarily a publication enterprise. Its function is the scientific one of getting at the facts of living conditions and the journalistic one of putting those facts before the public.

Now, it is often possible to work out large and definite reforms internally, by getting a group of forceful men around a table and convincing them that so and so is the right thing to do. This is a legitimate method of philanthropic work and of social reform. But it is not the method of THE SURVEY. THE SURVEY'S method is one of induction and graphic portrayal, of truth plus publicity; it is another and separate implement for social advance, and its usefulness would be negated were we to fail to hold to its distinctive function.

The philosophy of THE SURVEY is to set forth so far as it is able all the facts that bear on a problem, to bring out the judgments of those who know them first hand, and to rely upon the common understanding, the common forethought, the common purpose of the people of a city or state or trade or profession as the first great resource to be drawn upon in working that problem out.

Thus conceived, THE SURVEY and its allied activities become distinctive and powerful implements of democracy.

### PRESS SERVICE

THE SURVEY'S widest audience is reached through its Press Service which distributes, in co-operation with 125 newspapers in 39 states, a weekly article on some subject within our field.

This last year's newspaper clippings, pasted up in column form after the fashion of the space writer who submits his bill for a "string," would extend over a mile and a quarter.

Our clipping books show 5,750 articles, news items, notes and editorials. This, despite the com-

petition of political news in a presidential year, is an increase of 15 per cent.

As in years past, in co-operation with the National Consumers' League, we carried on an early shopping campaign during the holiday season of 1911, which elicited articles, advertisements and cartoons in papers all over the country.

Eighteen of the co-operating newspapers gave evidence of their appreciation of THE SURVEY'S Press Service by contributing \$392.50 toward enabling the Survey Associates to start with a clean slate.

The newspapers handling the weekly signed articles (see page 14) have an aggregate circulation of three and a half million copies. Between 20 and 30 editors of religious, labor, trade and social journals personally and regularly bear a hand in getting into paper and ink, articles which may be a factor in directing public opinion. Half a dozen news bureaus and press associations co-operate, and articles on special subjects are the frequent subject of requests for use in local campaigns.

The special series of articles and news bulletins used in the campaign for the Hughes-Borah bill brought the movement for a Federal Commission on industrial relations before the readers of 50 of the leading dailies, consecutively, for a period of ten weeks. The series included:

- A Communication to President Taft.
- Federal Commission on Industrial Relations.  
Edward T. Devine.
- Congress Considering Industrial Investigation.  
A Federal Commission on Industrial Relations.  
Paul Kennaday.
- What's Under the Lid at Lawrence?  
Walter E. Weyl.
- Our Haphazard Ways of Settling Strikes.  
Shelby M. Harrison.
- Cardinal Gibbons For Industrial Inquiry.
- Work-Relationships and the Democracy.  
Paul U. Kellogg.
- A Promising Basis for Industrial Peace.  
Allen T. Burns.
- The Canadian Industrial Disputes Act.  
Ethelbert Stewart.

The Press Service is non-commercial; the theory being that it is a piece of co-operation in which the authors of articles form one group of collaborators; the newspapers who spread the material broadcast a second; and THE SURVEY the third. The cost in 1911-12 was \$4600.39.

### BOOK DISTRIBUTION

**A**T the other end of the scale from the press service is our work of book distribution—of getting a reading for that more



developed and exhaustive treatment of social fact and practice which today finds expression in volume form. We act as publishers for the Russell Sage Foundation and serve our magazine readers in executing orders for the books of other publishers. Sound literature to the bulk of 14,418 covers was thus distributed in 1911-12.

During the year we brought out three volumes for the Sage Foundation:

Fatigue and Efficiency.

By Josephine Goldmark.

The Delinquent Child and the Home.

By Sophonisba P. Breckinridge and Edith Abbott.

Saleswomen in Mercantile Stores.

By Elizabeth B. Butler.

Under its own imprint the Committee has published:

The Spirit of Social Work.

By Edward T. Devine.

Fifty Years of Prison Service, the Autobiography of Zebulon R. Brockway.

Miss Goldmark's book, which has run through its first edition in four months, has been widely recognized as one of the most important volumes of the year. It has collected the opinion and experience of the entire civilized world as to the physiological effect of hours and conditions of work upon women, and has put the discussion of legal regulation upon a new and profoundly significant plane of recorded scientific fact. The book comprises the greater part of the briefs prepared by Miss Goldmark and submitted by Mr. Louis D. Brandeis in the defense of the 10-hour laws for women before the Supreme Courts of Illinois and Ohio, and before the United States Supreme Court in the famous case of *Curt Muller v. the State of Oregon*.

While without question a book of this calibre would have gained a wide reading if put out by commercial publishers the success of THE SURVEY'S book department in getting it before physicians and lawyers, employers and labor men, illustrates the special capacity and justification for this branch of our work.

Of the books distributed in 1911-12, 6,514 were Russell Sage Foundation Publications, 3,218 bore the Committee's imprint, and 4,686 were those of other publishers. In addition, there were more than 1000 copies of Dr. S. A. Knopf's *Essay on Tuberculosis*, which was recently brought out in its seventh American edition. Our "best sellers" of the year were books by associate editors of THE SURVEY: "The Spirit of Social Work," by Mr. Devine, which has run into its third edition in eleven months; and "A New Conscience and an Ancient Evil," by Miss Addams, of which 1562 copies have been sold among SURVEY readers.

In all (since 1908) the Committee has sold 24,532 volumes of the Russell Sage Foundation Publications (31 titles) and 7,226 of its own imprint (6 titles). (For full list see page 23.)

Quite apart from its distributing activities, THE SURVEY Magazine carries on a Book Review department which attempts to give the gist of books

published and to exercise a cumulative influence on accuracy and literary form.

During the year, over 257 titles were entered in this department and 156 reviewed. At a time when there is a great outpouring of books in the social field, THE SURVEY has for three years past been fortunate in having as a voluntary member of its staff, a contributing editor versed both in literature and in social work.

## MAGAZINE CIRCULATION

BUT it is in the middle field—in printing and circulating a current medium for the exchange of ideas and information—that the chief publication work of THE SURVEY lies. Throughout the winter months last year 1000 new readers were added each thirty days. Twenty-nine hundred were added by the Leap Year Leap alone. It will perhaps give an idea of what even a small circulation—such as THE SURVEY'S—mounts up to in the course of a year, to note that adding one week's edition onto another, over one million copies (1,141,450 to be specific) were sent out through the New York Post Office in 1911-12. Some of the great periodicals, of course, weigh in as many as that in a single edition; but it is to be said that every copy of THE SURVEY carries with it almost a personal message and relation. Only by sheaves of correspondence—spontaneous letters from every part of the country—could an estimate be placed on the reaction which its publication means to those most directly concerned in social welfare in state and nation.

During 1911-12 the subscription list of THE SURVEY grew 5295 net—more than twice the net gain of the year before—as measured on the last day of the year, September 30. On that date, 1912, the yearly subscribers numbered 19,890, of whom 10,527 were new names; 9,363 were renewals.

The total circulation, of course, has been much in excess of the subscription list. The largest edition was 26,500; the smallest 18,000; the average for the 52 issues of the year 21,951 against 16,863 in 1911-12. The average for the monthly magazine issues has been 23,433.

The difference between total circulation and subscriptions represents copies sold in quantity, a modest exchange list, sample copies and copies for file, most of which are distributed later in bound volumes.

Several issues had considerable independent circulation: 1,500 copies of the Birmingham issue were sold as "singles" in that city; 1000 copies of the issue containing Col. Church's article on Andrew Carnegie's Dumfriesline Trust were distributed in Scotland; 500 copies of the Men and Religion issue were sent out to 500 workers in the movement; 1600 copies of the symposium on the McNamara confession were bought by individual readers in every state in the union. Smaller quan-



titles—a dozen, 50, 100—were bought and sent out weekly, almost daily, by social organizations and individuals as propaganda, and about 50 articles were ordered reprinted as pamphlets for similar use.

All of these do missionary work—in parsonage, newspaper office, woman's club, college seminar, debates in Congress and in many state legislatures.

## THE LEAP-YEAR LEAP

The chief single element of growth in yearly subscribers was through the Leap-Year Leap. 540 persons enlisted in this plan to give to THE SURVEY not money but service—the extra day of the leap year 1912, in securing five new subscribers. Their names are printed on page 16. 2759 subscriptions were thus received. The “leapers” included a minister in a middle-western village who, in a single morning, trebled the number of subscribers in his town; an Eastern millionaire who personally solicited and secured the subscriptions of thirty-five of his friends; a woman who left her bread baking in a hot oven, canvassed her neighbors, and returned triumphant with five subscriptions before the loaves had burned. Like the cartoons in “Life,” in which famous men are shown interviewing themselves, the readers of THE SURVEY heartily acknowledge this hearty co-operation of the readers of THE SURVEY.

Next in rank in subscription gains has been a college audience of 1213 students in sociology, economics, civic progress and related courses, many of whom stood a weekly quiz on the contents of THE SURVEY. The number was double that of previous years, the gain among theological seminaries being especially marked. This use of THE SURVEY as a text-book was suggested and first tried out by Prof. Frank A. Fetter, of Cornell, now of Princeton.

A noteworthy incident of the year was the subscription for 100 of his fellow townsmen by a Pennsylvanian who believed that in no other way could he more substantially promote a local understanding of social and civic needs.

The year's record of subscriptions written, compared with the year before:

	New	Renewal	Total	Receipts
1911-12	10527	9363	19,890	\$34,555.31
1910-11	5855	8740	14,595	25,046.57

## SERVICE TO READERS

The most serious circulation problem confronting THE SURVEY is the fact that against these gains in new subscriptions and receipts there has been a considerable increase in the number of discontinuances: 5632 compared with 3625 in 1910-11. We

renewed, that is, between 62 and 63%—a fair proportion among high class periodicals, but one such as demands radical consideration in a magazine office accustomed as THE SURVEY'S has been to phenomenal records in holding readers. It is a situation due to growth among ever widening circles and creates the problem—an editorial and educational problem as well as one of circulation—of how to hold the attention and serve the needs of the important groups outside our ever renewing core.

As new national and local movements in philanthropy develop and mature, the demands on space for recorded experience, for the discussion of method, for the interpretation and criticism of facts, for stimulus, are ever and ever greater. While it was fairly possible ten years ago for us to enter into the details of particular branches of social work with the closeness of a professional journal, the difficulty of so doing becomes each year more real.

THE SURVEY no longer attempts to be a trade journal for those deep in particular lines—such as child-saving societies, playground workers, prison administrators and the like. Book publication, pamphleteering and specialized journals serving these needs have developed amazingly in ten years. Our effort is:

To publish *fifty-two* weekly issues of chronicle and comment which will set forth the trend in THE SURVEY'S field and the current vigorous thinking of those who are “facing hard facts for the sake of the future.”

To expand *twelve* issues into illustrated magazine numbers which will strike and win the attention of general readers.

And to publish in *mid-monthly* departments a review of each of the major fields of philanthropic concern—civics, industry, health, social agencies in general—so that the reader, engrossed in any part of any field, can with a minimum of effort keep abreast of allied subjects.

In this way we hope to enlist, hold and serve both general reader and professional worker.

As we are able to raise special funds to add pages to the mid-monthly number, we shall be able to round out the elementary departments named. For example, it is hoped this year to maintain a department on “Church and Community,” and to deal more adequately with what has been called “Social Invention in Industry.” A department on social work in small towns and rural districts has been urged; and a department on family rehabilitation, one which would discuss case work—whether that of charitable agent, probation officer, or hospital social service visitor—would, we feel, meet a need midway between the technique of the Bulletin of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, and the general columns of THE SURVEY. Such departments cost in printing expenses something like \$1500. Why it is not feasible to add them unless special funds are in hand from those most directly interested in each field will appear from what follows.



## BUDGET

**D**URING the past summer we were faced with a possible deficit in our general funds of upwards of \$6000,—the result in part of obligations overhanging from previous years. Through the vigorous and generous response of readers of the magazine, of friends of the Publication Committee, of the co-operating newspapers, and of the parent society, this deficit has been cleared (see pages 18 and 22) and as has already been noted, Survey Associates, Inc., starts out free of debt.

But for the new year, as for past years, we appeal for contributions (p. 24) as an important source of income in addition to commercial receipts. This appeal is not to make up current deficit, in the ordinary sense that that term would be applied by a struggling newspaper which failed to make ends meet, but to secure money for the deliberate uses of the enterprise in the same way that a college secures money over and above tuition fees.

A careful analysis of production costs for a recent twelve months period showed that while our net income per \$2 subscriber, from subscriptions, was \$1.72, the cost of printing, press work, paper, ink, engravings and stencils per subscriber amounted to \$1.62. This left ten cents margin per subscriber from subscription receipts, or scarcely enough all added together to pay our rent, much less moderate office and editorial expenses.

A curtailment of size of regular issues is not feasible as a way for striking a better balance, for the number of text pages published annually has not been increased in the past five years, despite the greatly increased demands on space. Nor, with such a ratio between printing costs and subscription price, does increased circulation offer a way out, save as advertising receipts gradually respond. These increased \$1000 in 1911-12. **THE SURVEY** has no clientele of trade purchasers (like an engineering journal) and the net income per page from a general circulation, small in comparison with popular periodicals, is reduced still further by our standards of acceptance.

To meet this situation, we have been actively considering raising the regular subscription rate to \$3.00 per year. This might, however, cut off our ability to enlist readers and to hold those groups of people whom it is most important to inform. It has seemed good sense up till now to make decisions on an educational basis during this formative period; that is, to curtail routine expense at every possible point—change of type this fall is resulting in an important economy—and to go on shouldering what remains of conventional publication expenses above business receipts as part of our philanthropic outlay. [Such also must we consider money spent in extending circulation.]

But **THE SURVEY** would be rendering a rather stupid stewardship if it limited its work to conventional publication lines. It would be throwing away opportunity after opportunity for service. We are

endeavoring to develop a staff which can gain a hearing for things which the newspapers do not regard as news; which can take the findings of public and private investigations, lift them out of formal reports and make them strike home. This means technique, time, expense; a staff which can scrutinize, digest, weigh, edit, the great bulk of social, civic, sanitary and industrial experience within the limits of a compressed weekly journal; one which can independently diagnose the facts in a controversial situation, and get prompt information while events are in process. The city room of the newspaper and the economics seminar of the college must both contribute to our equipment.

## BASIS FOR APPEAL

**W**E need money, then, for organized social discovery—for interpreting the findings and work of a great number of other organizations; for investigating where no other agencies are available, or where we must look to self-dependent sources. We need it for printers' ink and paper, so that this experience and information can be set forth at serviceable length (even if it eats up subscription receipts), and so that it can be put in graphic form and phrase that will make it articulate.

We need money to get a hearing for these things before a thousand new people a month; to spread them broadcast through our press service. Some of these activities are wholly non-commercial; all of them are bound up in the educational working scheme of **THE SURVEY**. It is on the basis of this educational working scheme that we have successfully appealed to philanthropic fund and private contributors in the past, and that we appeal again today.

It has been to this educational working scheme that the New York Charity Organization Society has for years past appropriated \$3,000 annually to its constituent committee—an appropriation which it is felt it will not be legitimate to continue to an outside membership corporation. To them and to all contributors to our work in 1911-12 our heartfelt acknowledgments.

If commercial receipts keep up the rate of increase which has marked the publication year just ended, the \$20,000 in contributions appealed for in this report will clear the items of expenditures carefully estimated for this year's budget.

## EDITORIAL CHANGES

**O**NE of the largest contributions to **THE SURVEY** has not been mentioned—the contributions of unpaid articles, and volun-



tary editorial service. The names of contributors of articles are published on p. 13. Acknowledgment is also due many whose unsigned material has been of large usefulness in the course of the year.

Two important editorial changes should be noted—last spring, the addition of Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House, as an associate editor on a voluntary basis; this fall, the resignation of Mr. Devine as editor and the appointment of Paul U. Kellogg to succeed him. The change vests executive and editorial responsibility in members of the staff giving full time to the magazine. Mr. Devine this year assumes the directorship of the New York School of Philanthropy. With Professor Taylor and Miss Addams, he continues as an associate editor and active member of the working group of THE SURVEY.

## HISTORY OF THE SURVEY

IN closing this report, which in a sense marks the final rendering by the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York of its stewardship in this field of philanthropic publication, work based on that clause of its charter which empowered it to "promote social reform," it may be appropriate to note important waymarks in the development of THE SURVEY as a co-operative journal.

*The Charities Review* was founded as a monthly by the Society in 1891, and bore the imprint of such editors as John H. Finley, now president of the College of the City of New York; Paul Leicester Ford, author of "The Honorable Peter Stirling"; Frederick Howard Wines; and Herbert S. Brown.

With *The Review*, in March, 1897, was merged *Lend-A-Hand*, which had been

founded in 1886 by Edward Everett Hale, best known for his "Man without a Country."

The tap root of the present journal lay not so much, perhaps, in these stately monthly reviews, comparable in the practical field to the university quarterlies, as in *Charities*, which was founded as a weekly by Mr. Devine in 1897.

With *Charities* (upon which had fallen in 1901 the mantle of *The Charities Review*) was merged in 1905 *The Commons*, which had been published at the Chicago neighborhood house of that name under the editorship of Prof. Taylor. For seven years the magazine has maintained offices in Chicago as well as in New York.

In 1906, *Jewish Charity*, edited by Dr. Lee K. Frankel, was merged, and the combined periodicals continued under the joint name of *Charities and The Commons*, until April, 1909, when the name was changed to THE SURVEY.

In 1905 the Central Council of the New York society announced the appointment of a Publication Committee, organized to "give national breadth and effect to the work of the magazine." Robert W. de Forest, president of the society, whose personal support and interest had made possible both the *Charities Review* and *Charities*, became chairman of the new committee, and the membership has included residents of New York, Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia, Baltimore, San Francisco and Washington. The roster of contributors and co-operating subscribers has grown steadily to more than 700. Responsibility for the continuance of the journal will depend upon those who, by their gifts and co-operation, have manifested conviction and interest in the venture for from one to fifteen years. The Survey Associates become then a natural and stable membership base for the work ahead.



# THE SURVEY MAGAZINE

## CONTRIBUTORS OF SIGNED ARTICLES

(A reference to the index, sent on request to all subscribers, will give titles of contributions)

Addams, Jane  
Allen, Wm. H.  
Almy, Frederick  
Anderson, Madge E.  
Andrews, John B.  
Anthony, Katherine  
Armes, Ethel  
Ayres, May

Barrows, Edward M.  
Barrows, Isabel C.  
Batten, Samuel Z.  
Beavers, Genevieve W.  
Berger, Victor L.  
Bernard, Frances Fenton  
Berry, Martha  
Best, E. M.  
Bicknell, Ernest P.  
Birtwell, C. W.  
Blaine, Anita McCormick  
Bloomfield, Meyer  
Bolton, Florence  
Borosini, Victor von  
Bottorff, Katherine P.  
Bowman, H. C.  
Brandeis, Louis D.  
Breckinridge, S. P.  
Brett, Margaret L.  
Brotsky, Randolph J.  
Brooks, John Graham  
Bruere, Robert W.  
Bryan, Samuel  
Burnham, George, Jr.  
Burns, Allen T.

Cabot, Charles M.  
Calder, John  
Cance, Alexander E.  
Carstens, C. C.  
Carver, T. N.  
Chamberlain, Geo. D.  
Chandler, H. A. E.  
Chapin, Robert Coit  
Chase, Wm. Sheafe  
Child, Clinton S.  
Chute, Charles L.  
Claghorn, Kate Holladay  
Clark, Christopher  
Clark, Earle  
Clark, John B.  
Clark, L. Pierce  
Coffee, Rudolph L.  
Coffeen, E. L.  
Collier, John  
Collins, Joseph  
Coolidge, Randolph J., Jr.  
Crandall, Ella Phillips  
Cressy, Earl  
Cross, W. T.  
Crothers, Samuel McChord  
Curran, J. J.  
Curtis, Henry S.

Daniels, John  
Davenport, Charles B.  
Davis, Katherine B.  
Davis, Philip  
Dawson, Miles M.  
Delano, Jane A.  
Denison, Elsa  
Devine, Edward T.  
Dickson, W. B.  
Dix, John A.

Eaves, Lucile  
Edlund, Roscoe C.  
Elwood, Everett S.  
England, W. P.  
Ernst, Charles F.  
Evans, A. Grant

Faust, Allen K.  
Fernald, Walter E.  
Filene, Edward A.  
Fitch, John A.  
Flack, Horace E.  
Flexner, Hortense  
Fliegelman, Belle  
Folks, Homer  
Forbes, George M.  
Ford, George B.  
Ford, James

Foster, Warren Dunham  
Freund, Ernst  
Fuld, Leonhard F.  
Fulmer, Harriet

Garret, Robert  
Girelius, Charles G.  
Glenn, John M.  
Glenn, Mary Willcox  
Goddard, Henry H.  
Goldmark, Josephine  
Goldwater, S. S.  
Goodnow, Frank J.  
Gregory, Emily Ray  
Grossman, Althea S.  
Groszmann, M. P. E.

Halbert, L. A.  
Hall, Edith R.  
Hall, George A.  
Ham, Arthur H.  
Hamilton, Alice  
Hanaw, M. S.  
Hanson, J. M.  
Harrison, Shelby M.  
Heaton, James P.  
Hedges, LeRoy  
Hills, Alice A.  
Hirsch, Emil G.  
Holmes, John Haynes  
Houghton, Louise Seymour  
Howe, Frederick C.  
Hoxie, Robert L.  
Hoyt, Franklin Chase  
Hunter, George McP.

Ihlder, John  
Irwin, Elisabeth A.

Jacobs, Philip P.  
Jenkins, James, Jr.  
Jensen, Jens  
Johnson, Eleanor Hope  
Johnson, Fred. R.  
Johnson, Wm. Templeton  
Johnstone, Edward R.

Kelley, Florence  
Kellogg, Arthur P.  
Kellogg, Paul U.  
Kelso, J. J.  
Kennaday, Paul  
Kerby, William J.  
Kimball, Rosamond  
Kingabury, John A.  
Kingsley, Sherman C.  
Kirkbride, Franklin B.  
Kitchelt, Richard  
Kite, Elizabeth S.  
Knowles, Morris  
Krackowizer, E. W.

Lane, Winthrop D.  
Lansing, J. L.  
Lauck, W. J.  
Lederle, Ernst J.  
Lee, Joseph  
Leiserson, Wm. M.  
Leonard, Oscar  
Leschier, Don D.  
Leupp, Constance D.  
Levin, Louis H.  
Lewinski-Corwin, E. H.  
Lewis, O. F.  
Lindsay, Ben B.  
Lindsay, Samuel M.  
Loeb, Morris  
London, Meyer  
Lovejoy, Owen R.

Macbeth, Madge  
McCarthy, Charles  
McCarthy, Dennis  
McClure, D. E.  
McDowell, Mary E.  
Macfarland, Charles S.  
McGrath, W. M.  
Mack, Julian W.  
McKelway, A. J.  
Mackenzie, Mary A.  
McLean, Francis H.  
McMurtie, Douglas C.

McVey, Frank L.  
Magruder, J. W.  
Marks, Marcus M.  
Martin, John  
Melish, J. Howard  
Miles, H. E.  
Millis, H. A.  
Moot, Adelbert  
Morrow, Prince A.  
Moscowitz, Henry

Nelson, N. O.  
Nudd, Howard W.

O'Reilly, Mary Boyle  
O'Sullivan, Mary K.  
Ovington, Mary White  
Owen, J. E.

Palmer, Eva B.  
Palmer, Lewis E.  
Parsons, Sara E.  
Phillips, Harry  
Plummer, Mary W.  
Porter, George D.  
Porter, H. F. J.  
Pratt, Edward Ewing

Rauschenbusch, Walter  
Reeder, R. R.  
Reynolds, Jas. Bronson  
Robbins, Jane E.  
Robins, Raymond  
Robinson, Chas. Mulford  
Rosenblum, William F.  
Ross, Edward Allsworth  
Rowell, Wilbur C.  
Ryan, John A.

Sachs, Theodore B.  
Salmon, Thomas W.  
Sanville, Florence L.  
Schereschewsky, J. W.  
Schiefflin, Wm. Jay  
Schlapp, Max G.  
Scudder, Vida D.  
Seager, Henry R.  
Seligman, E. R. A.  
Shenton, Herbert M.  
Sherman, John H.  
Shipley, Alfred E.  
Smith, Fred B.  
Smith, Garrett  
Stelze, Charles  
Sterling, Henry  
Stewart, Ethelbert  
Stimson, Stella C.  
Stoddard, Cora Frances  
Sumner, Helen L.  
Sumner, Mary Brown

Taplin, Harry Blake  
Taylor, Graham  
Taylor, Graham Romeyn  
Towne, Arthur W.  
Tucker, Ross F.

Wald, Lillian D.  
Walrath, Alice  
Ward, Harry F.  
Welch, Wm. H.  
Weyll, R. H.  
Weyl, Walter E.  
White, Bouck  
White, Gaylord S.  
Whitin, E. Stagg  
Whitin, Frederick H.  
Whitlock, Brand  
Wickersham, Geo. W.  
Widen, Luther E.  
Wigmore, John H.  
Williams, Elizabeth  
Williams, Joseph T.  
Wilson, Alexander M.  
Woods, Eleanor H.  
Woods, Robert A.  
Wright, Lucy  
Wyatt, Edith

Yoder, Albert H.  
Young, Robert E., Jr.



# THE SURVEY PRESS SERVICE

## CO-OPERATING NEWSPAPERS

<b>ALABAMA</b>		Newark.....	News
Birmingham.....	Age-Herald	Passaic.....	News
Mobile.....	Register	Paterson.....	Call
<b>ARKANSAS</b>		Trenton.....	Times
Little Rock.....	Gazette	<b>NEW MEXICO</b>	
<b>CALIFORNIA</b>		Santa Fe.....	New Mexican
Sacramento.....	Bee	<b>NEW YORK</b>	
San Jose.....	Daily Mercury	Albany.....	Times Union
<b>COLORADO</b>		Amenia.....	Times
Colorado Springs.....	Gazette	Amsterdam.....	Recorder
Cripple Creek.....	Times	Auburn.....	Advertiser
<b>CONNECTICUT</b>		Brooklyn.....	Neighborhood News
Bridgeport.....	Farmer	Buffalo.....	Express
Meriden.....	Record	Geneva.....	Times
Waterbury.....	Republican	New York.....	Times
<b>GEORGIA</b>		Rochester.....	Times
Atlanta.....	Constitution	Syracuse.....	Post-Standard
Augusta.....	Chronicle	Troy.....	Times
Macon.....	Telegraph	Utica.....	Press
<b>ILLINOIS</b>		Watertown.....	Times
Aurora.....	Beacon	<b>NORTH CAROLINA</b>	
Chicago.....	Post	Asheville.....	Citizen
Edwardsville.....	Intelligencer	Charlotte.....	News
Joliet.....	News	Winston-Salem.....	Journal
Springfield.....	Illinois State Register	<b>OHIO</b>	
<b>INDIANA</b>		Akron.....	Beacon Journal
Evansville.....	Courier	Ashtabula.....	Beacon-Record
Fort Wayne.....	Journal Gazette	Cincinnati.....	Commercial Tribune
Indianapolis.....	Sun	Columbus.....	Ohio State Journal
Richmond.....	Item	Dayton.....	News
South Bend.....	Tribune	Hamilton.....	Republican
<b>IOWA</b>		Portsmouth.....	Blade
Burlington.....	Hawk-Eye	Sandusky.....	Star Journal
Keokuk.....	Constitution Democrat	Springfield.....	Daily News
<b>KENTUCKY</b>		Youngstown.....	Telegram
Henderson.....	Gleaner	Zanesville.....	Times-Recorder
Lexington.....	Herald	<b>OREGON</b>	
Louisville.....	Courier Journal	Portland.....	Telegram
Paducah.....	Sun	<b>PENNSYLVANIA</b>	
<b>LOUISIANA</b>		Allentown.....	Call
New Orleans.....	Picayune	Erie.....	Dispatch
Shreveport.....	Times	Johnstown.....	Democrat
<b>MAINE</b>		Philadelphia.....	North American
Bangor.....	Commercial	Pittsburg.....	Post
Lewiston.....	Journal	Reading.....	Herald
Portland.....	Express	Wilkesbarre.....	Record
<b>MARYLAND</b>		Williamsport.....	Grit
Baltimore.....	Sun	<b>RHODE ISLAND</b>	
<b>MASSACHUSETTS</b>		Providence.....	Journal
Boston.....	Transcript	<b>SOUTH CAROLINA</b>	
Cambridge.....	Tribune	Greenville.....	News
Fitchburg.....	Sentinel	<b>SOUTH DAKOTA</b>	
Gloucester.....	Times	Sioux Falls.....	Argus-Leader
Lawrence.....	Eagle	Yankton.....	Press
Lynn.....	Item	<b>TENNESSEE</b>	
New Bedford.....	Standard	Knoxville.....	Knoxville Daily Tribune
Newburyport.....	News	Memphis.....	Commercial Appeal
Springfield.....	Republican	<b>TEXAS</b>	
<b>MICHIGAN</b>		Dallas.....	News
Detroit.....	Saturday Night	Galveston.....	News
Flint.....	Daily Press	<b>UTAH</b>	
Saginaw.....	News	Salt Lake City.....	Deseret News
<b>MINNESOTA</b>		<b>VERMONT</b>	
Duluth.....	Herald	Burlington.....	News
Minneapolis.....	Tribune	<b>VIRGINIA</b>	
<b>MISSISSIPPI</b>		Lynchburg.....	News
Jackson.....	News	<b>WASHINGTON</b>	
<b>MISSOURI</b>		Tacoma.....	Tribune
Kansas City.....	Star	<b>WEST VIRGINIA</b>	
<b>MONTANA</b>		Parkersburg.....	Sentinel
Butte.....	Inter-Mountain	<b>WISCONSIN</b>	
<b>NEBRASKA</b>		Ashland.....	Press
Lincoln.....	Star	Fond du Lac.....	Commonwealth
Omaha.....	Bee	Madison.....	Wisconsin State Journal
<b>NEW HAMPSHIRE</b>		Marquette.....	Eagle Star
Concord.....	Monitor	Milwaukee.....	Journal
<b>NEW JERSEY</b>		Wausau.....	Record Herald
Atlantic City.....	Press	<b>CANADA</b>	
Camden.....	Post-Telegraph	Montreal.....	Star
Elizabeth.....	Journal	Ottawa.....	Citizen
Hoboken.....	Observer	Toronto.....	Globe
Jersey City.....	Journal	Winnipeg.....	Manitoba Free Press
		St. John.....	Globe



## THE SURVEY PRESS SERVICE

### ARTICLES CONTRIBUTED AND SENT OUT

- October 7—A Self Supporting Summer Outing, by Charles F. Ernst  
October 14—Police Administration, by Leonhard Felix Fuld  
October 21—Judge Frederick Bloman, by Winthrop D. Lane  
October 28—Helping the Public Understand the Public Schools, by William H. Allen
- November 4—Sunday Laws Vs. Rest Day Laws, by John A. Fitch  
November 11—A Sea-Going Hospital for Deep-Sea Fishermen, by Thomas W. Salmon, M.D.  
November 18—Robbing Peter to Pay Paul, by Jacob Bloomgarden  
November 25—Yuletide Period of Torture, by Sue Ainslee Clark and Edith Wyatt
- December 2—Socializing Church Work, by Josiah Strong  
December 9—Horatio Alger, Then and Now, by Lewis E. Palmer  
December 16—A National Municipal Work, by Clinton Rogers Woodruff  
December 23—What Becomes of the Widows? by Francis H. McLean  
December 30—The Campaign Against the Loan Sharks, by Arthur H. Ham
- January 6—Ministering to Broken Families, by James P. Heaton  
January 13—A New Specific for Cities, by H. S. Gilbertson  
January 20—A Cash Nexus for Crime, by Shelby M. Harrison  
January 27—Doctoring a City's Arteries, by Charles Mulford Robinson
- February 3—Vacant Lot Gardens in Minneapolis, by Leroy J. Boughner  
February 10—A Strike for Four Loaves of Bread, by Lewis E. Palmer  
February 17—Helping 3,000,000 People to Dodge the "Loan Shark," by James P. Heaton  
February 24—Gotham's Welcome to Unprotected Girls, by Orin C. Baker
- March 2—Taking the School to the Shop in Cincinnati, by William H. Allen  
March 9—Plan to Stop Inbreeding of Defectives, by Henry H. Goddard  
March 16—Reviving Home Crafts by Standardization, by David C. Davis  
March 23—New China and the Famine, by Earl H. Cressy  
March 30—A Home Hospital, by John A. Kingsbury
- April 6—The 24-Hour Turn in the Steel Industry, by John A. Fitch  
April 13—Overthrow of Civil Service in Chicago, by Jane Addams  
April 20—Our Haphazard Ways of Settling Strikes, by Shelby M. Harrison  
April 27—Evading the Pure Food Law, by James P. Heaton
- May 4—The Revolution of the Sea, by Rev. George McPherson Hunter  
May 11—Teaching Children Without Class Work, by Carl R. Byoir  
May 18—Saving Mothers and Babies, by Carolyn Van Blarcom  
May 25—The Great Lakes Dispute, by John A. Fitch
- June 1—What a Pullman Stockholder Did, by Alice Hamilton  
June 8—Debrutalizing Independence Day, by Lee F. Hanmer  
June 15—The Prison Slaver, by E. Stagg Whitin  
June 22—Training Store Girls in Salesmanship, by Elizabeth Beardsley Butler  
June 29—Poisoning from Overwork, by Josephine Goldmark
- July 6—Not Bullets but Paint, by Edward Ewing Pratt  
July 13—Alien Enemies of Native Song Birds, by James P. Heaton  
July 20—The Public School Camp, by Henry S. Curtis  
July 27—Private Giving Through Public Schools, by Elsa Denison
- August 3—Destitution Among Seamen, by George McPherson Hunter  
August 10—Our National Forests as Recreation Grounds, by Henry S. Graves  
August 17—Playgrounds for Grown-ups, by Alice A. Hills  
August 24—Education for Those Above Fourteen, by Dr. Jane E. Robbins  
August 31—"Park Life," by Robert E. Young, Jr.
- September 7—Atlantic City in Season and Out, by Margaret L. Brett  
September 14—The Negro in Business, by William Anthony Aery  
September 21—The Right to Get Work, by Louis Heaton Pink  
September 28—Socializing the Public School in Los Angeles, by W. H. Slingerland



# ROLL OF THE LEAP-YEAR LEAP

[See page 10]

Acker, Mrs. M. M., Hornell, N. Y.  
Addams, Miss Jane, Chicago, Ill.  
Addison, Rev. C. M., Stamford, Conn.  
Addison, John A., Philadelphia, Pa.  
Addison, Mrs. Lucia F., Lenta, Oregon  
Adler, Elmer, Rochester, N. Y.  
Akers, Dwight L., Chicago, Ill.  
Alexandrakis, Miss Panayiotis, New York  
Allen, Marshall C., New York City  
Allen, Rev. Ernest Bourner, Toledo, Ohio  
Allen, Mrs. Martha M., Walpole, Mass.  
Almy, Frederic, Buffalo, N. Y.  
Anderson, George Wood, St. Louis, Mo.  
Anderson, Miss R. F., Richmond, Va.  
Anderson, Rev. S. H., Milwaukee, Wis.  
Andrea, Mrs. F. T., West Allis, Wis.  
Andrews, B. R., New York City  
Andrews, Mrs. C. W., Syracuse, N. Y.  
Arnold, Miss Sarah Louise, Newton Center, Mass.  
Arnold, W. C., Hazleton, Pa.  
Aronovici, Carol, Providence, R. I.

Baldwin, William H., Washington, D. C.  
Bannister, Miss E., Ottumwa, Iowa  
Bard, Mrs. Thos. R., Hueneme, Calif.  
Barnum, Miss Gertrude, Cleveland, Ohio  
Barrows, Miss Alice P., New York City  
Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., Croton, N. Y.  
Bartlett, Mr. H. N., Wilkesburg, Pa.  
Beach, Walter G., Seattle, Wash.  
Beard, Emma B., Fayetteville, N. Y.  
Beckhard, M., New York City  
Beckwith, Mrs. Helen R., Hanover, N. H.  
Beckwith, Miss L. C., Providence, R. I.  
Beebe, Miss Katherine, Evanston, Ill.  
Beecher, Mrs. H. K., Pottsville, Pa.  
Beers, Clifford W., New Haven, Conn.  
Bell, Mrs. J. E., Saratoga, Calif.  
Bentley, Miss Rosemary Jones, Lewiston, Idaho  
Billikopf, Jacob, Kansas City, Mo.  
Birtwell, Charles W., Boston, Mass.  
Boddy, Miss Florence, Cincinnati, Ohio  
Bojesen, Miss Johanna, New York City  
Bonser, F. G., New York City  
Bowie, Mrs. Charles S., Tacoma, Wash.  
Bowman, Miss Clara Lee, Philadelphia, Pa.  
Boyle, Dr. James E., Grand Forks, N. D.  
Boynton, Miss Edith, Highland Park, Ill.  
Brandt, Mrs. J. B., Brooklyn, N. Y.  
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† Sent \$12 for subscription.

‡ Two co-operative subscriptions during fiscal year.



# FINANCIAL STATEMENT, FISCAL YEAR 1911-12

As of Sept. 30, 1912

Detailed Memoranda Covering Any Points Will be Sent on Application

## COMMERCIAL RECEIPTS

Balance on hand, October 1, 1911 .....		\$678.10	
Commercial receipts:			
Subscriptions .....	\$34,555.31		
Advertising .....	7,146.37		
Miscellaneous and jobbing sales .....	5,419.11	47,120.79	
CONTRIBUTIONS			
General contributions .....	\$10,225.50		
Towards clearance of deficit .....	2,732.50		
Men and religion fund .....	2,500.00		
Co-operating subscribers .....	\$6,193.00		
Contributions under \$10 .....	263.65	21,914.65	
Charity Organization Society of the City of New York .....	\$3,000.00		
Pledges .....	20,000.00	23,000.00	\$92,713.54
DISBURSEMENTS			
Editorial .....	\$20,513.48		
Publishing .....	43,895.76		
Subscriptions .....	11,988.97		
Advertising .....	5,769.13		
Miscellaneous and jobbing sales .....	4,439.16		
Press Service .....	4,600.39		91,206.89
Balance on hand, October 1, 1912 .....			\$1,506.65

## DETAIL OF GENERAL EXPENSES AS ABOVE

Salaries and wages .....	\$32,709.12		
Telephone, telegraph and messenger .....	761.46		
Transportation and express .....	390.53		
Stationery and printing .....	4,789.36		
Postage .....	5,478.33		
Furniture and fixtures .....	809.64		
Sundry expenses .....	2,492.70		
Traveling expenses .....	1,509.65		
Advertising .....	96.41		
Printing .....	23,053.72		
Paper .....	9,987.72		
Engravings .....	1,600.63		
Wrappers .....	558.60		
Jobbing .....	4,360.52		
Rent .....	2,608.50		\$91,206.89

## MEMORANDUM SHOWING CLEARANCE OF DEFICIT

At Close of Fiscal Year 1911-1912

Bills payable September 30, 1912			
Issues .....	\$3942.53		
Paper .....	309.51		
Sundry .....	244.78		
Total .....			\$4496.82
Cash on hand October 1, 1912 .....	\$1506.65		
Bills receivable .....	404.65	\$1911.30	
Contributions for 1911-12 received after close of fiscal year:			
Charity Organization Society of the City of New York .....	\$1000.00		
General contributions .....	500.00		
Towards deficit .....	500.00		
Co-operative subscriptions .....	304.00		
Contributions under \$10 .....	31.00		
Remainder (underwritten by Charles D. Norton) .....	250.52	2585.52	\$4496.82





RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION PUBLICATIONS  
PUBLISHED BY SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC., FORMERLY  
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1908	Luther H. Gulick and Leonard P. Ayres	Medical Inspection of Schools	\$1.50
1909	Robert Coit Chapin	Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families in New York City	2.00
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1909	Leonard P. Ayres	Laggards in our Schools	1.50
1909	Elizabeth B. Butler	Women and the Trades	1.50
1910	Lawrence Veiller	Housing Reform	1.25
1910	Lawrence Veiller	A Model Tenement House Law	1.25
1910	M. Louise Greene	Among School Gardens	1.25
1910	Crystal Eastman	Work-Accidents and the Law	1.50
1910	Lee K. Frankel and Miles M. Dawson	Workingmen's Insurance in Europe	2.50
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1910	Charles R. Henderson	Penal and Reformatory Institutions	2.50
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THE SURVEY enters upon its new stage of development clear of all overhanging deficits. On the other hand, Survey Associates, Inc., has, as a philanthropic corporation, no capital to invest in extending the magazine and its educational work.

To meet current outlay in these directions during the publication year 1912-13, the Survey Associates need (above receipts from business and other sources) the sum of \$20,000

(For list of contributors in 1911-12, see pages 18-21)

### CO-OPERATING SUBSCRIPTIONS

[\$10 each]

During the past year, the number of co-operating subscribers has jumped from 293 to 646—more than doubling. It has been this widespread and democratic backing to the work of magazine and committee which has justified the parent society in putting the enterprise on a co-operative basis. Under the new form of organization these co-operating subscribers will make up the great body of the membership.

Our appeal for 1912-13 is to 800 readers of THE SURVEY to enlist as co-operative subscribers at \$10 each.

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While the number of co-operating subscribers has increased by leaps and bounds, we must look to those of larger means and constructive vision for the balance of our budget.

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### ENDOWMENT FUND

The Survey Associates are in position to administer a short-term endowment fund, to be applied during this period of growth to their general work, or to certain well-defined lines of activity which would amply justify philanthropic investment. We believe there are few opportunities for a large gift to show such imagination, provoke such co-operation and exert so practical an influence for the well-being of America.

(For audited financial statement 1911-12, see page 22; for discussion of budget, see page 11)

Checks should be drawn to Frank Tucker, Treasurer, Survey Associates, Inc., 105 East 22d Street, New York City.











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